EFFECTS OF RURAL OUTWARD MIGRATION ON AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES IN GIWA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA

BY

STEPHEN BISHOP

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHYAND ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT,

FACULTY OF PHYSICAL SCIENCES,

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY,

ZARIA

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Stephen BISHOP
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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIAIN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF SCIENCE DEGREE IN GEOGRAPHY

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT,
FACULTY OF PHYSICAL SCIENCES,

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY,

ZARIA, NIGERIA

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Declaration

I declare that this dissertation titled **Effects of Rural Outward Migration on Agricultural Activities in Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria** has been carried out by me in the Department of Geography and Environmental Management, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this dissertation was previously presented for another degree or diploma at this or any other Institution.

BishopStephen	……..	……..
Name of Student	Signature	Date

Certification

The dissertation entitled **Effects Of Rural Outward Migration On Agricultural Activities In Giwa Local Government Area Of Kaduna State, Nigeria** by **Stephen BISHOP**meets the regulations governing the award of Master of Science degree in Geography of the Ahmadu Bello University, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

Prof. M.A.Iliya	……...	…….
Chairman Supervisory Committee	Signature	Date
Prof. I.J. Musa	…….	…….
Member Supervisory Committee	Signature	Date
Dr. A.K. Usman	…….	…….
Head of Department	Signature	Date
Prof. S.Z. Abubakar	…..…….……..	..……
Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies	Signature	Date

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my family and friends.

Abstract

Scholars have argued that rural outward migration may generate labour shortage and in turn lead to low farm produce and consequently a decline of the rural economy leading to persistent poverty and food insecurity. Thisstudyexamined the '**Effects of Rural Outward Migration on Agricultural Activities in Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria**.' Systematic sampling technique was used to select six wards from the eleven wards that made up the study area. Questionnaire was administered among 400 randomly selected household heads. The descriptive statistics was used to summarize the data into frequency counts, averages and percentages. Also, inferential statistics such as Mann Whitney and Kruskal Wallis tests were used to test the hypotheses. The Mann Whitney test for their income level shows that except for those who engage in trading (.000), there is no significant difference in other sources of income between households whose members had migrated and those that did not. It was reported that majority (68.4%) of the migrantsmigrated before the farming season to other northern states mainly to search for better jobs, education and to engage in trading. The Kruskal Wallis test shows a significant variation (0.001) in the number of malesand femalesthat have migrated from the various wards before and during farming periods, and there are significant variation among the various wards as to the number that migrated. Out-migration from the study area were mostly to places within Kaduna and other northern states. All the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The effects of outward migration include loss of friends with a mean score (4.50),shortage of labour (4.45) and family break-up (4.22) respectively. On the basis of the findings, the study recommended that to stem the incidence of outward migration, government should establish skill acquisition centres and agricultural processing industries to provide jobs opportunities and the skills needed to be self-employed for the potential migrants. Also, empower farmers with underground water lifting machines as this will revive the declining dry season farming.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.7 Background to the Study

Colonialism exposed Nigerians to the international market by the exportation of cash crops, which resulted to the creation of administrative offices in certain areas and consequently necessitated investment in socio-economic amenities within these areas. This stimulated the quest for paid employment and migration of workforce into these areas and therefore prompted the commencement of rural-urban migration into new cities like Lagos, Port-Harcourt, Enugu, Jos and Kaduna because unskilled labour were required for menial jobs in the urban centres of colonial administration. Thus, the urban centres became more appealing to young people since superior employment and other socio-economic conveniences resided there. The rural areas were thus abandoned by the youths, leaving the ageing men, women and children to labour on the farms.

Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from the rural countryside to the burgeoning cities due to poverty manifested in the inadequacy of incomes and lack of gainful employment and services. People generally tend to be pulled to the areas of prosperity. Migration, whether internal or international, has become an important livelihood strategy among rural household in most developing countries. This is because it provides migrant households with remittances that are uncorrelated with agricultural income. Migrants are usually concerned with the benefits they hope to gain and give less thought to the problems that will incur at their destination. Rural out-migration may impact more on those left behind.

Migration is also selective in terms of age, sex, level of education and marital status and

males migrate more than their female counterparts as they are always the bread winners. Migration mainly concerns young adults who have a positive net expected return on migration due to their longer remaining life expectancy. On the other hand, migration could also be a strategy to diversify income sources and to coping with the risks associated with nature and man-made. This makes families to encourage younger members to migrate, purposely to have higher earnings potential and also the likelihood to remit money to members of the family at home.

There are two major ways to differentiate a rural area from an urban area. An area can be refered to as rural or urban based on its demographic features (population density and characteristics) or economic activities (whether primary or secondary and tertiary activities). In economic terms, a rural area may be defined as an area involved mainly in primary activities or whose economic activities are predominantly agricultural in nature with limited or poor social and infrastructural facilities while an urban area on the other hand is involve in secondary and tertiary activities or non-agricultural in nature with good social and infrastructural facilities.

Giwa Local Government Area (LGA) located on the plains of northern part of Kaduna State and is one of the 23 LGAs in the State. Historically, it was created out of Igabi LGA and was a frontier region between the ancient emirates of Katsina and Zaria. Giwa LGA is purely agrarian in nature with agriculture as the major source of livelihood. It is characterized by inadequate and uneven distribution of both social and infrastructural facilities (like hospitals, schools, banks and so on) as these few facilities are concentrated in just two wards; Giwa (the local government headquarters) and Shika. This has directly and indirectly led to out-migration of people from the local government.

In Nigeria, agriculture is the mainstay of the rural areas, yet the rural area is most vulnerable to poverty with greater proportion of their population moving out on annual basis. Rural-urban migration is the most important form of internal migration in most developing countries, Nigeria inclusive. The movement poses some problems in the rural as well as in the urban center. This arises mainly due to excessive drain of youth from the rural areas thus leaving only the children and aged members to constitute the labour force of the rural area. On the other hand, experience in developing countries have shown that the rate of rural-urban migration has ceaselessly outweighed the rate of job creation and having an overweight on the social and infrastructural amenities available in the urban areas.

Many developing countries and their policies have a negative view on rural-urban migration because it is perceived that poverty forces the poor people to migrate from their villages, this migration in turn, generates higher pressure on the cities which in the end causes increased poverty both in the rural and the urban areas. This has led many developing countries to make policies with goals to re-direct the spatial distribution of the population and lower the flow of migrants to the bigger cities in the country. It is estimated that 77% of all the countries in Africa have these kind of policies (United Nations (UN), 2012). The need to therefore study and examine the effects of rural-urban migration on rural areas cannot be over emphasized.

1.2 Statementofthe Research Problem

Despite the efforts of the Nigerian government towards sustaining the economy of rural people through the introduction of a number of agricultural programmes such as**;** Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) in 1976, River Basin and Rural Development Authority (R.B.R.D.A.) in 1976, the Green Revolution (GR) in 1980, Fadama (i, ii and iii) in 1990, 2006 and 2008, development programmes among others, rural people still see it necessary to migrate to the urban cities, and

by extension, migration according to the United Nations (2013) report, despite the lack of reliable data on internal migrants, it is estimated that 40% of the migrants originated from the rural areas and many of them are youth with high propensity to migrate.

Migration had adverse effect on the livelihood of the people left behind in the rural areas such as the aged women and very young people. Aromolaran (2013) reported that in most rural areas in Nigeria, the potential labour force that could have contributed to the improvement of the rural economy has moved into the cities in search of better standard of living and benefits they presumed could exist in urban centres. According to Mini (2000), it has resulted in the speedy decline of the rural economy and led to persistent poverty and food insecurity.

A study conducted by Aworemi, Abdul-Azeez and Opoola (2011) in Lagos State, Nigeria, showed that rural-urban migration is a double-edged problem affecting the rural community as well as the urban destinations. They contend that rural community is affected because the youths and adults that are supposed to remain in the community and contribute to the development of agriculture in particular and the community in general leave the rural areas for other destinations. Taylor, Rozelle, and De Brauw (2003) noted that the adverse effect of loss of labour may be high since migrants tend to be younger and better educated than the average rural labourer.

However, some scholars have argued that out-migration has positive effects on agriculture. For instance, Taylor, Rozelle and De Brauw (2003) have argued that loss in yield due to the reduction in available labour may be compensated for(partially) by remittances from the migrant(s), which are used to purchase additional inputs or hire labour. It is possible that, initially the migrants cannot send remittances until they are well settled. De Brauw and Rozelle

(2003) also provided evidence that the remittances sent home by migrants compensate for this lost-labour, thus contributing to household incomes directly by stimulating crop production.

In a nut shell, this apparent contradiction in the literature can be partly resolved by the understanding that migration impacts are not the same for different areas across time and space. There are indications that the initial effect of migration on agricultural productivity might indeed have been negative, because of inadequate family labour but may subsequently improve if remittances flows from migrants are invested in agriculture. After reviewing a number of cases in Asia, Deshingkar (2004) concluded that, loss of labour through migration may or may not reduce agricultural production, remittance may or may not increase access to assets by alleviating credit constraint: this in turn may or may not increase agricultural production and household incomes.

Gimba and Kumshe (2011) examined the causes and effects of rural-urban migration in Maiduguri metropolis of Borno State using simple percentages. A total of 150 respondents were involved in the study. The results revealed that the major causes of rural-urban migration are; the search for better wages, education, political and social instability, employment and business opportunities. The results also revealed that rural-urban migration brings pressure on urban housing and the environment because as migrants arrive from rural areas, most of them live on the streets and make shift sub-standard accommodation before establishing themselves. They further noted that the high rate of population growth in the urban centres also lessens the quality of life because it destroys resources such as water and forests needed for sustenance. The study therefore recommended that the government should provide social amenities in the rural areas and also provide jobs for the citizens in the rural areas.

Aworemi, Abdul-azeez and Opoola (2011) researched on the factors influencing rural-urban migration in some selected LGAs in Lagos State using logistic regression model.

Interviews were used to elicit information from the respondents in the study area. A total of 400 respondents were interviewed. Data analysis revealed that among the variables identified to be influencing rural-urban migration are; unemployment, education, inadequate social amenities and health reasons. They recommended that to stem down the rate of rural-urban migration, basic amenities such as pipe borne water, electricity, recreational facilities, good educational facilities and qualified teachers should be provided in the rural areas.

Isaac and Raqib (2013) undertook a study on rural-urban migration and rural community development in Kpongu community of upper west region of Ghana. A total of 200 respondents were selected to represent key informants, focus group participants and interviewees to gather data from returned migrants and their families in order to find out the reasons for migration, and what needs to be done to prevent migration from the community. The study revealed that most of the returned migrants migrated to the cities to find jobs. According to the authors, the major effective way to reduce out-migration from the community may be the provision of a vocational training centre to hold back the youth who often migrate to other areas to learn carpentry, hair dressing and dress making that could make them self-employed and independent.

Omonigho and Olaniyan (2013) assessed the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Ijebu Waterside Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria using descriptive statistics. A total of 144 questionnaires were administered to household heads of migrants' families.They reported that majority of migrants in the study area migrated to continue their education while others migrated in search of employment, to join relatives and to get married. Their findings also revealed that rural-urban migration has pulled a lot of youths to the urban areas. The authors recommended concerted government policy aimed at closing the lacuna between wage and other socio-economic differentials between the rural and urban areas,

government's support in the development and funding of small and medium scale rural enterprises and agriculture.

Oyakhilomen (2014) examined gender influence on the income of maize farmers in Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State. According to the author, women have always played an important role in agriculture, undertaking a wide range of activities relating to food production, processing and marketing. Beyond the farm, women play a key role in land and water management in all developing countries. Also, women are most often the collectors of water, firewood and fodder. They have good knowledge on the medicinal use of plants, they have been in the forefront of soil conservation programmes and it is women who perform most of the household labour devoted to animals. As migration to the cities of the developing world gathers speed, women carry with them these rural skills and are responsible for the growth of urban and peri-urban agriculture, which is now recognized as being vital to food security in cities.

There is no consensus on the effects of rural out-migration on those left behind. From the foregoing, and to the best knowledge of the researcher, it can be deduced that much has not been done to assess the effect of rural-urban migration on socio-economic activities especially in Giwa LGA. This is therefore the gap in knowledge which this study intends to fill and in order to achieve this, the study intends to provide answers to the following:

i. What are the socio-economic characteristics of the migrants' and non-migrants' families in Giwa LGA?

ii. What is the temporal variation of rural outward migration in the study area?

iii. What is the spatial variation of rural outward migration in the study area?

iv. What are the causes for rural outward migration in the study area?

v. What are the effects of rural outward migration on socio-economic activities of households left behind?

1.3 Aimand Objectivesofthe Study

The aim of this study is to assess the effects of rural outward migration on agricultural activities in Giwa LGA, of Kaduna State, Nigeria. This would be achieved through the following objectives which are to:

i Examine the socio-economic characteristics of the migrants' and non-migrants' families in Giwa LGA.

ii. Determine the temporal variation of rural outward migration in the study area.

iii Examine the spatial variation of rural outward migration in the study area.

iv Examine the causes of rural outward migration in the study area.

v Examine the effects of rural outward migration on socio-economic activities on households left behind.

1.4 Hypotheses

i There are two competing schools of thoughts with regards to the effects of rural-urban migration on non-migrants. While scholars like Analogo, Sakyi-dauson, Boateng and Mahama (2014) posited that rural out-migration may result in drastic decrease in labour force, giving rise to reduced food production and consequently reduced household income, scholars like De Brauw et. al. insisted that the remittances sent home by migrants compensate for this lost labour by increasing household income. The bases for this hypothesis therefore is to find out if these remittances actually increase the income of the families with migrants when compared to families without migrants.

Ho: There is no significant difference in the income of households whose members have migrated compared to those who did not.

ii Studies have shown that migration is selective in terms of sex and that males migrate more than females. For example Agesa and Agesa (1999) posited that 'although men have tended to dominate migration flows, women are becoming an increasing part of labour migration streams in Nigeria and other African societies.' The bases for this hypothesis is to confirm whether or not males actually migrate more than their female counterparts.

Ho: There is no significant difference between the males and the females that migrated at different seasons from the various wards in the study area.

iii According to Adepoju (1979), 'the prevailing migration pattern in Nigeria is rural-urban which makes population growth in major Nigerian cities like Lagos, Ibadan, Kano and Port Harcourt among others to be very alarming on annual basis. The bases for this hypothesis is to find out the places with high inflow of migrants and whether or not there is a significant variation among the various wards that migrate to such places.

Ho: There is no significant difference among the migrants that migrated to different places from the various wards in the study area.

1.5 Significanceofthe Study

Rural-urban migration has been a challenging issue for policy makers and (or) governments especially in developing countries. Out-migration from rural areas may result in drastic decrease in the labour force which in turn reduces total cropped area and quality of workforce thus giving rise to reduced food production and reduced household income leading to food insecurity (Analogo, Sakyi-dawson, Boateng and Mahama, 2014). On the contrary, De Haas (2001)

contended that, in the long run, and after an adjustment process, this agricultural decline has often been reversed through agricultural investments made possible by the inflow of remittances. It is expected that the findings from the study will be of immense importance to educational planners, policy makers and researchers/students who are interested in the effect of rural-urban migration on socio-economic activities as it will reveal the causes and effects of rural-urban migration on socio-economic activities in the study area.It will also be an addition to general works on related topics, thus, an addition to knowledge and finally, it will suggest ways of arresting or curtailing out migration from rural areas if it is established that it has some negative effects.

1.6 Scopeofthe Study

The study is concerned with the effects of rural outward migration on socio-economic activities in Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria. It covers six (6) wards namely; Dan Mahawayi, Gangara, Idasu, Kakangi, Yakawada and Pan Hauya.The content scope of this study include the socio-economic activities prevalent in Giwa LGA, such as; major source of income, source of farm labour, highest educational qualification, temporal variation in sex and season of out-migrants, spatial variation in place of out-migrants and the effects of rural outward migration. The study covered families with and without migrants between 2014 and 2015.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Issues

The nature of migration, its causes and consequences are complex, and there is no general agreement among researchers. Arguments on the differences of migration causing factors exist not only among researchers from different disciplines, but also among researchers within one discipline. For this study, the push and pull theory, the Harris-Todaro theory of labour migration and the New Economic Labour Migration (NELM) theory is adopted.

Any review of migration theory must acknowledge, if not pay homage to, Ravenstein's (1886) 'laws of migration'. Given Ravenstein's disciplinary and professional background as a cartographer at the British War Office, his 'laws' have been most appreciated by geographers. According to Ravenstein (1886), migrants move mainly over short distances; those going longer distances head for centres of industry and commerce and most migration are from agricultural to industrial areas. Ravenstein also pointed out that large towns grow more by migration than by natural increase and that females are more migratory than males, at least over shorter distances and males are a majority in international migration. Ravenstein further asserts that migration increases along with the development of industry, commerce and transport and that the major causes of migration are economic. The ancestral lineage of Ravenstein's laws which combined individual rational-choice theory with the broader structures of rural-urban and developmental inequalities is found in the much-vaunted push-pull framework (Boyle, Halfacree and Robinson, 1998).

Fundamental to the understanding of rural-urban migration flow are the traditional push and pull factors approach. The push and pull factors approach for rural-urban migration is a

combination of neo-classical and Todarian approaches. Lee (1966) developed a general scheme into which a variety of spatial movements can be placed. Based on the arguments, Lee (1966) divided the forces influencing migrant perceptions into 'negative' and 'positive' factors. The former are 'push' factors tending to force migrants to leave origin areas, while the latter are 'pull' factors attracting migrants to destination areas in the expectation of improving their standard of living.

According to Lee (1966), the positive factors could be more important than the negative factors. Negative (push) factors include, the difficulties in rural areas such as poverty, unemployment and land shortages are driving forces that urge the farmers to leave their homeland to find a new place to settle and to work. These push factors are basic factors which induce migration. The 'positive (pull) factors' refer to job or income opportunities outside the farmers' homeland, which are so attractive that people want to achieve them. Therefore, the job and income opportunities in urban areas are pulling factors that pull the people to settle and to work. Although migration can occur either by 'push' or 'pull' factors, Lee assumes migration mostly is a result of a combination of both.

The Harris-Todaro model of labour migration is an economic model developed in 1970 and used in development economics and welfare economics to explain some of the issues concerning rural-urban migration (Jennissen, 2004). The model assumes that there are two sectors; the urban industrial sector which is capital intensive and the rural agricultural sector which is labour intensive. Further, it assumes that there is no rural unemployment due to land abundance, flexible labour market and no minimum wage while on the other hand, there is urban unemployment with an institutionally fixed minimum wage. The model is also based on the assumption that rural-urban migration takes place in the face of this persistent urban unemployment. In a nut shell, the overall assumption of the model is thatthe migration decision

is based on expected income differentials between the rural and urban areas. This implies that rural-urban migration in a context of high urban unemployment can be economically rational if the expected urban income exceeds rural income. Thus, an equilibrium is reached when the expected wage in urban areas is equal to the marginal product of an agricultural worker.

The assumption behind the Harris-Todaro model is that urban minimum wage is set to be higher than the wage rate paid to rural labour that is valued at its marginal product resulting in wage differential between the two sectors. Rural workers have an incentive to migrate to the urban areas despite of urban unemployment, because of the potential of higher earnings in the urban sector. Such migration will continue as long as there is a possibility for migrants to increase their income by moving to the city. In this case, with the random matching of workers to available jobs, the ratio of available jobs to total job seekers gives the probability that any person moving from the agricultural sector to the urban sector will be able to find a job. This explains why there is a continuous flow of migrants from the rural to the urban centres as observed in many developing countries despite of the high urban unemployment rates. According to the model, migration will stoponly when equilibrium is reached between the rural real wage and the expected wage rate of the urban sector or in other words, when the wage differential is zero (Jennissen, 2004).

In any case, the Harris-Todaro's model suffers from theoretical oversimplifications. First, the model's assumption of wage differential as the sole reason for migration failed to explain the causes of migration in many cases. There are other factors which are in play in the place of origin which affects the migrating process and the decision to migrate is taken based on all these accounts together. For example, a large number of female migrate not for economic reasons or in search of higher wages but due to marriage or because the working member of the family migrate. Conditions such as these cannot be explained onthe basis of wage

differentials.Secondly, the model's equilibrium condition is not always true in many cases because as earlier stated, there is a large number of people who migrate for non-economic reasons and these people will still continue to migrate even if the wage differential is zero. Finally, the model was also based on the assumption that there is no rural unemployment due to land abundance. This is not true as found in various studies done in the rural areas which reported of high unemployment rates in the rural areas especially during the farming season, also there are large number of rural landless farmers and as the pressure on land increases, and the agricultural productivity falls, the pressure will further increase, increasing the rural unemployment (Jennissen, 2004).

The above underlying criticisms notwithstanding, it can be found that economic reasons or wage differentials do play a primary role as in the case of Harris-Todaro's model. Rural-urban migration causes over-crowding and unemployment in cities as migration rates exceed urban job creation rates, with many people ending up in unproductive or under-productive employment in the informal sector. However, even though this migration creates unemployment and induces informal sector growth, this behaviour is economically rational and utility-maximizing in the context of the Harris-Todaro model. Thus, as long as the migrating economic agent have complete and accurate information concerning rural and urban wage rates and probabilities of obtaining employment, they will make an expected income-maximizing decision.

Combining family decision-making with neoclassical orthodoxy, the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) theory has made a major impact on the theorization of migration since the 1980s. The NELM approach emerged in the 1980s and 1990s, offering a much more suitable view of migration and development. It links causes and consequences of migration more clearly. This is formulated by taking to account the NELM assumption that migration is a

collective decision made by a household not only to maximize income but also to minimize and spread risks, particularly taking to account the case of less developed economies (Stark, 1991).

Stark (1978; 1991), in particular, placed the behaviour of individual migrants within a wider societal context and considering the household rather than the individual as the most appropriate decision-making unit. This new approach views migration as the risk-sharing behaviour of households, individuals better than households seem able to diversify resources such as labour in order to minimize income risks. According to the proponents of the household strategy approach, people act collectively not only to maximize expected income, but also to minimize risks for the members of the kinship unit, this happens by diversifying household sources of livelihood (Stark, 1991; Whitehead, 1981).

This approach therefore suggests that migration decisions are not made by isolated individuals, but rather, by families or households who are seen as the principal agents in the decision-making. This approach integrates motives other than individual income maximization that is central to migration decision making. Lucas and Stark (1985) argue that migration is considered as a household strategy in reaction to income risks since migrant remittances serve as income insurance for households of origin. This can theoretically explain why people migrate even in the absence of substantial income differentials. In a nutshell the theory holds that migration - whether it consists of sending a family member or the whole unit - is based on family needs for stabile income levels and insurance.

However, like other theories of migration, the NELM has been criticized in a number of ways. For example, Arango (2004) argue that; first, it is limited to the supply side of labour migration, and seems best when applied to poor, rural settings in places such as Botswana and Mexico (to quote two classic locations where research has been done on it). Secondly, it

assumes, moreover, that intra-household relationships are harmonious, leading to unanimous collective decision-making, in other words, the family or household is treated in isolation without acknowledging the tensions or conflicts that are contained therein - such as patriarchal practices or inter-sibling rivalry for example - which might lead to 'distorted' decision making, and finally, it does not apply to the common situation where the entire household migrates.

Despite the above mentioned criticisms underlying the NELM, it is still possible to see its direct application to real world situations today. In addition to its contribution to more stable and secure household livelihoods, NELM scholars argued that migration plays a vital role in providing a potential source of investment capital, which is especially important in the context of the imperfect credit (capital) and risk (insurance) markets that prevail in most developing countries in which Nigeria is included. Such markets are often weakly developed and inaccessible to non-elite groups. Hence, migration can be considered as a livelihood strategy to overcome various market constraints. This will enable households to invest in productive activities and improve their livelihoods. For instance, recent studies conducted in Burkina Faso (Hampshire, 2002; Wouterse, 2006) and Morocco (De Haas, 2006) suggest that internal and international migration within the African continent should primarily be seen as a means to enhance livelihood security through income diversification because the welfare gains, if any, are relatively small. This is why the push and pull theory, the Harris-Todaro theory of labour migration and the NELM was found more suitable and adopted for this study.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Types of Migration

There are four types of internal migration, these are; rural-urban migration, urban-rural migration, rural-rural migration and urban-urban migration.

Rural-urban migration: According to the UN (2013), rural-urban migration is viewed as the movement of rural agricultural workers into the cities in search of non-agricultural jobs and 'the easier life style' often attributed to living in the urban areas. It is generally observed that most of the people migrating are seen as 'vehicles' for improving their standard of living. This is consequent upon the dichotomous planning and development which many developing countries adopted especially after independence.

Urban-rural migration: While urbanization and the growth of main cities is worldwide a central concern today, in many contemporary cases, new dynamics involving both the private and government enterprises in the rural areas gradually pull, voluntarily or involuntarily, the urban dwellers to new forms of settlement in and out of the main cities. Urban-rural migration has been driven in recent times by the spate of crime and high cost of living in urban areas (Bryceson and Mackinnon, 2012). This is because rural life presents a picture of serenity, suggests cheaper land and rent, a chance to work without constant disturbance of modern tools and to learn the art of human relations in it's most basic form.

Rural-rural migration: This is the movement or change of residence from one rural area to another. In countries where most of the population lives in rural areas, rural-rural migration is more common. In Tanzania for example, the spread of cash crops (especially coffee and cotton) was stimulated by government policies and led to substantial rural-rural migration to the Usangu plains (World Bank, 2010).

Urban-urban migration: Whereas the principal movement of most migrants in the past was to leave the rural sector for the cities, many countries have had urban majorities for decades. So while there is certainly some rural-urban migration happening, most of the movement in the United States for example which has an urban population of near 80 percent is urban-urban.

Urban-urban migration is the movement of people from one city to another. This relatively recent phenomenon of urban-urban migration is an increasing trend of the twenty-first century (World Bank, 2010).

This study is mainly concerned with rural outward migration.

2.2.2 Causes of Rural Outward Migration

Generally, rural out migration is caused by a variety of factors which are often economic, social or political in nature. Studies however indicated that rural outward migration is a suitable mechanism to improve own and families' living standards. In many developing countries, the phenomenon of rural outward migration which is mainly triggered by rural 'push' factors and urban 'pull' factors is the main cause of unbalanced rate of population growth and distribution between urban and rural areas. The push factors includes; drought, famine, natural disaster, poor living conditions like housing, healthcare and education, unemployment, war, conflicts and so on. The pull factors on the other hand includes; employment opportunities, higher incomes, better healthcare and educational facilities and so on (Goldscheider, 2003).

Agricultural modernization contributes a lot towards rural-urban migration especially in developing countries. Agricultural modernization involves the use of tractors, machines and artificial fertilizers for agriculture. This results to need of few workers in the farms and farmers do not require manure but use fertilizers. This reduces employment opportunities for the rural people especially the men. Also, rural people when offered with better options of livelihood which are not demanding like rural farming and which is more financially rewarding, they are likely to accept. Depending on the country, farming gives only seasonal employment with no enough income to sustain rural people thus being forces to move to urban areas in search of better and well-paying jobs (McCatty, 2004).

Natural disasters like floods, earthquakes, landslides and so on are also important factors that causes rural-urban migration. These natural disasters destroys people's properties and crops leading to poverty and insecurity. To seek for safety, aids and compensation in situations like this, people prefer moving to urban areas where they can have guaranteed safety, aids and compensation in the case of any natural disaster (Agesa and Kim, 2001).

Different ethnic communities have different cultural values and social structures. Some primitive ways of life in rural areas forces people to seek civilized ways of living in urban areas. Bullying, death threats and disown form society as a result of certain offenses may force one to seek refuge in urban areas where there is no cultural or community rules to be followed. Such social structures and cultural values may cause conflict among rural population thereby forcing some people to migrate to urban areas.

According to Alemante, Ansha and Waktole 2006, women are increasingly migrating to urban areas in search of job opportunities and better life. Some of the women are taking migration as the only way out from marriage arrangements as a result of harmful traditional practices such as early marriage, abduction and other unhealthy relationships in the family. There is evidence that early marriage, sexual abuse and the social restrictions on employment like the caste system also make people resort to migrate to cities where they can work freely under the urban anonymity (World Bank, 2010).

Rural land tenure system and pattern of inheritance is another factor resulting in rural-urban migration. This could be a major problem if land tenure is communal whereby you find that land is owned by a group of people thus individual having no authority to protect or own the land. This often cause conflict during land sharing forcing many people to be landless thus opting to move to urban centres (Goldscheider, 2003).

People have changed their notions about education and holding higher positions. This has facilitated people's movement from rural to urban areas in search of better education (especially tertiary education) which can lead to higher income thus increasing their future income and consequently increasing their consumption. Better employment opportunities often force people to migrate to urban areas. The quality of employment in urban areas is better than those in rural areas. In rural areas people have little education and their pay is low when compared to the urban areas.

Urban informal sector has been categorized among those factors causing rural-urban migration since it reduces individual risk of being unemployed once they migrate to cities. Urban informal sector provides jobs of all kinds which are unregulated and small scale in nature. These jobs includes; street vending, sharpening of knives, drug trafficking, maize roasting and even prostitution (McCatty, 2004). This informal sector acts as a safety net for those rural people who fall back if things did not work out for them. However, some find better jobs like motor vehicle mechanics, carpentry, hairdressing or barbing, personal servants and maids. Some become successful business people with several employees thus earning more income and becoming a source of motivation for potential migrants in the village.

Government policies in some developing countries to a large extent causes rural-urban migration. Those policies supporting disproportionate increase employment opportunities and better wage rate in urban centres increasing construction activities in the cities altogether leads to imbalances in rural-urban landscape. For example, in rural areas, employment opportunities are less due to limited types of industries but in the urban areas, there is a vast scope for employment in industries, trade, transportation and other services. In those countries with agricultural based economy, the poor lack access to some resources thus high level of inequality in distribution of resources thereby contributing to people's movement from rural to urban areas

in search of better and well paying jobs to alleviate poverty (McCatty, 2004). Housing and healthcare facilities in rural areas are poor when compared to urban areas. Thus, people may voluntarily decide to migrate to urban areas so as to have access to better housing, education and healthcare facilities (McCatty, 2004).

2.2.3 The Effects of Rural Out-migration on Migrants' Households

The analysis of remittance flows has tended to focus on flows between rich and poor countries, while internal remittances have received much less attention. Domestic flows of remittances are a source of income for a greater number of households than are overseas remittances. Though individual transaction values are lower, there are many more domestic migrants than international migrants, and thus their cumulative value is believed to be substantial (Lanly and Valenzuela, 2004). According to a report released by the Consultative Group to Assist the Poor (CGAP), the 95 million persons migrating primarily from rural to urban regions of China had sent home nearly 30 billion US dollar in 2005, which was more than the 22 billion US dollar that India -the largest recipient of international remittances - was expected to receive the same year (CGAP, 2005).

Although remittances are mostly used for consumption, in some cases the additional income enables families to invest in local development and entrepreneurial endeavours. Higher income levels, greater income stability and future security ensured by remittances, as well as the migrants' skills acquired in urban areas, may stimulate households to invest in land and livestock, or in off-farm activities. The gender and the age of those who move and those who stay can have a significant effect on sending areas in terms of remittances, migrant women tend to send higher remittances to source areas (Skeldon, 2003). However, since in many rural communities women lack access to assets, they have limited control over how remittances are used, this was noted in several studies in sub-Saharan Africa and in Asia (Tacoli, 2002).

In Thailand, the analysis by Guest (2003) demonstrated that a high proportion of households with urban migrants used remittances for inputs, such as buying fertilizer and paying wages. In rural Nepal, a study noted that one major impact of the increase in the remittance flow has been the creation of new wage labour and land-renting opportunities; wage labour opportunities increased for landless and marginal farm households, while new land-renting possibilities provided scope to increase the scale of operation for those committed to farming (Yang and Martinez, 2005).

There is also evidence of the use of remittances for investments in non-farm activities. Some authors relate that in sub-Saharan Africa, an increasing number of migrants' families are investing in food processing and breweries, taxis and transport trucks, service stations and garages (Okali, Okpara, and Olawoye 2001). However, this type of investment generally occurs when migrants have been successfully integrated in their place of migration, which in turn depends largely on their educational level and the income they can secure while they are away (Tacoli, 2002).

A recent study by Oseni and Winter (2009), using a nationally representative dataset, showed that about 5.5% of the average household income in Nigeria is from remittances, and that households in the Southern regions received more from remittances than their northern counterpart. The authors are however silent on the specific effect of migrant's remittances on the livelihood of household in Nigeria.

In certain context, strong ties with other labour markets may enhance a household's confidence in the continuation and stability of the income of migrants and thus reinforce dependency on remittances. However, remittance-dependent households and communities are vulnerable to the fluctuations of labour demand and economic crises in the migrant-receiving areas, this exposes remittance-recipient areas to unexpected economic disruptions, in other

cases, remittance payments create a strong disincentive for domestic savings, leading to a depletion of the domestic resource base for investment (New Economic Foundation (NEF), 2006).

The use of migrants' resources in productive investment and employment generation also depends largely on the infrastructure and opportunities offered by their communities of origin. For example, in areas that lack communication infrastructure and access to financial institutions, the investment options for receiving families are very limited, conversely, areas with good road and transport networks, with favourable conditions for agriculture, and that offer local non-farm employment opportunities are much more conducive to attract investment and employment generation (Tacoli, 2002).

Despite the positive experiences of many migrants, a large proportion of them continue to suffer abuse and exploitation at their destination especially the most vulnerable groups of workers (women), they may face forced labour, low wages, poor working conditions, absence of social protection and other forms of exploitation, which may have negative consequences on the level of remittances they may send (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2004).

2.2.4 The Effects of Rural Out-migration on Non-migrant Households

The increased financial inflows are opening up new possibilities for rural development. There are a number of routes through which the macro-economic effects of remittance inflows can and do benefit the wider community and not just those families directly receiving the transfers. One such important route is through any multiplier effects of spending by the recipients. That is, the spending of remittances may generate incomes for those providing the goods and services purchased, and they in turn spend this income, setting off a chain reaction. Of course, the number and distribution of migrants in the population or the amount and dispersion of

remittances will influence the extent to which the impacts of migration are transmitted beyond migrant households into the local economy.

There is substantial evidence found in some regions suggesting that multiplier effects from remittance spending are quite large. Glytsos (2002) used data on seven Mediterranean countries from 1969 to 1993 to simulate the direct and indirect effects of remittances on incomes, and hence on investment, in a simple dynamic, simultaneous model of aggregate investments, consumption, and their effects on Gross Domestic Production (GDP). In the study, Glytsos found that investment rises with remittances in six out of the seven countries and in four of these, investment rises by more than the initial amount remitted. Similar observations by Guest (2003) in rural Northeast Thailand indicated that the use of remittances from internal migration have had important multiplier effects on the local economy, since local purchasing power increases. León-Ledesma and Piracha (2004) look at the case of eleven transition economies in Eastern Europe between 1990 and 1999. In this context, they also found a significant positive association between remittances and aggregate investments. In a very detailed attempt to trace remittance spending chains within Ghana, Mazzucato (2005) found paths of spending out of initial remittances stretching across many regions of Ghana, encompassing goods and services in both urban and rural settings. According to Mazzucato, even remittances spent on something as "unproductive" as a lavish funeral is shown to have major expansionary effects through the multiplier impacts of the initial spending.

In general, as pointed out by Taylor and Martin (2001), migration is likely to have the largest positive effect on rural source economies when the losses of human and other capital from out-migration are small, when the benefits of migration accrue disproportionately to households that face the greatest initial constraints to local production and when households that receive remittances have expenditure patterns that produce the largest rural income multipliers..

2.2.5 Effects of Rural-Urban Migration on Agriculture and Rural Employment

The length of migration and the composition of the flow are critical variables influencing the effects of out-migration on rural areas. Rural out-migration with frequent returns to the community of origin allows for a better deployment of labour, since those who are under-employed during the agricultural lean season can find work in town or in other areas. Migrants of this type tend to maintain their agricultural activities while taking advantage of opportunities available in other areas, thus increasing disposable income which can be invested in production or used for consumption (Skeldon 2003).

Conversely, long-term migration to cities usually means that migrants are unable to return home and engage in agricultural activities during the farming season. Their absence may generate labour shortages, labour shortage may contribute to a destabilization of traditional farming systems at household and community levels (Tacoli, 2002). In many rural areas, out-migration of young men and women has led to significant ageing of the rural labour force, with a negative effect on farm production and farm income (FAO, 1995).

Another impact of out-migration on rural communities is the loss of innovative and better-educated community members. According to Skeldon (2003), the loss of human capital can be compensated by the fact that the migrants may either return at a later stage or extend the resource base of their families through investments elsewhere. However, as noted by Mendola (2006), the effects of the 'brain drain' on rural development still remain devoid of evidence.

Aworemi *et. al.* (2011) posited that, rural communities share this burden through loss of manpower necessary for agricultural activities and production. According to the authors, the impoverishment of rural areas in Nigeria is partly explainable by out-migration of able youths in search of employment in cities. Consequently, agriculture which prior to discovery of oil was

the mainstay of Nigeria's economy was far relegated to the background leading to the country's mono-economy status. Over-dependence on oil, it is argued here, has led to employment crisis and avoidable importation of agricultural products, which together have over the years had negative net effect on local industries and productions as well as international trade balances.

In some cases, remittances can compensate the negative effect of out-migration by allowing hired labour to replace the agricultural labour force lost. For instance, in Southern Morocco, De Haas (2003) found that migrants usually entrusted land cultivation to other household members (women in particular), to sharecroppers or to hired labourers. This has resulted in improved wage levels and share-cropping conditions. According to research carried out in areas of high out-migration in China, total grain output declined by less than 2%, while household disposable income increased by 16% as a result of migration (Deshingkar and Grimm 2005). However, the capacity of remittances to compensate the labour shortage caused by predominantly male out-migration depends on the amount of remittances received, several studies in Africa (Cleveland 1991; FAO, 1995) and Asia (Deshingkar 2004) found that these (remittances) were often too low to allow for hiring labour.

Even with the arrival of remittances to rural areas and the growth of the local economy, those who remain behind do not always benefit. Newly created jobs are often primarily for men, while women tend to be stuck in traditional forms of employment. Often, women have to step in, doing more work and engaging themselves in traditionally male chores (Baver, 1995). For example, in some Central American and Caribbean countries certain agricultural activities have become female-dominated; many women increasingly have the responsibility of agriculture after their men deserted the village and migrated for extra-income. In Haiti, the number of females in the agricultural labour force increased from 30% in 1980 to 37% in 1990 (Migration Policy Institute (MPI), 2004). Although the feminization of agriculture in these countries could

be seen as a positive trend, with an improvement in women's status and autonomy, it is important to recognize that rural women are forced to continue to carry out household and family responsibilities in addition to the agricultural chores. As a result, their daily workload is increased. Similar observation has been made in rural areas of sub-Saharan Africa, where this situation rarely confers more power to women in the domestic sphere and in village decision making as women remain under the control of the lineage system during the migration of their husbands (FAO, 1995).

In some rural communities, out-migration can be seen as a means to reducing pressure on household consumption and on the land. In regions of high population density for example, out-migration of part of the population may be a way to alleviate under-employment in agriculture and protect the livelihoods of those farmers who stay behind, the remaining rural population may thus obtain access to more land and other resources which can make their farms economically viable (Potts and Mutambirwa 1990).

2.2.6 Rural-Urban Migration in Nigeria

The fact still remains that, the prevailing migration pattern in Nigeria is rural-urban which makes population growth in major Nigerian cities like Lagos, Ibadan, Kano, and Port Harcourt among others to be very alarming on annual basis. Rural-urban migration in Nigeria assumed prominence in the Oil boom era of the early 1970s (Adepoju, 1979). The situation has become more intractable with the obvious dichotomy in access to modern facilities and living standards between rural areas and the urban centres, this trend has continued in spite of so much orchestrated efforts at rural transformation (Fadayomi, 1992).

In 1974, the rural population accounted for about 75% in Nigeria, but by 2001 urban population had assumed a high dimension of 44% of the country's population. (Aworemi *et. al.*,

2011). The forces that result to migration from rural areas can be termed "Centrifugal Forces" while the forces that result to migration to the urban centres can be termed "Centripetal Forces". The inadequate social amenities, poor infrastructural facilities and services, homogenous and poor economy are the Centrifugal forces pushing rural population to the urban centres. The virtual job opportunities, availability of social amenities, infrastructural facilities and services, urban life and heterogeneous economy among other things are the Centripetal forces pulling the population of the countryside to the urban centres (Aworemi et. al., 2011).

There is a great shift between the percentage of population living in rural areas and urban centres in Nigeria after 1970.Between 1985 and 1990, over 3 million Nigerians migrated from rural areas to urban centres while over 5 million Nigerians migrated between 2001 and 2005 (Audu, 2008). This shows over 7.5% increase in the rural-urban migration in Nigeria for every period of 5 years. Since 1970 till date, the relationship between the percentage of people living in urban centres and rural areas can be described as "Directional Inverse Relationship". The relationship is inverse, because the percentage of the population living in rural areas has been decreasing, while the percentage of population living in urban centres has been increasing. It is directional, because the increase is experienced only by urban centres, while decrease is experienced only by rural areas (Audu, 2008).

Although men have tended to dominate migration flows, women are becoming an increasing part of labour migration streams in Nigeria and other African societies (Agesa and Agesa, 1999). Some studies have shown that women are less likely to migrate alone than men, but with increasing urbanization, they are becoming a more important component of the labour migration streams to urban areas (Guilmoto, 1998).A greater demand for female labour in certain services (for example, domestic work/healthcare) and industries, as well as a growing

social acceptance of women's economic independence and mobility, are the main factors behind this increase (Deshingkar and Grimm 2005).

Adepoju (1976) showed that in Nigeria, net migration (considering both national and international migration) is more important than natural increase in the growth of cities. Zachariah and Conde (1980) further noted that nearly half of the growth rate of urban areas was contributed by migrants. Migration within Nigerian settlements in the past was majorly due to the efforts to seek safety of life, arable land for farming, education opportunities and to access health facilities, but the major factor for migration in Nigeria nowadays is majorly for economic purpose. For example, Nwajiuba (2005) in a study found out that reasons for migration in Nigeria were mainly economic (80 percent of migrants) and for education (16 percent).

2.2.7 Effects of Rural-Urban Migration on Education and Health Status of Rural Children

The social effects of migration consist of changes in family composition, in gender roles, child outcomes in terms of labour, education, health and so on. One may identify two main possible effects of rural out-migration on outcomes for children. First, migration through remittances increases household income which may lead to reduced child labour and increased educational attainment. On the other hand, migration also alters family composition and roles within the family which may have adverse effects on educational success and educational outcomes for children in migrants' households. In Africa for example, Agesa and Kim (2001) finds that rural-urban migration in Kenya is more likely to split the family geographically rather than resulting in family migration, when the number of dependent children at home is larger: a result that they interpret as largely reflecting the lower cost of living in the rural area is conflicting with the psychological costs of separation.

Migration not only impart significant benefits to individuals through higher returns for working capability, but also has strong and transformative impacts on the rural families and the communities from which the migrants come. Migrants can increase their own level of economic livelihood, and these families can invest more in aspects of their children's education such as tutoring, computer-assisted learning and other academic resources which effectively improve the children's intellectual performance, as an indirect positive effect of migration (Lai; Liu; Zhang; Bai; Sharbono; Rozelle, 2011).So also, some researchers have found a positive relationship between migration and student's education. For instance, Glewwe and Jacoby (2004) found a significant and positive relationship between wealth and demand for education, because migration increases the household income, it thereby contributes positively to child development.

However, the same argument may not be extended to other family members, particularly their children. Children in migrants' families often grow up in single parent families and are confronted with problems of family disintegration and family stress.In most cases, their school-aged children are left behind in villages when the parents move to the city for work (Wu, 2004). Mckenzie and Rapoport (2007) indicated that children in migrant families are less likely to be attending school and complete less total schooling years than the children in non-migrant households. According to the authors, the absence of migrant parents may lead to less child supervision with lower attendance and success at school for the children who find themselves lumbered with extra household chores in their parent's absence. Furthermore, Liang and Chen (2007) noted that temporary parental migration into the urban Guangdong province of China can significantly decrease the children's school enrolment rate due to lack of care.

Apart from education, migration may also impact on children's health. McKenzie (2005) use historical migration networks as instruments for household migration in order to estimate

the impact of migration on children's health. The study found that children in migrant households are 19% less likely to be breastfed and 11% less likely to have received all of their recommended vaccinations. Hildebrandt and McKenzie (2005), using a nationally representative demographic survey of Mexico also found out that children in migrant households receive less preventive healthcare facilities such as breastfeeding and vaccination than children in non-migrant households.

Studies on several developing countries have conclusively shown that it is primarily the young, able-bodied and better educated rural inhabitants who emigrate, leaving substantial gaps in the agricultural and rural labour force. Ashagrie (1997) estimates that about 70% of children of 26 developing countries are engaged in agricultural activities. According to the author, about 4.2 million child workers in Bangladesh for example are engaged in the agriculture sector. As farming is essentially a family enterprise in most developing countries, rural-urban migration of able-bodied young workers leaves the burden on the aged and children in rural areas who tend to be less productive, the long-term implications of agricultural labour force shortages are likely to result in a decline in the education and health status of rural families including a rise in mortality and a rise in child farm workers (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), 2003).

CHAPTER THREE

STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Study Area

3.1.1 Location and Size

The study area is located between Latitudes 10^0 50' N - $11^0$20' N and Longitudes $7^0$10' E - $7^0$40' E. It has a total area of about 2,066km2. The area is located on the plain of Northern part of Kaduna State. It shares boundaries in the North with Katsina State, to the West with Birnin Gwari LGA, to the East with Zaria LGA and to the South with Igabi LGA, (see Figure 3.1).

3.1.2 Population and Culture

According to the 2006 population census report; there are 47 villages, 11wards and a total population of 292, 384 with 167,440 males and 124,944 females in Giwa LGA (NPC, 2009). The Local Government is more of a rural area. In subsequent sections of this chapter (3.13 Socio-economic Activities), we would explain why Giwa is a rural area. The people in the study area are mainly Hausa and Fulani who are predominantly Muslims, and there is also a fairly large number of Maguzawa in the North East and in the South West of the Local Government. These Maguzawas are Christians but speak the Hausa language. However, other ethnic groups do exist in almost all the wards, these are mainly Igbos, Yorubas and other groups from different parts of the country.

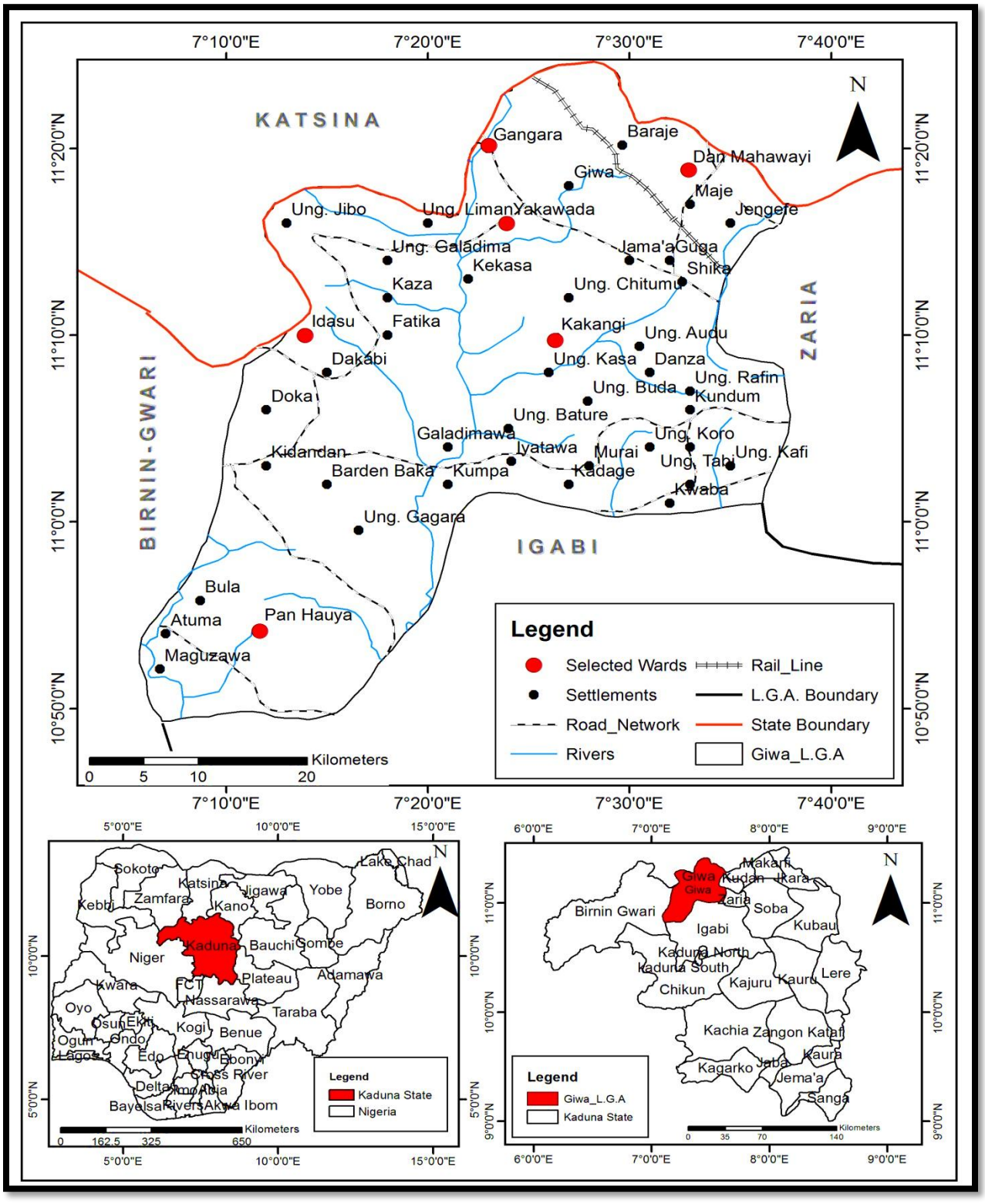


Figure 3.1: Giwa Local Government Area Showing the Districts.
Source: Adapted from the Administrative Map of Kaduna State, (2016).

3.1.3 Socio-economic Activities

Agriculture is the main economic activity in Giwa LGA and about 90% of the people are engaged in farming as their major occupation (Bako, 2011). The crops cultivated in the area includes; groundnut, maize, yam, millet and sorghum. Irrigation farming is also practiced during the dry season as the Local Government is blessed with flood plains popularly known as Fadama. Some of the rivers used for irrigation includes; Rafin Kago, Tashar Shari, and Sabon Birni. Crops grown during the dry season includes; tomatoes, pepper, onions, lettuce, carrots, and so on. The application of fertilizers (both organic and synthetic), and the use of local farm tools (such as hoes, cutlases and animal traction) are a common practice in the area. Family labour is heavily employed in agriculture of which women participation is very minimal. Livestock production is also common among the Fulanis in the area and a considerable population is involved in artisanship and petty trading of varied items while a very few are civil servants.

3.1.4 Infrastructural Facilities

Broadly speaking, the infrastructural facilities in Giwa LGA are far from adequate. Aside the Zaria-Katsina road which is covered with asphalt, roads in most villages are constructed by the local government authority and untarred. The very few tarred roads that were constructed by the State government are concentrated in Giwa and Shika. The Federal, State and Local government have established comprehensive primary health care units. There are (47) health centres, and each one looked neat and well maintained, suggesting some degree of seriousness in providing health care services. It is also very important to note here that these health care centres are concentrated in Giwa with 7 (1 general hospital and 6 clinics) and Shika with 5 (1 teaching hospital and 4 clinics),the remaining wards are all served with clinics with Pan-Hauya having (4), Kakangi (3), Idasu (3), Galadimawa (3), Kidandan (5), Kadage (5), Dan Mahawayi (3),

Gangara (4) and Yakawada (5) (Author's Survey, 2016). Isma'il *et. al.* in Giwa and Tofa Local Government Areas of Nigeria (2014) confirmed the uneven distribution of health facilities in Giwa LGA. The authors posited that, 'there is gross inequality in the distribution of healthcare facilities in Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria. Areas such as Kidandan, Galadimawa and Kakangi are grossly under-served while Giwa (the local government headquarters) and Shika (adjoining the local government headquarters) are adequately served.' The authors concluded that 'this is a reflection of unfair distribution of facilities between local government capitals and the hinterlands. With regards to electricity and portable drinking water, most of the settlements are not connected with electricity, some of them that were connected with electric cables suffer from frequent power failure. A considerable number of boreholes can be found in the area, but most of the settlements still rely on well water for drinking, cooking, washing and other domestic activities as most households are not connected to pipe-borne water.

3.1.5 Climate

Giwa Local Government Area falls within the Tropical Continental Climate belt or the 'AW' type according to Koppens climatic classification with distinct wet and dry seasons. The two seasons reflects the influence of the tropical continental airmass as well as the tropical maritime airmass during the respective seasons. The dry season is between November and April. It is dust-laden and creates subsidence that yield virtually rainless condition accompanied by harmattan, while the wet season commences at April to October. The area experience a mean annual rainfall of about 1525mmj. Maximum temperature in the area is accorded in March and April, just before the onset of rainfall with mean monthly minimum temperature of about 28 degrees occuring in December and January. This low temperature at the early part of the year is intensified by low humidity due to dry harmattan wind.

3.1.6 Relief

Giwa Local Government lies within the north central highlands which are composed of granite rocks. The area is a dissected portion of the Zaria-Kano plains; an extensive peneplain developed on crystalline metamorphic rocks of the Nigerian Basement Complex. The plains vary in height thus reflecting both regional scope to the south and a local relief of 100-150m. The angle, whilst attaining comparatively steep values over restricted area are generally low between 0.5-4 degrees. Alluvial terraces and gullies are often in the valleys. The valley buttoms slightly incised into the plains as micro-works having their own distinctive landforms and frequently, one is separating from wide open interfluves by degraded buffline 10-50m high. The plains are a vast of gentle undulating land with scenery which extends almost unbroken from Sokoto to Lake Chad and beyond, and also from Kaduna to the Tingeddi scap.

3.1.7 Geology

Giwa LGA is an extensive older laterite cover of Pliocene age now preserved as low scarp board plateau remnant mainly on interfluves in the western half of the area. Dissection of this older peneplain laterite and formation of the younger laterite and older alluvium are the result of Pleistocene erosion cycle. Present day erosion is cutting through deposits of the earlier cycles and steep sided gullies are widespread. The metamorphic rocks of the Nigerian Basement Complex are the end product of two orogenic cycles. The last of these extended from the Pre-cambrian lower Paleozoic and was initiated by deposit of thick sand, mud and igneous materials on the eroded metamorphic basement formed during the proceeding cycle. The younger granites were formed in the tertiary times when the old granites and rocks of the secondary times were folded and tilted by earth movement some 25-60 million years ago. While the older granites are moderately resistant to weathering, the younger granites are more resistant to weathering.

3.1.8 Soil

The soil reflects the geology, climate and vegetation of the area. The soil of the area are the leached ferruginous tropical soil, which have well developed texture B-horizon consisting 30-40 percent clay. It is part of the Zaria soil group with covering materials consisting of several metres of decomposed rocks. The soil of this group are normally heavily worked, drainages being very poor on account of the high percentage of fine materials in the upper layers. It becomes waterlogged during the raining season and cracks during the dry season. Alluvial soil are present especially along the rivers and streams.

3.1.9 Vegetation

The natural vegetation of Zaria where Giwa Local Government is located is refered to as the Northern Guinea Savanna Zone, a designation which implies a woodland vegetation type characterized by the presence of Isoberlina doka with a well developed grass layer of tuffed Androgeneae. Also typical of this Savanna woodland are a group of plants which generally flower before the onset of the rain. These are cryptophytes which includes the buttons and rhizonation plants and the very typical sub-shrubs. Many Savanna shrubs can exist for years and eventually develop into trees when the conditions are suitable.

3.1.10 Drainage

Giwa Local Government is being drained by River Kubani with its numerous tributaries. This river becomes heavily flooded during the raining season and dries up during the dry season. Alluvial soil which occurs along this river is used for dry season farming. River Kubani which formed the main focus of the drainage system is a tributary of River Galma which has water throughout the year while River Kubani dries up in the period between January and May.

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Reconnaissance Survey

In view of the objectives of the study, a reconnaissance survey of the study area was carried out to enable the researcher get acquainted with the study area, observe and study the socio-economic activities of the people in the area. During this visit, unstructured interviews were also carried out to elicit information with regards to the factors responsible for rural-urban migration and the effect this process has on socio-economic activities in the area. The reconnaissance survey was done in order to determine the relevant issues to address in the questionnaire and also to determine the appropriate sampling techniques in selecting the sample areas and respondents.

3.2.2 Types of Data Used

The types of data collected for the study include:-

i. demographic and socio-economic data (such as age, sex, marital status, occupation and educational level attained) of the respondents.

ii. sources of farm labour.

iii. reasons for migrating.

iv. period of migration and destination of migrants.

v. effect of the out-migration on socio-economic activities in the area such as major source of income and source of farm labour.

3.2.3 Sources of Data

The study utilized two major sources of data. These are primary and secondary sources of data.

3.2.3.1 Primary Sources

The primary data were derived through questionnaire administration.

3.2.3.2 Secondary Sources

The secondary data was obtained fromgovernment Ministries and agencies such as the National Population Commission (NPC) for population of study area, Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) for sampled population, the National Bureau for Statistics (NBS), journals, books, internet and theses.

3.2.4 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

The sampling frame for this research consists of household heads of migrants' and non-migrants' families. This was derived through a survey of wards in the LGA. Thereafter, a systematic sampling technique of the selected wards was done by drawing-up a list of the wards in the study area and arranging them in alphabetical order as shown in Table 3.1 and every odd number was picked. Thus, a total of six (6) out of eleven (11) wards were selected which was considered adequate for a study of this nature. The allocated questionnaires (number of respondents) for each of the selected wards were equally administered to both migrants' and non-migrants' families. Random sampling was used to identify the household heads where respondents were picked to answer the questionnaires. A number of models have been developed to estimate sample size. Yamane (1967) provides a simplified formula to calculate sample size.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where,

n= Sample size

N= Population size

e= Level of significance (set at 0.05 for this study)

Using the above formular, the total number of registered voters for the year 2015 was 59,215 in Giwa LGA. This was used as the sample frame from which a total of 400 respondents were sampled. Number of registered voters was found to be more suitable for the sample population because the study seeks information from household heads of which other things been equal should be above 18 years. To determine the proportion of the respondents to be sampled, the Yamane (1967) sampling method was used i.e.

Where:

Sample size per ward = Ward Population x Sample Size

Ward Total Population

Table 3.1 Sampling of Respondents.

S/No.	Wards	Selected Wards	No. of Registered Voters	Sample Size
1.	Dan Mahawayi	Dan Mahawayi	7,098	48
2.	Galadimawa			
3.	Gangara	Gangara	10,396	70
4.	Giwa			
5.	Idasu	Idasu	11,006	74
6.	Kadage			
7.	Kakangi	Kakangi	8,589	58
8.	Kidandan			
9.	Pan Hauya	Pan Hauya	9,232	62
10.	Shika			
11.	Yakawada	Yakawada	12,894	88
Total			**59,215**	**400**

Source: Author's Computation.
Adopted from INEC, (2015).

3.2.5 Data Analyses

Both descriptive and inferential statistics test were used in analyzing the data for this study. All statistical analyses were carried out using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 statistical programme and Microsoft Excel 2007.Mann Whitney test was used to test

the hypothesis at 0.05 level of significance. The statistics used in achieving the objectives of the study is as follows:

Objective i;Examine the socio-economic characteristics of the migrants' and non-migrants' families in Giwa LGA was achieved through the use of descriptive and inferential statistics such as tables, frequencies, percentages and Mann Whitney Test to summarize the data of migrants'and non-migrants' families. The Mann Whitney Test was used to find out whether there is a significant variation in income between households whose members had migrated and households whose members did not migrate.

Objective ii;Determine the temporal variation of rural outward migration in the study area was achieved through the use of descriptive and inferentialstatistics like tables, frequencies, percentages and Kruskal Wallis Test which shows the seasons of migration by the migrants. The kruskal wallis test was used to test whether or not there is a significant difference between the males and the females that have migrated at different seasons from the various wards in the study area.

Objective iii;Examine the spatial variation of rural outward migration in the study area was achieved through the use descriptive and inferential statistics like tables, frequences, percentages, kruskal wallis test and graph which presents the variation in places of out-migrants. The Kruskal Wallis Test was used to test whether there is or there is no significant difference among the migrants that migrated to different places from the various wards in the study area while the graph was used to show the spatial variation of out-migrants.

Objective **iv**; Examine the causes of rural outward migration in the study area was achieved through the use of descriptive statistics like tables, frequencies and percentages.

Objective v; Examine the effects of rural outward migration on socio-economic activities on households left behind was achieved through descriptive and inferential statistics such as mean and cross tabulations to describe the effects of rural outward migration in the study area.

3.3 Challenges Encountered in the Field

Most respondents are not literate in English. The researcher therefore had to engage a local informant to assist in interpreting and explaining the questions on the questionnaire in Hausa language. Some of the respondents were also reluctant to respond to questions regarding their incomes and whether or not they received assistance from their relations who migrated. They were however convinced by the local informant to comply. Despite these challenges, the results of this study provide relevant and reliable information on the effects of rural-urban migration on socio-economic activities in Giwa LGA.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Socio-economic Characteristicsof Respondents

4.1.1 Sex, Ageand Marital Statusof Respondents

Table 4.1 reveals the sex, age marital status, household size, educational qualification and occupation of the respondents.

Table 4.1: Sex, Ageand Marital Statusof Respondents

	Migrants Families		Non-migrants Families			
	Frequency	**Percentage (%)**	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percentage (%)**
Sex						
Male	195	97.5	200	100	395	98.8
Female	5	2.5	0	-	5	1.2
Total	**200**	**100.0**	**200**	**100.0**	**400**	**100.0**
Age						
18-28 years	35	17.5	84	42.0	119	29.7
29-39 years	59	29.5	64	32.0	123	30.8
40-50 years	65	32.5	34	17.0	99	24.7
51-61 years	32	16.0	9	4.5	41	10.3
Above 61 years	9	4.5	9	4.5	18	4.5
Total	**200**	**100.0**	**200**	**100.0**	**400**	**100.0**
Marital Status						
Single	0	-	0	-	0	-
Married	194	97.0	200	100.0	394	98.5
Divorced	0	-	0	-	0	-
Widowed	6	3.0	0	-	6	1.5
Total	**200**	**100.0**	**200**	**100.0**	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

Table 4.1 shows that 97.5% of migrants and 100% of the non-migrants' families were males respectively. This could be accounted for by the dominance of male household heads in the area during the interview.

The various age distribution categories of respondents indicated in Table 4.1 reveals that 32.5% of the respondents whose ward(s) have migrated are between ages 40-50 years, followed by 29.5% of those between ages 29-39 years. Among the non-migrant's families, 42% of the respondents were observed to be between the ages of 18-28 years, followed by 32% those aged 29-39 year. The results show that there are more aged people in migrant's households when compared to non-migrant's households. This implies that farming and other household work in migrant's families were left in the hands of aged people.

Table 4.1 also shows the distribution of the respondents' marital status. Of the 98.5% of the respondents that were married (97.0%) are from migrant families and 100% from non-migrant families. The reason for this could be attributed to the fact that the married were those targeted by the researcher.

4.1.2 Household Size, Educational Qualification and Occupation of Respondents

Table 4.2 reveals that 60.3% of the total respondents were from households of 1-6 members. Among migrant households 49% are from household size of 1-6 members. On the other hand, 71.5% of the respondents from families without migrants have household size of 1-6 members. The migration of wards from migrants' families could be as a result of their large household size as against the non-migrant's families.

Table 4.2: Household Size, Educational Qualification and Occupation of Respondents

	Migrants Families		Non-migrants Families			
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage (%)
Household Size						
1-6	98	49.0	134	71.5	241	60.3
7-12	65	32.5	43	21.5	108	27.0
13-18	19	9.5	14	7.0	33	8.2
Above 18	18	9.0	-	-	18	4.5
Total	**200**	**100.0**	**200**	**100.0**	**400**	**100.0**
Educational Qualification						
None	33	16.5	-	-	33	8.2
Quranic	53	26.5	80	40.0	133	33.3
Primary	39	19.5	49	24.5	88	22.0
Secondary	50	25.0	52	26.0	102	25.5
Tertiary	25	12.5	19	9.5	44	11.0
Total	**200**	**100.0**	**200**	**100.0**	**400**	**100.0**
Occupation						
Farming	98	49.6	113	56.4	211	52.7
Livestock rearing	26	13.0	20	10.0	46	11.6
Trading	57	28.7	47	23.4	104	26.3
Artisan	4	1.4	20	10.2	24	5.5
Civil service	15	7.3	0	-	15	3.9
Total	**200**	**100.0**	**200**	**100.0**	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Author's Survey,(2016).

Table 4.2further reveals that 58.5% had one form of formal education while about 41.5%.had no formal education. Those with Quranic education accounted for 33.3% of the respondents. Regarding those with tertiary education, respondents whose ward(s) have migratedhad 12.5% as against 9.5% for non-migrant's families whereas for secondary level of education, 26% and 25% represent respondents in families without and with migrants respectively. Comparatively, the migrant household have higher literacy rate, this higher literacy rate could be attributed to out-migration of wards which enabled most of them to attain

higher educational level. This made it possible for 7.3% them (migrant families) to be employed in the civil service and none from non-migrant families.

Among the different occupation engaged in by the respondents for example; farming, livestock rearing, trading, artisanship and civil service.Table 4.2 shows that 52.7% of respondents were engaged in farming and 26.3% in trading. The participation of majority in farming activities is typical of rural areas in Nigeria. This finding is in conformity with Tsigas and Ehui (2006) in the Volta Basin of Ghana that agriculture is the backbone of the rural economy, generating about 30% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and providing by far the largest source of employment. Families without migrant members tend to engage more in farming compared to those whose wards have migrated with 56.4% and 49.6% respectively. Table 4.2further shows that 28.7% from migrant's families engaged in trading compared to 23.4% from non-migrant's families. This could be as a result of shortage of farm labour challenges by the migrant's families which necessitated their involvement in trading activities. There are respondents that were civil servants from migrants' families. This further confirms the higher level of literacy among the migrants' families which enabled them to be employed in the civil service because from the table, 12.5% of respondent from migrants' families have tertiary educational qualification as against 9.5% from non-migrants' families.

4.1.3 Income Level

Figures 4.1to4.5show the distribution of the respondents' income according to the various jobs they are engaged in.

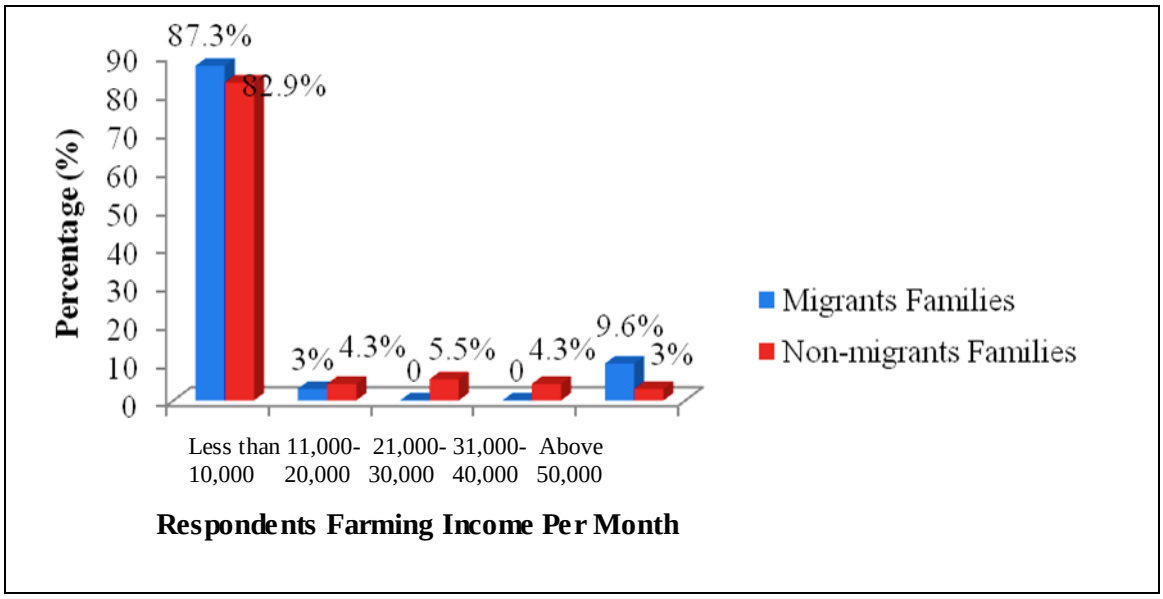


Figure 4.1: Distribution of Repondents by Income from Farming.
Source: Author's Survey,(2016).

Where 87.3% of the families with migrants earn less than ₦10,000 per month from farming, on the other hand, about 83% of non-migrants families earns less than ₦10,000. These shows that there is no much difference in farm income earned by both categories of families. This result agrees with Deshingkar's (2004) findings that loss of labour through migration may or may not reduce agricultural production, and remittance may or may not increase access to assets by alleviating credit constraint which in turn may or may not increase agricultural production and household incomes.

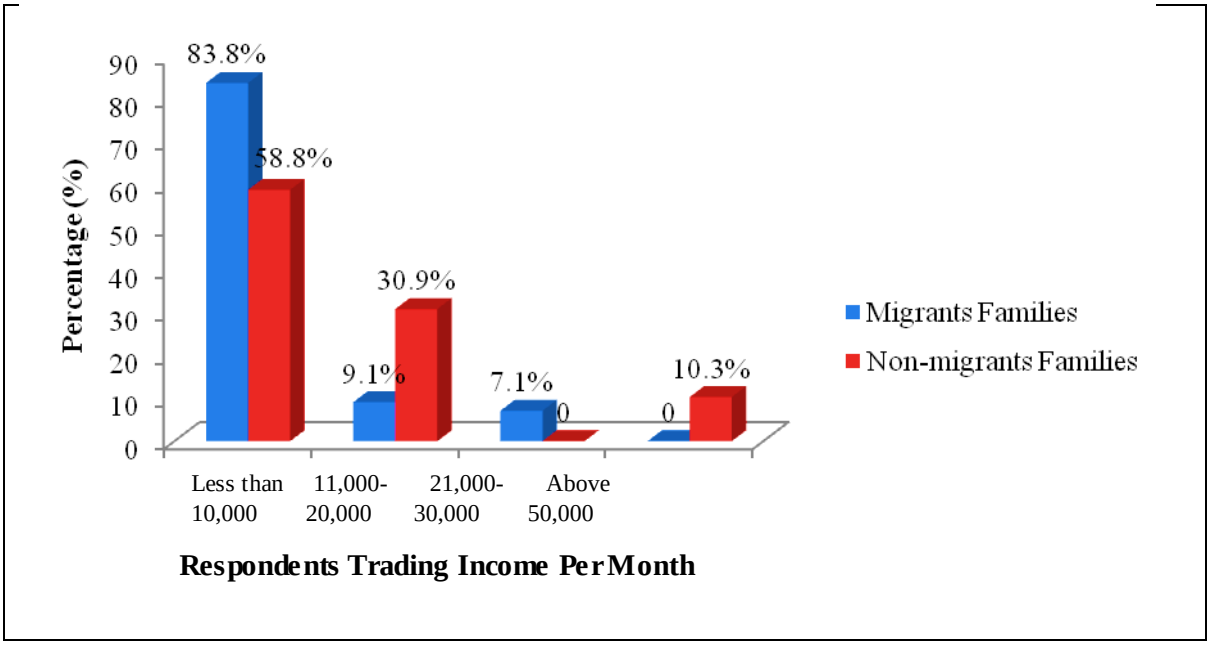


Figure 4.2: Distribution of Respondents Trading Income Per Month.
Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

Figure 4.2 reveals that about 83.8% of those with migrants relations are engaged in trading and earn less than ₦10,000 per month. The record for those with non-migrant families shows that 59% earn the same amount. Figure4.2 further reveals that 10.3% of respondents in non-migrants families are involved in trading and earns above ₦50,000 while none among the migrants families earn above ₦50,000 per month. These results indicate that although both families with and without migrants engage in trading, it has not contributed much to their income given the fact that most earn below ₦10,000 except for a few non-migrants families. This could be as a result of the dominance of petty trading in most rural areas which is often characterized by low profit.

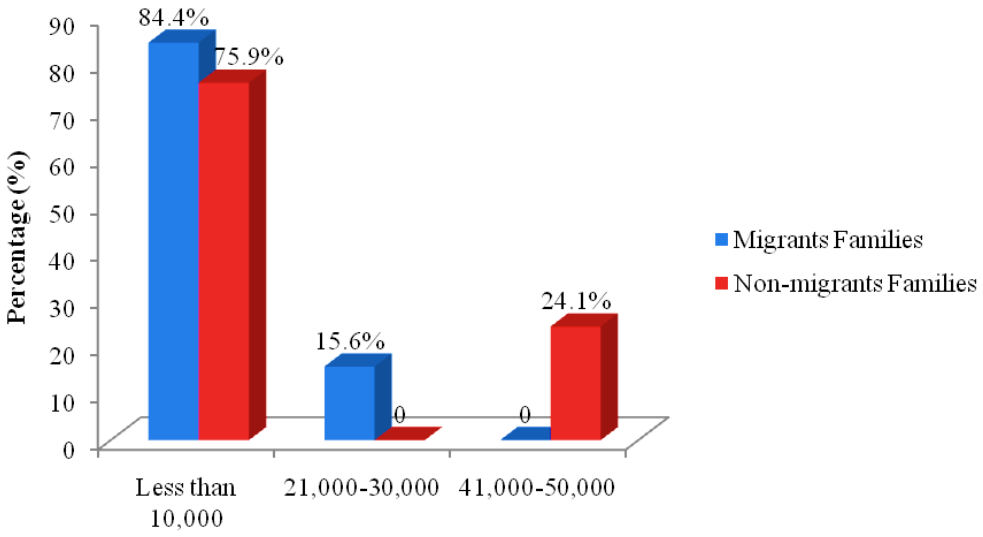


Figure4.3: Distribution of Respondents Livestock Rearing Income Per Month.
Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

The result in Figure 4.3 reveals that 84.4% and 75.9% of both categories of respondents engaged in livestock rearing and earn less than ₦10,000. Figure 4.3 further reveals that only 15.6% of the migrants families earns between ₦21,000 – ₦30,000 and 24.1% non-migrant families earn between ₦41,000 – ₦50,000.This could be as a result of patronage of livestocks in the study area.

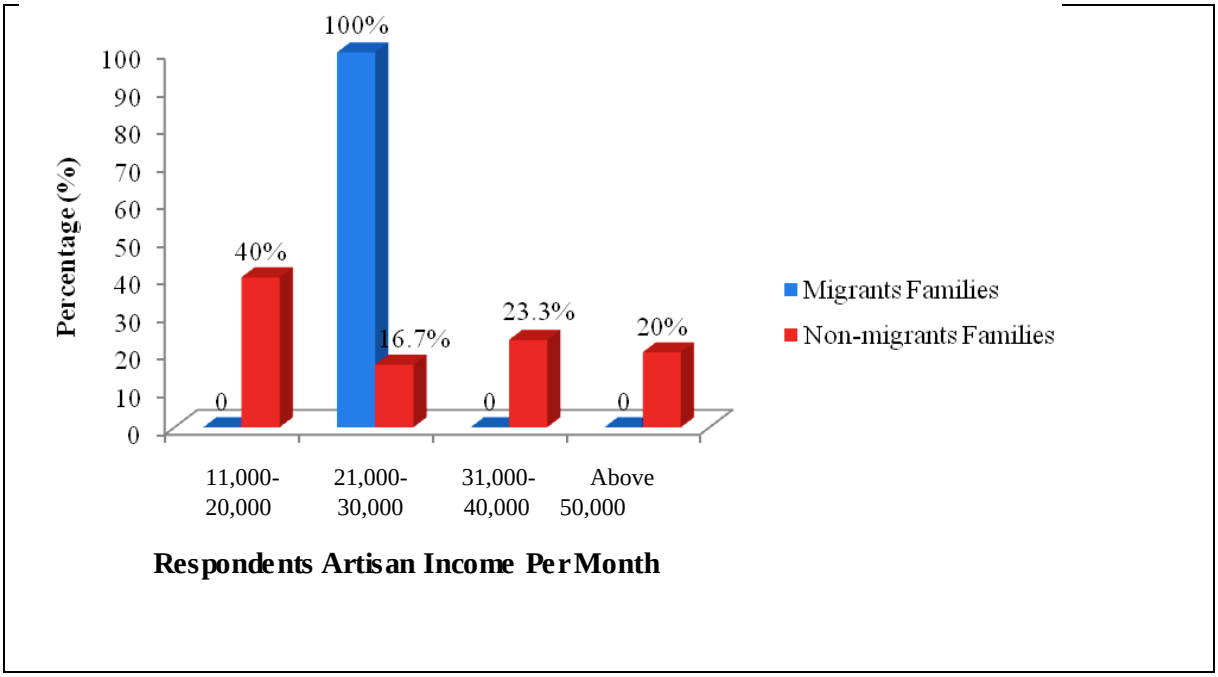


Figure 4.4: Distribution of Respondents Artisan Income Per Month.
Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

Figure 4.4 reveals that all the respondents with migrants families earn ₦21,000 – ₦30,000 per month. On the other hand, except for the 40% that earn between ₦11,000 – ₦20,000, in non-migrants families, others earned between ₦31,000 – ₦40,000 (23.3%) and ₦21,000 – ₦30,000 (16.7%). This could be as a result of more involvemennt of non-migrants families in artisanship.

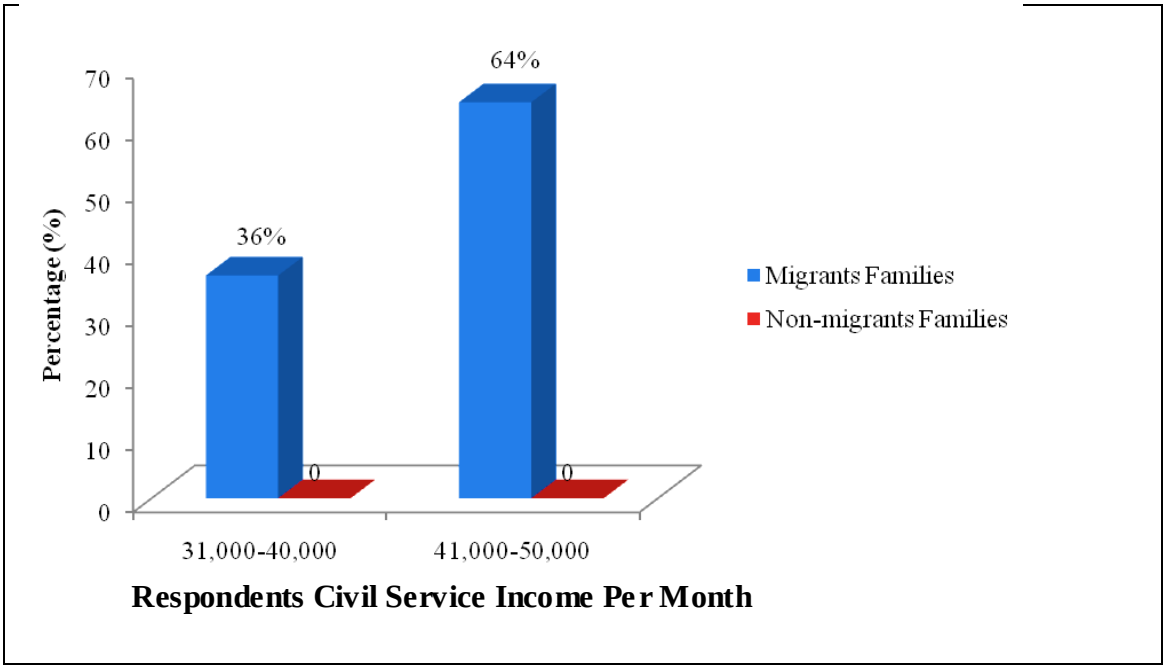


Figure 4.5: Distributions of Respondents Civil Service Income Per Month.
Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

Result in Figure 4.5 reveals that 64% of the migrant families earn ₦41,000 – ₦50,000 while 36% earn ₦31,000 – ₦40,000 as their basic income. This shows the contribution of non-farm income to the sustenance of livelihood of the people especially in the rural areas. However, this is as a result of the acquisition of formal education by migrant's families which made it possible for them to be employed in government organizations.

Table 4.3 shows a test of hypothesis that states there is no significant difference between income of the households whose members have migrated and those whose members have not. Mann Whitney test was used to test the hypothesis.

Table 4.3: Hypothesis Result for Income of Respondents

Source of Income	Migration Migration	Mean Rank	Sum Ranks	Z test	P. Value	Remark
Farm	Migrant Families	162.67	27002.50	-.878	.380	Not
	Non-migrant Families	168.37	27612.50			Significant
Trading	Migrant Families	75.67	7491.50	-3.483	.000	Significant
	Non-migrant Families	96.13	6536.50			
Livestock	Migrant Families	35.71	1607.00	-1.307	.191	Not
	Non-migrant Families	40.28	1168.00			Significant
Artisan	Migrant Families	17.50	87.50.	-.123.	.902	Not
	Non-migrant Families	18.08	542.50			Significant

Source: Author's Survey, (2016). Significant level 0.05

Among the various sources of income tested, except for trading income with a significant difference between migrants and non-migrants households, other sources of income shows that there is no significant difference in income between households whose members had migrated and households whose members had not. This implies that remittances to families with migrants had no significant impact to their livelihoods. This was tested at 0.05 level of significance. This could be as a result of the low amount of remittances received of which only 2% from migrants household agreed to have received less than ₦10,000 monthly. Civil service is excluded from the table because among the respondents from non-migrants families,none of them is a civil servant and Mann Whitney test cannot be performed on an empty group.

4.1.4 Farm Labour

Result in Table 4.4 reveals that 76.1% of respondents involved in farming activities in the area rely on family labour and hired labour accounted for only 14.6%. A total of 14.6% of the respondents combine both family and hired source of labour while only 4.3% from non-migrants' households engaged the services of cooperative farm labourers.

Table 4.4: Sources of Farm Labour by Respondents

	Migrants Families		Non-migrants Families			
	Frequency	**Percentage (%)**	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**	**Cumulative Frequency**	**Cumulative Percentage (%)**
Source of Farm Labour						
Family only	167	83.6	137	68.3	304	76.1
Hired only	11	5.3	18	9.1	29	7.2
Family and hired	22	11.1	37	18.3	59	14.6
Cooperative	0	0.0	8	4.3	8	2.1
Total	**200**	**100.0**	**200**	**100.0**	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

Result in Table 4.4further shows the subsistence level of farming in the study area. Where 83.6% of respondents who relied much on family labour were from families with migrants, 68.3% were from non-migrant families. This indicates that even with the migration of wards from their households, the people still rely on their families as source of farm labour. This could be as a result of the low remittances received from migrant's families which barely compensate the labour shortage. Possible implication of this is more farm work for families left behind in migrant's households. This finding is in conformity with several studies in Africa (Cleveland 1991; FAO 1995) and Asia (Deshingkar 2004) that remittances were often too low to allow for hiring labour. This finding is also in line with the findings of Iliya (1999) in Gigane, Sokoto State of North-west Nigeria that 'farmers themselves appear to be investing a lot of their own labour in their farms with short falls met by hired labour.' According to Iliya (1999), 'some 47% of household heads put in up to 30% of their labour needs themselves, dependants living with them accounted for 31% and the rest came from hired labour. These figures confirm that many household heads, despite the contributions of their family, employ significant numbers of hired labours.'

4.1.5 Number of Out-migrants

Figure 4.6 shows the distribution of wards whose members have migrated from the study area. It reveals that 87% of the respondents agreed that between 1-3 members of their families have migrated while 13% indicated that 4-6 of their family members have migrated respectively.

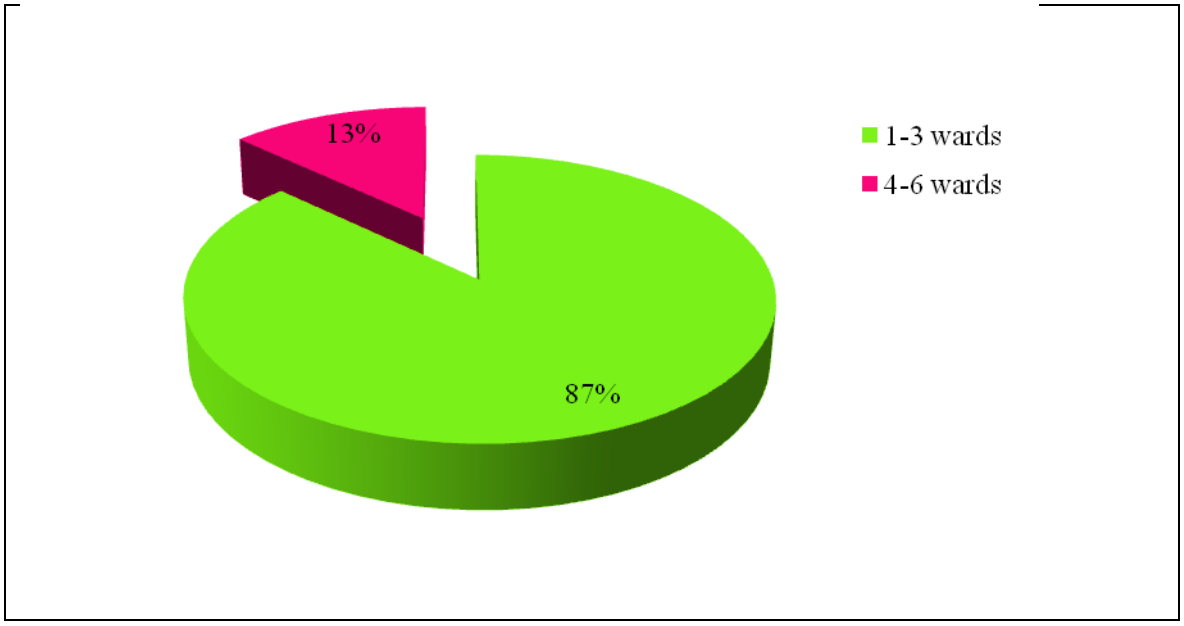


Figure 4.6: Distribution of Number of Wards with Migrants.
Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

This implies that most of the migrants from Giwa LGA are from large household which might be the reason behind unavailability of enough resources to carter for the whole members of the family. This therefore makes it difficult for the household heads to provide adequate sponsorship for the education and other trainings for all the members of the family. Thus, members from such families will choose to migrate to other places in order to earn a better living.

4.1.6 Sex, Season and Place of Out-migration

Table4.5reveals that in Giwa LGA, more than half (68.0%) of the respondents reported that migrants were males. This suggests that for every three (3) migrants, two (2) were males while one (1) was a female. This finding agrees with that of Ejiogu (2009) in Imo State of Nigeria that

migration is selective in terms of age, sex, level of education and marital status and that males migrate more than their female counterparts. The findings is also in conformity with Agesa and Agesa(1999) in Kenya that, although men have tended to dominate migration flows, women are becoming an increasing part of labour migration streams in Nigeria and other African societies.

Table 4.5: Sex, Season and Place of Out-migrants

Sex of Migrated Wards	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male left	166	68.0
Female left	78	32.0
Total	**244**	**100**
Season of Migration		
Number before farming season	167	68.4
Number during farming season	77	31.6
Total	**244**	**100**
Place New Resident		
Within Kaduna State	56	23.0
Other Northern states	162	66.3
Abuja	7	2.9
South west	19	7.8
Total	**244**	**100**

Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

Table 4.5also shows that 68.4% of these migrants migrated before the beginning of the farming season, while 31.6% migrated during the farming season. Further data analyses reveals that 77%of those who migrated went to places outside the state while 23% migrated within the state. The table further shows that 66.3% migrated to other Northern states. With more males migrating before the farming season to other northern states, it could have a negative effect on the resident population through inadequate of farm labour and consequently low crop production. This finding agrees with that of Tacoli (2002) on sub-Saharan Africa that, migration to cities usually means that migrants are unable to return home and engage in agricultural activities during the farming season. Their absence may therefore generate labour shortages, leading to food insecurity.

4.2 Temporal Variationin Sexand Seasonof Out-migrants

Table 4.6 indicates the temporal variation in sex and season of out-migrants.

Table 4.6: Temporal Variation in Sex and Season of Out-migrants

Sex	Ward	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Hypotheses Result
Males	Dan Mahawayi	25	15.1	Statistic = 48.468
	Gangara	37	22.3	Df = 5
	Idasu	22	13.2	p.value = .001
	Kakangi	19	11.4	Remark =
	Pan Hauya	26	15.7	Significant
	Yakawada	37	22.3	
Total	**166**		**100.0**	
Females	Idasu	24	30.8	Statistic = 26.578
	Kakangi	18	23.1	Df = 3
	Pan Hanya	7	8.9	p.value = .001
	Yakawada	29	37.2	Remark =
				Significant
Total		**78**	**100.0**	
Seasons of Migration				
Before Farming	Dan Mahawayi	19	11.4	Statistic = 17.939
Period	Gangara	14	8.4	Df = 5
	Idasu	30	17.9	p.value = .003
	Kakangi	29	17.4	Remark =
	Pan Hauya	31	18.6	Significant
	Yakawada	44	26.3	
Total	**167**		**100.0**	
During Farming				
Period	Dan Mahawayi	6	7.7	Statistic = 21.446
	Gangara	23	29.8	Df = 5
	Idasu	16	20.7	p.value = .001
	Kakangi	8	10.4	Remark =
	Pan Hauya	2	2.6	Significant
	Yakawada	22	28.8	
Total		**77**	**100.0**	

Source: Author's Survey, (2016). Significant level: 0.05

It reveals that while 22.3% of the male migrants were from Gangara and Yakawada, only 11.4% were from Kakangi. However, Yakawada also recorded the highest percent of female migrants with 37.2% followed by Idasu with 30.8% while the least was Pan Hanya with 8.9% respectively. This could be as a result of the greater concern of the people of Yakawada in search of better education and job opportunities. This implies that there are more migrants from Yakawada compared to other wards. Consequently, the effect of out-migration from the study area will be more pronounced in Yakawada. It was also noted that most of those that migrated before farming season were from Yakawada (26.3%) followed by Pan Hanya (18.6%) and the least Gangara (8.4%). Migration during the farming season was however highest in Gangara (29.8%) and least from Pan Hanya (2.6%). This indicates the possibility of shortage of farm labour during farming season especially in Yakawada. It further indicates the temporal variation in sex and places of out-migrants. Kruskal Wallis Test was used to determine if there are variations in the number of males and females that have migrated in the study area. The test shows that there is a statistical significant variation in the number of males (0.001) and females (0.001) that have migrated across the wards in the study area. With regards to the season of migration, the test result also shows a significant variation before and during farming periods among the various wards with a p. value of 0.003 and 0.001respectively. The null hypothesis for both the males and females that migrated before and during farming seasons is therefore rejected. The survey was conducted during farming season that was why there was no response for ‘after farming period.’

4.3 Spatial Variationin Placeof Out-migrants

Table 4.7 indicates the spatial variation in places of out-migrants. It shows that, 32% of the migrants from Pan Hanya, 28.6% from Kakangi, 12.5% from Gangara and Idasu did not go

outside Kaduna State. This could be as a result of inadequate motivation to travel longer distances on the part of some individuals in these wards.

Table 4.7: Spatial Variation in Place of Out-migrants

Place	Ward	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Hypotheses Result
Within Kaduna State	Gangara	7	12.5	Statistic = 34.531
	Idasu	7	12.5	Df = 4
	Kakangi	16	28.6	p.value = .001
	Pan Hauya	18	32.1	Remark = Significant
	Yakawada	8	14.3	
Total		**56**	**100.0**	
Other Northern States	Dan Mahawayi	20	12.3	Statistic = 24.368
	Gangara	29	17.9	Df = 5
	Idasu	35	21.6	p.value = .001
	Kakangi	21	13.0	Remark = Significant
	Pan Hauya	15	9.3	
	Yakawada	42	25.9	
Total		**162**	**100.0**	
Abuja	Dan Mahawayi	2	28.6	Statistic = 7.029
	Gangara	1	14.3	Df = 2
	Idasu	4	57.1	p.value = 1.026
Total		**7**	**100.0**	Remark = Not Significant
South west	Dan Mahawayi	3	15.8	Statistic = 0.000
	Yakawada	16	84.2	Df = 1
Total		**19**	**100.0**	p.value = 1.000 Remark = Not Significant

Source: Author's Survey, (2016). Significant level: 0.05

It also shows that 25.9% of migrants from the state to other northern states were from Yakawada followed by 21.6% from Idasu ward. It further reveals that 57.1% of wards that migrated to Abuja were from Idasu, this could be as a result of close ties or network of migrants between Abuja and Idasu. Yakawada with 84.2% has the highest number of wards that have migrated to south west states, this could be as a result of the people's higher propensity to travel longer distances in search for better life and improved standard of living when compared to

people from other wards. This result implies that, people from Yakawada migrate to more distant places compared to people from other wards. It further indicates the spatial variation among the various wards to places migrated wards went to. Kruskal Wallis Test was used to determine if the variation is significant or not. The test shows that there is a statistical significant variation among the various wards that migrated to places within Kaduna State (0.001) and other northern States (0.001) from the study area. However, there is no significant variation among the wards that have migrated to Abuja and South West with a P. value of 1.026 and 1.000respectively. The null hypothesis of migrants from wards that migrated to Kaduna and other Northern States is therefore rejected while the null hypothesis of migrants from wards to Abuja and South West is accepted. Figure 4.7 shows the spatial variation in place of out-migrants.

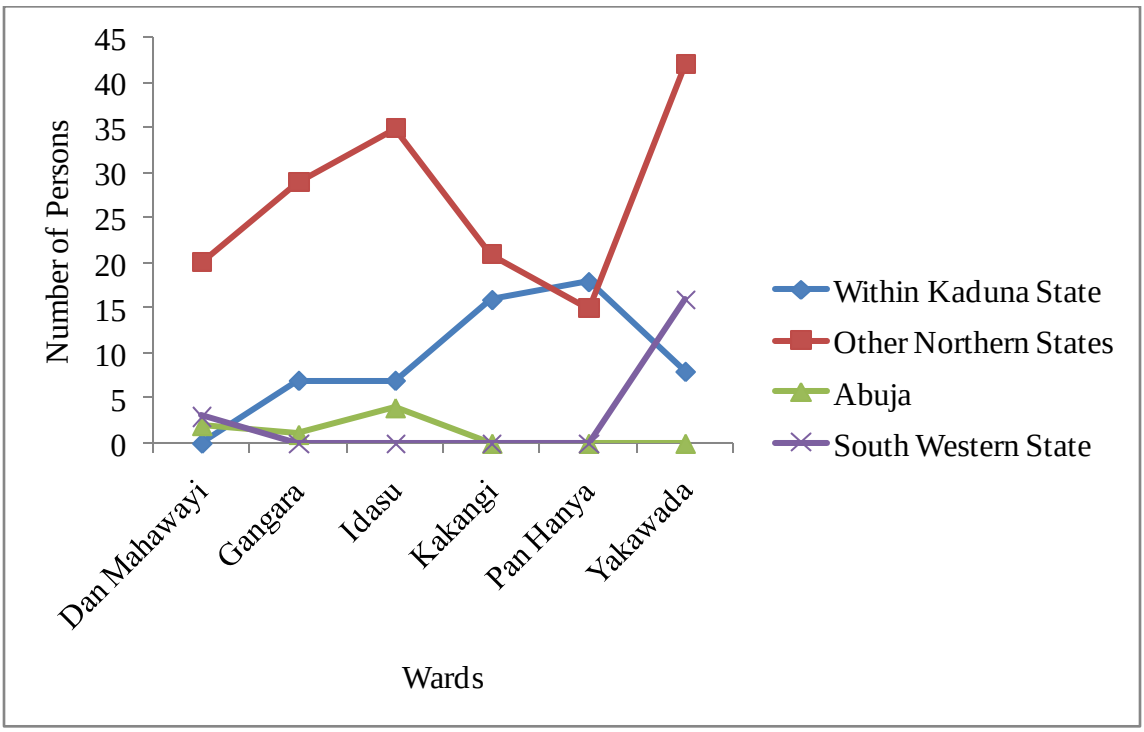


Figure 4.7: Spatial Variation in Towns/Communities of Out-migrants.
Source; Author's Survey, (2016).

Figure 4.7 shows that, 18 people from Pan-Hauya, 16 from Kakangi, 8 from Yakawada and 7 from Gangara and Idasu did not go outside Kaduna State. With regards to those that migrated to other northern states, Yakawada has the highest number of people with 42, Idasu 35, Gangara 29, Kakangi 21, Dan Mahawayi 20 and Pan Hauya with 15 people. It further reveals that 4 people from Idasu, 2 from Dan Mahawayi and 1 from Gangara migrated to Abuja. Only Yakawada and Dan Mahawayi had migrants to south west with 16 and 3 people respectively.

4.4Causesfor Migration

Table 4.8 indicates the different causes for migration, nature in migrant's households.

Table 4.8: Causes for Migration in Migrants' Households

Causes for Migration	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Search for better job	99	38.1
Education	52	20.0
Trading	36	13.8
Marriage	73	28.1
Total	**260**	**100.0**

Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

Among the various reasons for rural-urban migration is the search for better jobs, furtherance of education, trading and marriage as indicated in Table 4.8. It shows that about 51.9% of the migrants from the study area migrated as a result of a combination of economic factors such as search for better jobs and trading. Marriage and search for education account for 28.1% and 20% respectively. This finding is in line with that of Nwajiuba (2005),who found out that in South East Nigeria, reasons for migration are mainly economic or for education. This also shows that job opportunities are inadequate in the study area. Omonigho and Olaniyan (2013)also reported that majority of migrants in Ijebu LGA of Ogun State migrated to continue their education while others migrated in search of employment, to join relatives and to get married.

This finding is in accordance with one of Ravenstein's (1886) laws of migration that 'major causes of migration are economic.

It is also in line with Lee's (1966) push-pull approach. Lee (1966) summarized the causes of rural out migration into negative and (push) and positive (pull) factors. While the former are factors that force the rural people to leave their villages, the latter attracts the rural people to the cities. Although Lee (1966) assumes migration is a combination of the push and pull factors, the author further asserts that the positive factors could be more important than the negative factors. The case in Giwa Local Government confirms such assertion where virtually all (71.9%) the reasons for out migration are positive factors (search for better job 38.1%, education 20.0% and trading 13.8%) that tends to pull the people of Giwa out of their villages.

The Harris-Todaro model of wage differentials further clearifies the situation regarding the cause for rural out migration from Giwa. According to Harris and Todaro (1970), 'migration decision is based on expected income differentials between the rural and the urban areas.' In otherwords, rural-urban migration can be economically rational if the expected urban income exceeds rural income. The table shows that among the various reasons for out-migration from Giwa, search for better job and trading accounts for 31.8% and 13.8% respectively. This could be as a result of the wage differentials between Giwa and other urban centres.

The NELM partly explains the migration paradox here. The table shows that marriage accounts for 28.1% of the reasons for out migration from the study area and the proponents of the NELM placed the behaviour of individual migrants within a wider societal context. According to Whitehead 1981 and Stark 1991, migration is a collective decision made by the entire household not only to maximize income but also to minimize and spread risk that prevail in most developing countries. No doubt marriage in most developing countries including Nigeria is a collective decision made by the entire household and not just the individual

concern. In otherwords, the consent of each and every member of the family has to be sought for unlike in the developed countries. Thus, the household is the most appropriate decision-making unit. It is also important to note here that in some cases, marriage in these developing countries like Nigeria for example is seen as a medium to minimize and spread risk in the sense that the available resources (for example money, food stuffs and so on) in the house can not cater for the needs of the entire members of the family. Hence, the family members are therefore encouraged and sometimes forced to get married so as to reduce pressure on the limited resources in the house.

4.4.1 Nature, Amount and the Effects of Assistance in Migrants' Households

Table 4.9 indicates the different reasons for migration, nature, amount and the effects of assistance on migrant's households.

Table 4.9: Nature, Amount and the Effects of Assistance in Migrants' Households

	Frequency	**Percentage (%)**
Received Assistance		
Yes	7	2.0
No	193	98.0
Total	**200**	**100.0**
Nature of Assistance		
Money	**7**	**100.0**
Amount Received Monthly		
Less than 10,000	**7**	**100.0**
Effects of Remittances on Households		
Access to better education	2	28.6
Increased family income	5	71.4
Total	**7**	**100.0**

Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

It shows that only 2% of the respondents received assistance from their wards who migrated. This shows that only a very few migrants were able to remit money back home. This to a large extent agrees with the findings of the International Labour Organization (2004) that

despite the positive experiences of many migrants, a large proportion of them continue to suffer abuse and exploitation at their destination especially the most vulnerable groups of workers especially women. They may face forced labour, low wages, poor working conditions, absence of social protection and other forms of exploitation, which have negative consequences on the amount of remittances they may send.

Money is the only type of assistance received from the wards of migrant's families which is less than ₦10,000 monthly. However, the amount of remittances does not compensate for the labour shortage caused by predominantly male out-migration. Several studies in Africa (Cleveland 1991; FOA1995) and Asia (Deshingkar 2004) found that these remittances were often too small to allow for hiring labour.

It further shows that from the few households that receive money from their wards that have migrated, 71.4% agreed their income increased as a result of remittances from their wards that migrated and about 29% have gained access to better education. This finding is in conformity with the findings of Iliya and Swindell (1997) in the urban peripheries of Northern Nigeria that, 'remittances of cash and inputs in most cases from urban family members have made a big difference both in the type and scale of village-based non-farm activities and has pushed many households up the social ladder. The finding is also in line with the findings of Lai *et. al.* (2011) in China that migrant' families can increase their own level of economic livelihood, and these families can invest more in aspects of their children's education such as tutoring, computer-assisted learning and other academic resources which effectively improve the children's intellectual performance, as an indirect positive effect of migration.

4.5 Effectsof Out-migrationon Migrants' Families

Table 4.10 shows the various challenge of out-migration on the respondents.Table 4.10 reveals that generally, the highest challenge of out-migration on families left behind includes; loss of

friends as it records 4.50 as its average mean score, followed by shortage of labour (4.45) and family break-up (4.22).

Table 4.10: Effects to Families with Out-Migrants

Challenge	**Mean Scores**						
	Dan Mahawayi	Gangara	Idasu	Kakangi	Pan Hauya	Yakawada	**Average**
Family break-up	4.00	4.33	4.47	4.26	4.00	4.25	**4.22**
Shortage of Labour	4.79	4.67	4.67	4.00	4.24	4.35	**4.45**
Loss of Friends	-	5.00	-	-	-	4.00	**4.50**
Average	**4.39**	**4.67**	**4.57**	**4.13**	**4.12**	**4.20**	

Source: Author's Survey, (2016).

This corroborates the views of Tacoli (2002) in sub Saharan Africa that the absence of migrants especially during farming season may generate labour shortages and according to Wahyuni (2000), lead to the splitting of a family into two or more households that geographically dispersed between village and destination areas. It further shows that these effects had more impact in Gangara with 4.67 mean score, closely followed by Idasu (4.57) and least felt in Pan Hauya (4.12) respectively. It was also noted that family break-up was highest in Idasu with 4.47 followed by Gangara with 4.33 and4.00 in Dan Mahawayi and Pan Hauya. It also indicates that the highest shortage of labour as a result of wards out-migration is in Dan Mahawayi with a mean score of 4.79 and closely followed by Gangara and Idasu with 4.67, 4.00 in Kakangi. For loss of friends, it was high in Gangara (5.00) and less in Yakawada with 4.00 mean score respectively. This implies a combination of social and economic effects of rural out-migration for the non-migrants in Giwa LGA.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter is concerned with the major findings of the research work. The conclusions are given based on the stated objectives and consequently recommendations were made based on the findings.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

Results on the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents reveal that most (98.8%) of the respondents were males. This could be as a result of the dominance of male household heads during the questionnaire administration. Also, most (98.5%) of the respondents are married with a very few widows/widowers. This could be as a result of the fact that the study seek information from household heads only. Over half (60.3%) of the entire respondents have an average household size of 6 members with more males in migrants' families. The analyses also shows that more than half of the respondents had one form of formal education and engage in farming as their main occupation, followed by trading. These respondents also earn less than 10,000 per month from farming activities, this could be as a result of small sizes farming. About two third (76.1%) of the entire respondents source their labour from within the family, this could be as a result of their low income which makes it difficult to engage the services of hired or cooperative farm labour.

With regards to families with migrants, two third (87.0%) of them agreed that between 1-3 of their wards have migrated which on the average is that each family has at least 2 wards that have migrated. Over half (68.4%) of the entire migrants migrated before the farming season and over three quarters of the migrants migrated to places outside the state, this could be as a result of their high propensity to travel long distance. The test shows a significant variation

(0.001) in the number of males and females that have migrated across the wards before and during farming periods. The Kruskal Wallis test also shows a significant variation (0.001) among the various wards that migrated to places within Kaduna and other Northern States but a non-significant variation (1.026 and 1.000) among the various wards that migrated to Abuja and South West Nigeria respectively. The study also reveals that most of the male migrants are from Gangara (22.3%) and Yakawada (22.3%) while most of the female migrants are from Yakawada (37.2%) and Idasu (30.8%). This could be as a result of better female migration network in Yakawada and Idasu that enables mores females from these wards to be more engaged in migration.

Furthermore, the findings of the study shows that over half (51.9%) of the migrants migrated as a result of economic factors such as search for better jobs (38.1%) and trading (13.8%). Very few (2.0%) of the household received less than ₦10,000 monthly from their wards that have migrated, this could be as a result of the inability of most of the wards that have migrated to secure well paid jobs in their destinations and consequently unable to remit money back home. However, over half of these families agreed to have their family income increased by these remittances and one quarter have gained access to better education. The major effects as a result of out-migration from the study area was loss of friends with an average mean score of 4.50, followed by shortage of labour with 4.45 and family break-up with 4.22. The test of hypothesis shows that except for trading, there is no significant difference in other sources of income between households whose members have migrated and those whose members have not.

5.3 Conclusion

Rural-urban migration has been a challenge to agriculture and rural development in Nigeria, Giwa LGA inclusive. The study concludes that the aforementioned push-pull, Harris-Todaroand

NELM theoretical explanation for out-migration was responsible for migration in Giwa LGA. This therefore implies that the study supports the push-pull, Harris-Todaro and NELM theories used in explaining migration.

It is an appreciated fact that the people of Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State are fully involved in agricultural production given that farming is their major occupation. Rural out-migration has taken away the active population of the local government area (males in particular), leaving behind the children and aged who are not actively engaged in agriculture. Labour shortage created as a result of this out-migration has had negative effect on agricultural performance in the form of low farm out-put and consequently food insecurity in Giwa local government area and Kaduna State at large. This could directly or indirectly result in poor livelihoods for those left behind because agriculture in developing countries is still labour intensive and the people of Giwa still rely heavily on their family members for farm labour.

Although the amount remitted by migrants was below ₦10,000 per month for the few families who receive remittances based on the analysis done between migrant families and non-migrant families, out-migration it was found to be beneficial to the migrant' families by increasing family income and providing access to better education. Thus, migrants who remit money to families left behind have made a rational migration decision with respect to enhancing the total household income. Also, rural-urban migration can be taken as a strategy particularly for poorest groups of rural households where they can supplement their farm income and then diversify risks. Therefore, remittances to migrants' families in rural areas can thus contribute to rural transformation by alleviating poverty and enhancing the living standard of such households if individual transaction values are high. However, out-migration from Giwa should be checked if sustainable agricultural is to be achieved.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the outcome of this research the following are recommended:

1. Government and non-governmental organizations should endeavour to establish skill. acquisition centres in Giwa LGA in order to provide the youths with the required knowledge and skills needed to be self-employed.
2. Government should empower farmers with underground water lifting machines. This will revive the declining dry season farming and consequently check the incidence of out-migration from the local government because according to the respondents, the rivers within the local government are drying up and no longer favourable for dry season farming.
3. Government should partner with the private sector to establish more agricultural processing industries in the area in order to provide jobs for the teaming youths who are moving out of the area.
4. Rural facilities such as roads, schools, hospitals, pipe bone water, and market should be improved to enable the rural populace in Giwa LGA and Kaduna State live a more comfortable life.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

1. It is an established fact here that majority of the migrants from Giwa LGA are males. This situation could force women into agriculture. According to Katz (2003), 'that women work on farms is nothing new but 'feminization of agriculture' is likely to change the local labour market-in terms of shortage of male work force and result in an upward pressure on the wages and household livelihood strategies because predominantly male rural out-migration could push women and children into the labour

market under unfavourable conditions.' It is therefore recommended that future research should explore the 'feminization of agriculture'.

2. As earlier stated, 'despite the positive experience of many migrants, a large proportion of them continue to suffer abuse and exploitation at their destination especially the most vulnerable group of workers-women. They may face forced labour, low wages, poor working conditions, absence of social protection and other forms of exploitations, which may have negative consequences on the amount of remittances they may send (ILO, 2004).' The livelihood and condition of these migrants (from Giwa LGA) at receiving regions therefore remained a very important future area of research considering the fact that only a very few migrant households (2.0%) received money from their wards that have migrated and also, a considerable number of females (32.0%) are involved in the migration process. This is very important so as to ascertain the reasons for the low level of remittances from these migrants.
3. In this research, the effect of rural-urban migration is analyzed from the perspective of migrant sending regions (rural areas), the effect of rural-urban migration from the perspective of migrant receiving regions (urban centres) remained future area of research especially in other northern states considering the fact that majority of the migrants from the study area migrated to other northern states.

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APPENDIX

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT

FACULTY OF PHYSICAL SCIENCES

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLD HEADS IN GIWA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA

Dear respondent,

I am a Postgraduate student of Geography and environmental management Department in the above named University. I am currently undertaking a research on 'Effects of Rural OutwardMigration on AgriculturalActivities in Giwa Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria.' I am seeking information on the effect of rural outward migration on agricultural activities in Giwa. I assure you that all the information here will be treated confidentially and would be used only for this purpose. Thank you for your cooperation.

Section A: Demographic and Socio-economic Characteristics of Respondent

1. Ward.....
2. Household number.....
3. Sex:

   (a) Male ( ) (b) Female ( )
4. Age (in years):

   (a) 18-28 ( ) (b) 29-39 ( ) (c) 40-50 ( ) (d) 51-61 ( ) (e) Above 61( )
5. Marital Status:

   (a) Single ( ) (b) Married ( ) (c) Divorced ( ) (d) Widowed ( )
6. Household size (in residence):

   (a) 1-6 ( ) (b) 7-12 ( ) (c) 13-18 ( ) (d) Above 18 ( )
7. Highest Educational Qualification Attained:

   (a) None ( ) (b) Quranic ( ) (c) Primary ( ) (d) Secondary ( ) (e) Tertiary ( )

8. Sources of Income (tick as applicable).

(i) Farming ( )(ii) Trading ( ) (iii) Livestock rearing ( ) (iv) Artisan ( )

(v) Civil Service ( )(vi) Others (specify).....

9. Income per Month (in Naira) from each of the sources.

Income	**Farming**	**Trading**	**Livestock**	**Artisan**	**Civil Service**	**Others**
Less than N10,000						
N11,000-N20,000						
N21,000-N30,000						
N31,000-N40,000						
N41,000-N50,000						
Above N50,000						

Section B: Impact of Rural-Urban Migration on Socio-economic Activities

10. Source of farm labour:

(i) Family labour ( ) (ii) Hired labour only ( ) (iii) Cooperative labour ( ) (iv) Apprentice ( )

11. Do you have any of your ward(s) that has left the village to town?

(a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( )

12. If Yes, How many?

(a) 1-3 ( ) (b) 4-6 ( ) (c) 7-9 ( ) (d) Above 9 ( )

13. How many are: Male..... Female……

14. At what period of the year did they leave the village (insert number of those who left in the box).

Number

(i) Before farming season () ( )

(ii) During Farming season ( ) ( )

(iii) After farming season (( )

(iv) During harvest season ( ) ( )

15. Where did they migrate to (insert number of those who left to these places in the box).

Number

(i) Within Kaduna State ( ) ( )

(ii) Other Northern States ( ) ( )

(iii) Abuja ( ) ( )

(iv) South East ( ) ( )

(v) South West ( ) ( )

(vi) South South ( ) ( )

(vii) Others (specify)..... ( )

16.What were the main reason for migrating? Tick (√)

Reasons	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Search for better job					
Education					
Trading					
Join family members					
Marriage					
Limited social and infrastructural facilities					
Change of habitat					
Crop failure					
Escape from punishment					
Epidemic					
Conflicts and insecurity					
Natural risks and harzards					
Others (specify)					

17. Do you receive any assistance from family member(s) that have migrated?

(a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( )

18. If Yes, in what form?

Nature of Assistance	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**

Food items					
Money					
Clothes					
Farm implements					
Other gifts					
Others (specify)					

19. (a) If cash, total amount received monthly?

(i) Less than N10, 000 ( )

(ii) N11, 000-N20,000 ( )

(iii) N21, 000-N30,000 ( )

(iv) N31,000-N40,000 ()

(v) N41,000-N50,000 ( )

(vi) N51,000 and above ( )

(b) If in kind estimate total amount.

(i) Less than N10, 000 ( )

(ii) N11,000-N20,000 ( )

(iii) N21,000-N30,000 ( )

(iv) N31,000-N40,000 ( )

(v) N41,000-N50,000 ( )

(vi) N51,000 and above ( )

s

20. In what ways do the assistance received affect your household?

Options	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**

More money for employing labour					
Increased in the size and number of cultivated land					
Access to more food (quantity and quality)					
Access to better health facilities among others					
Access to better education					
Increased in family income					
Less family break up and happy homes					
Less communal conflicts					
Increase in ceremonies					
Able to buy more livestock					
Able to buy more assets					
Able to improve house					
Others (specify)					

21. What challenges do you encounter when your households member(s) migrate?

Options	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Family break up					
Shortage of labour					
Insecurity					
Lower agricultural yield					
Negligence					
Decreased farm income					
Shortage of food supply					
Decreased in size of land cultivated					
Loss of friends					
Death of community associations/groups					
Not able to engage in other means of livelihood					
Decline in income from other livelihood sources					
Begin to consider migrating also					
Others (specify)					

22. Suggest measures of reducing family members out migration from this area.

(a) At family or household level.

(i) .....

(ii) .....

(iii) .....

(iv)……

(v)……

(b) At the State and Local Government level.

(i) .....

(ii) .....

(iii) .....

(iv)……

(v)……..