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INTER-STATE LABOUR MOBILITY IN NIGERIA:
DETERMINANTS, POLICIES AND PROSPECTS

By
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A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Economics of the University
of Lagos

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C E R T I F I C A T I O N

This is to certify that the dissertation titled
INTER-STATE LABOUR MOBILITY IN NIGERIA: DETERMINANTS,
POLICIES AND PROSPECTS submitted to the University
of Lagos for the award of the degree of DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY in ECONOMICS is a record of original
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DEDICATED TO MY WIFE, BAMIDELE, AND CHILDREN
ADEWUMI, ADENIYI, ADEFOLAMI, ADEDOTUN AND
ADEDAMOLA

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My main interest in this study began with the appreciation that balanced regional development is contingent upon efficient mobility of resources both physical and human. Efficient flow of human resources particularly of high level manpower is more compelling in the Nigerian situation where acute imbalance in the development of such human resources among various geographical units exists. The primary objective of the thesis therefore has been the analysis of the extent and determinants of inter-state mobility of skilled manpower in Nigeria.

The thesis is based largely on a survey carried out while working in the Human Resources Research Unit of the University of Lagos. Indeed the study has been made possible from Research Grant provided by the Human Resources Research Unit of the University. I would like to record my gratitude to the then Acting Director of the Unit, Dr O. J. Fapohunda for making initial grant available to me and to his successor, Dr. Folayan Ojo, who made supplementary grant to complete the computer and data analysis.

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ABSTRACT

Concern with free flow of factors of production, particularly of high level manpower, rests on the need to ensure balanced socio-economic development among the states as well as promoting an efficient and integrated labour market for skilled manpower in Nigeria. The national concern for balanced development has been adequately reflected in Nigeria's various National Development Plans. In a situation such as in Nigeria where shortage of high level manpower is everywhere acute, one main area of efficient utilisation of the limited supplies and one that has not hitherto received adequate attention by policy makers is the distribution of the available stock of high level manpower.

Even distribution of the limited stock is important in many respects. Primarily, it will ensure that every State or sector has its own share of scarce human resources. This is more so because the existing disparity in the distribution of skilled manpower has tended to encourage and perpetuate unbalanced rather than balanced development among the various States, a situation which is quite contrary to the national goal and aspiration.

This thesis was an attempt to analyse systematically the past, present and future prospect for voluntary inter-state labour mobility among the intermediate and highlevel

manpower in Nigeria. Factors facilitating as well as those retarding labour mobility were identified.

The thesis, which was based mainly on survey data, has six chapters. The first chapter reviewed the existing literature on the relationship between labour mobility and economic development. This chapter also specified clearly the objectives of the study as well as the methodology used for the collection of the data. Chapter two focused on the general pattern of inter-state labour mobility. This included the pattern among the Nigerian professionals as well as between the public and the private sector employees. In chapter three we discussed the factors that either facilitated or hindered mobility as provided by the respondents themselves. Similarly in chapter four we examined the perceived mobility intentions of the respondents. Chapter five was devoted to a quantitative assessment of the determinants of inter-state labour mobility.

Chapter six, the final chapter, provides a general summary and conclusions of the study. A number of far-reaching suggestions were provided most of which, when implemented, are capable of ensuring balanced development through efficient utilisation of human resources.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Although regional models of economic efficiency require that resources should move in substantial number from low to high marginal productivity areas in response to differentials in economic incentives, various obstacles interfere with these responses. Such obstacles include the cost of moving, the ties that people develop with their local communities and the non-transferability of some assets such as landed properties. Obstacles such as these may in turn be linked to such characteristics of the labour force as age, occupation, sex, education and marital status. An attempt to measure the impact of these labour force characteristics on inter-state mobility is a necessary step towards a better understanding of labour markets and towards policy recommendation for improving the efficiency of such markets. Such an attempt must distinguish between the propensity to move and the observable act of moving. The propensity to move is the ability and willingness to move, while observable act of moving is the actual movement that has occurred. Propensity to move is the condition of being mobile. A group of people can be mobile and yet may not move. The reason for this paradox, lies with the incentive differentials. Those with

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high propensities to move might have greater bargaining power (e.g. higher skills) that could lead to equalisation of wages rather than observable movements.

If this is so, then data on the movement of a specific group of workers drawn on the basis of some characteristics must be assessed against incentive differentials for this group if one is to infer the degree of mobility associated with these characteristics. Furthermore, data on observable movement are more useful if they show the geographic areas from which such groups moved. Otherwise, there would be no basis for measuring the incentive differentials.

Much of the research into labour mobility has attempted to explain migration in terms of differences in employment opportunities and in wage levels (Ravenstein, 1889, Lee, 1966). One important conclusion from the earlier writers is that their models offer limited guidance for practical policy in the Third World nations largely because of paucity of relevant and reliable data. In addition, their findings are limited because of little possibility of generalizing results found in one country for other countries. Of the several studies undertaken previously, the study which has stimulated the highest interest and reaction in recent times was carried out by Todaro in the late 1960's (Todaro 1969). However, Todaro,

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like most of the earlier writers, concentrated his attention on the rural-urban labour mobility.

Even though a number of important modifications on the basic Todaro migration model have been made since it first appeared as a Ph.D. Thesis in 1967, many problems remain unsolved. These include, the implicit assumption that information about alternative opportunities is everywhere available. This assumption is clearly inappropriate in explaining labour market structure in Nigeria. The effect of imperfect information system on the extent of market information system on the extent of mobility must be taken into account. In particular, the working of the extended family system which has been largely ignored by earlier writers is crucial to the understanding of how information is transmitted, risk of moving is minimized and finance and supply for a move are provided.

In Nigeria the need for labour mobility has been stressed by many writers (Diejomaoh, 1975; Ojo, 1977 a and b; Aderinto, 1978 (a and b). The Third National Development Plan has also stressed the need for labour mobility. Such a mobility will ensure that the manpower-scarce States have the benefits of recruiting qualified manpower from other states into their establishments. Informed opinions about the obstacles to the rapid flow of high level manpower from one State to another as predicted by various migration models based on differential

economic factors include Institutional and socio-economic factors. Institutional factors include the practice by some State governments refusing to employ qualified persons from other States. The problem is also compounded by sheer unwillingness of many Nigerians to work in states other than their own. According to Hinchliffe (1973) for example, over sixty per cent of the students interviewed at the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria indicated their unwillingness to work in States other than theirs. Similarly, Ojo (1977a) reported that over 50 per cent of the 2,852 undergraduates surveyed in 1971/72 session preferred to work in their States of Origin.

The Federal Government has also stressed the need for free mobility of resources including labour. It recognised that in a growing economy, it is mobility which lends flexibility to the nation's productive capacity. Without mobility, labour will be frozen into its geographical birth-place and probably frozen into the occupational and industrial attachments of its parents. Thus the lack of mobility would severely interfere with production. As a method of encouraging geographic labour mobility, the Federal Government introduced the National Youth Service Corps in 1973 as a multipurpose one-year compulsory national service scheme for University graduates. Two of the main objectives of the scheme relevant to this study are:

(i) To induce "employers, partly through their experience with members of the service corps to employ more readily, qualified Nigerians irrespective of their states of origin"; and

(ii) To encourage members of the corps to seek, at the end of their corps service, career employment all over the country, thus promoting free movement of labour.

Before the establishment of this scheme the problems of labour mobility in Nigeria was beginning to assume crisis proportion. In the 1950s, for example, a large number of Nigerian workers were dismissed in various parts of the country on the ground that they were not indigenes of the Regions in which they were working (Ojo, 1977a). The former Regional Governments and now the State Governments have been guilty of extreme regionalism (statism) in the process of regionalising their civil services. What is more serious is that this extreme regionalisation of employment practices was extended to the private sector where employers have to fall in line with State Government discriminatory employment policies. Yesufu (1962) put this summarily - that "private employers particularly the large expatriate firms, have largely adopted this regionalist approach in labour recruitment for fear of the Regional Governments who might otherwise withhold important economic concessions".

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The National Youth Service Corps scheme has existed for about 9 years now. In 1977, the Directorate Commissioned evaluation study of the scheme. In this report, Ojo (1977b) concluded that the NYSC Scheme would seem to have engendered inter-state high-level manpower mobility. This conclusion was derived from the finding that 360 graduates received jobs offers from states other than theirs. This conclusion is in consonance with the policy of the Federal Government and also the result of the needs for high-level manpower in the states, short of adequate indigenous manpower.

Inspite of the tremendous private and public interest in the subject of inter-state mobility of labour, little is known particularly about the labour mobility of the experienced workers, their patterns of mobility, factors that influence their mobility and the characteristics of those that move and those that have never worked in the states other than their own. Balanced regional economic development requires adjustment in the labour force. Trained personnel may have to move in opposite directions. Skilled technicians may be needed in one area, accountants in another and school teachers yet in another. It seems reasonable therefore to suppose that this type of movement of people will occur. Yet our knowledge of this important phenomenon is extremely limited.

1.2 Review of Previous Studies on Migration

The amount of empirical evidence available in the field of migration is enormous and the range and coverage of the statistical data is constantly increasing. In spite of this there has been only a relatively few attempts, until recently, to order the confusion with the development of theoretical propositions and models which could lend both elegance and understanding to this large and important subject.

In part, this is due to the wide range of disciplines for which migration is a relevant but not necessarily a central factor. For example, migration is a demographic problem : It influences size of population at origin and destination; It is an economic problem: a majority of shifts in population are due to economic imbalance between areas; It may be political. This is particularly so in international migration but is also nationally true in period of inter-tribal war: It may be a sociological problem since social structure and cultural system in both origin and destination are affected by migration and in turn affect the migrant. The multidisciplinary nature of migration explains, in large measure, why there have been few attempts at constructing a general theory of migration.

The first attempt at formulating migration theory was made by Ravenstein in his two papers of 1881 and 1889 on "The Laws of Migration". These laws which outlined the demographic and economic variables particularly in relation to the factors of distance represents the beginning of an attempt to relate in a systematic way the factors which enter into geographic mobility of labour. Subsequently Ravenstein has been much quoted and occasionally challenged. For example Humphreys (1889) retorted that "after carefully reading Mr Ravenstein's former paper and listening to the present one I arrived at the conclusion that immigration was rather distinguished for its lawlessness than having any definite law". Bourne (1889) also said "that although our Ravenstein had spoken of law of migration, he had not formulated them in such a categorical order that they could be criticised."

In spite of the criticisms Ravenstein's papers have stood the test of time and have remained the starting point of work in migration theory. While there have been literally thousand of migration studies all over the world very few additional generalisations have been advanced. So little were the developments in migration theory in the 1930s that Thomas (1938) concluded that the only generalisation that can be made in regard to differential

in internal migration was that migrants tended to be young adults or persons in their late teens.

In the early forties, students of migration were consistently interested in explaining the observed movement of people in space. Among the most important of these are Zipf (1946) and Stouffer (1940 and 1960). Zipf sought to explain such movement by the "principle of least effort". He proposed that the number of people going from one city to another should be a function of the distance separating them since the effort required to cover greater distance would presumably increase with the distance.

Zipf's hypothesis has been tested in a number of studies. Anderson (1955) for example concluded that distance should be raised by a power greater than one and less than two and expressed an opinion that the exponent should be a variable rather than a constant. Another scholar, Ineeles (1964) pointed out that Zipf's formular was none too successful in describing the actual flow of population, at least as far as migration from one city to another is concern. Consequently there does not appear to be wide acceptability of his model.

As an alternative for using distance to explain geographic mobility of people, Stouffer in 1940 and 1960

employed the concept of intervening opportunities (Stouffer, 1940 and 1960). According to him distance as such was not as important a factor as the number of opportunities available. He then argued that - "the number of persons going S distance from a point is directly proportional to the number of opportunities on the perimeter of a circle with radius S and inversely proportional to the number of opportunities on or within the circle". With the introduction of the concept of competing migrants in his second paper, Stouffer's original model became an attempt to express for any given period, the number of migrant from City A to City B as a direct function of the number of opportunities in city B and an inverse function of the number of opportunities intervening between city A and city B as well as the number of other migrants competing for opportunities in City B.

Several studies have tested Stouffer's model. (Bright and Thomas 1941; Galle and Taeuber, 1966). These studies found that the model explained more than 90 per cent of the variance and that partial correlation coefficients of intervening opportunities and competing migrants made independent and roughly equal contribution to the predictive utility of the model.

Rose (1958) however pointed out that studies using Stouffer's model had not worked significantly beyond the framework given to it by Stouffer, i.e. they had not related his variable to other variables. When distance was related to some socio-economic status of migrants, for example, the result were positive and significant.

In several other previous migration studies dealing with nations as diverse as the United States and other similarly large countries in the world the most important variable, both in terms of significance of coefficients and in terms of addition to total explanatory power of the relationship fitted, has been the distance between sending and receiving regions. These studies includes, Gallaway, et. al. (1967); Greenwood, (1969a, 1969b, 1971a, 1971b; Levy and Wadycki (1978); Greenwood and Gomely (1971); Lowry (1966) and Sahota (1968).

It is not difficult to find the reasons for this uniformly strong ability of distance to explain the migratory movements that have occurred. An important determinant of migration is the cost of moving which includes both monetary and non-monetary components. The monetary component consists of two elements; (1) out-of-pocket transportation expenses for travel, food and lodging for one's family and belongings; and (2) the opportunity

cost associated with migration. Opportunity costs consist of the value of foregone alternatives that are "sacrificed" during the move and where necessary during the job search and subsequent retraining period.

Since there exists no reliable estimate of either type of monetary costs mentioned in migration and since such costs are fairly closely related to distance moved, distance serves as a proxy for the monetary costs of migration. It is possible to interpret Stouffer's concept of intervening opportunities in the context of opportunity costs of migration. Hence for any given locality, the greater the intervening opportunities between that locality and any other locality, the greater is likely to be the opportunity costs associated with moving between the localities and thus the less the migration that is expected to occur. Consequently migration is expected to decrease as distance increases.

Several other recent studies using strikingly similar methodology to those mentioned above and somewhat similar in results have examined the determinants of inter-regional migration in less-developed countries. Included in this latter group are Greenwood (1969b, 1971a and 1971b), Levy and Wadycki (1978) and Sahota (1968).

These studies have placed emphasis on the determinants of migration and on the magnitude in which each factor exerts its influence on aggregate geographic labour supply adjustment. At the aggregate economic level, it is primarily differences in employment opportunities and in wage levels that have been found to be good determinants of the direction and size of migration flows (Bohning, 1975; Bowels, 1970; . . . ; Grubel and Scott, 1966;. Others have found the degrees of urbanisation of the destination region to be an important determinant of inter-state migration (Beals, Levy and Moses (1967); Greenwood (1969b), Sahota (1968); Greenwood (1970); and Lowry (1969). Hence one would expect a higher in-migration of skill labour to places like Lagos, Kano than Calabar and Sokoto.

Of particular relevance to the African context is the hypothesis postulated by Todaro (1969) and Harris and Todaro (1970) that incorporates many of the elements of the Schultz-Sjaastad theory. Todaro and Harris have hypothesised that the decision to migrate to an urban area for example, reflects the urban rural income differentials and the urban unemployment rate with the former effect being discounted by the latter. Specifically, starting from the assumption that migration is primarily an economic phenomenon, Todaro postulates that migration

is a positive function of rural-urban differences in expected income. He defined expected income as the urban wages multiplied by the probability of obtaining urban job.

Many attempts have been made in Africa to assess the validity of Todaro model of migration. Some of the studies have relied on the use of regression analysis. Rempel (1974) for example, attempted to test Todaro's model with data from Kenya. In Rempel's regression, the pulling effect of income differentials as a determining factor on internal migration did not prove conclusive.

The results indicated that a barrier to migration was distance and the costs of moving. The majority of migrants listed "lack of jobs and land" as the primary reasons for leaving the rural homes. There was some evidence that "clan" contacts in destination areas attracted migrants.

A more recent test of the Todaro model by Godfrey (1973) with Ghanaian data produced some results that tend to disprove Todaro's hypothesis. Godfrey found that during part of Nkrumah's years in Ghana (1960-65) the rural-urban income differentials were reduced and the difficulties of obtaining a modern sector job increased. Yet rural-urban migration did not seem to have been reduced. In this case neither a reduction in wage differentials nor higher urban unemployment rates were sufficient

to lessen the rate of rural-urban drift.

Greenwood's (1969b) regression study with data from Egypt suggests that income differentials play an important role in internal migration in that country, as such the direction of net-migration has been movement away from low wage region to high wage region. As a result of this phenomenon there has been a gradual decline of regional wage differentials in Egypt between 1952 and 1960.

Push-Pull Factors

Perhaps the question that is most frequently asked but least understood about migration is, why do people move? The reason for this lack of clarity is that in a majority of cases the migrants themselves do not know the answer to this question when asked in surveys they tend to give vague and general reasons like work, family reason, studies etc.

One attempt to cover all moves under a general heading is the "push-pull" hypothesis. It suggests that migration is due to socio-economic imbalances between regions - certain factors "pushing" persons away from the area of origin and others "pulling" them to the area of destination. Among the many studies using this hypothesis is one residential mobility by Rossi (1955) who divided reasons for moving into those pertaining to the decision to move out of the

former home (push) and those pertaining to the choice among places to move to (pull). He found that one in every four residential shifts could be classified as involuntary where the push factor was predominant; while among the Voluntary moves, where the household had a clear choice, the most important pulling factors were - more space in the dwelling, better neighbourhood and costs of the new dwellings.

The concept was also used for international migration by George (1959). He classified geographical movement of population into two forms: (1) Moves ^{caused} \angle by necessity or obligation; (2) moves caused by needs (mostly economic) of receiving countries.

Characteristics of the first type are that they generally have political or religious causes, that they "push" certain classes of racial, religious or national group who are mostly not suited to conditions in their place of destination. In the second type, pressure from the place of origin (push) is accompanied by need (pull) in the place of destination.

Though a variety of spatial moves could fit the framework of the Push-pull hypothesis, it appears most appropriate in migration from rural to urban particularly in the developing countries. With industrialisation a

majority of persons were literally "pushed" from their farmlands with no other alternatives and pulled by the attractions real or imagined of the cities e.g. the declining socio-economic conditions (push) of the rural area and the increasing economic opportunities and prosperity for the cities (pull). However in most of the developed and developing countries today, there are high rates of inter-urban movement of skilled and professional persons who could hardly be said to be "pushed" to move from one locality to another. A particular problem always associated with this approach is the distinction between "push" and "pull" factors. By and large, all factors can be said to exert a "push" and "pull" effect depending from the angles from which they are examined. The "push-pull" approach also subsumes all motives under the assumption of the maximization of want-satisfactions so that the complex decision to migrate is reduced to a kind of mechanical balance of external and impersonal forces.

The growing awareness of the limitation of explaining behaviour in terms of objective structural factors as implied by the push-pull model, is reflected in migration studies which have now centered attention on the migrants' own account of their motives. Unfortunately, depending on the migrant's own account of motives confronts

researchers with the difficult problem of "real" and "stated" motives. The problem then becomes one of compromising the structural approach with the approach based on the migrant's own account of motives.

That is to say how can we classify a collection of motives within the framework provided by the objective structural determinants. This is ofcourse a problem and perhaps the problem for every investigator engaged on a study of the motives for migration.

Non-Economic Factors

While it is generally agreed that the search for economic betterment plays a major role in migration, the place of non-economic factors is less clearly defined. More controversial is the attraction of the city on the rural young. In his study of Freetown, Banton (1957) obtained information both in Freetown and in part of Northern Sierra-Leone from which emigration is heaviest indicating that the freedom the town offered from the control of older generation constituted a major attraction.

An attempt to integrate the multitude causes of labour migration into a single framework have been made by

Mitchell (1959). In his studies of the Ngoni and Ndendeuh of southern Tanzania, Gulliver christened and dismissed "bright lights theory" and emphasised that the

main factor pushing men to seek work is economic. To him other factors appeared to be no more than "last straw" causes affecting only the timing of migration:

A review of part of the considerable literature of the causes of labour migration led Mitchell (1959) to emphasise also the importance of economic factors in inducing movements. He proposed what would seem to be two different theoretical approaches. The first is based on the distinction between necessary and sufficient conditions of labour migration:

"In logical term, economic factors appear to be a necessary conditions, but they may not in themselves be sufficient conditions. In other/ if the economic drives to labour /words migration are not present it is unlikely that it will occur, but if economic conditions are present, the actual migration may not occur until some event in the personal life of the individual precipitates events and ~~triggers~~ off his decisions"

This interpretation does not fit the data available, in fact the very reports discussed by Mitchell contradicted this interpretation. For many people, economic factors provide sufficient conditions.

Mitchell's second approach separating our economic from personal factors is very illuminating. Personal ^{that} factors/ in this case have been mentioned as "causes" of labour migrations are of the type that operate independently of the economic factors. Tensions arising between Kinsmen

regardless of changes in economic condition might be sufficient to cause a person to move.

However the merit of this approach by stressing the importance of economic factors, in the same token, constitute a weakness in that it appears to allow for only one collective force: the economic, combining all others into a residual category called personal factors. This approach however accounts well enough for most of the empirical data because of the predominant role of economic factors.

With particular reference to Nigeria a lot of studies and published works now exist on internal migration most of which are rural-urban in nature. From the concentration of studies of internal migration on rural-urban, one gets the impression that rural-urban is synonymous with internal migration. The more recent review of internal migration in Nigeria, (Adepoju, 1976) gives credence to this view. This is particularly more so when it observes that - "The literature of migration in Nigeria, as elsewhere in Africa, tend to give the erroneous impression that migration is synonymous with rural-urban migration" (Adepoju, 1976).

Although the fallacy of this contention has been recognised (Udo, 1976 ; Adegbola, 1976; Olusanya, 1969;

and Ajaegbu, 1976; Adepoju, 1976) past and current studies have concentrated largely on the movements of low income, unskilled workers in Nigeria and this has been a predominantly rural-urban phenomenon.

This does not suggest however, that there are no studies or published works on skilled manpower in Nigeria. Far from that. Indeed in the last few decades studies of skilled manpower or what is otherwise referred to as high level manpower has received increased attention by both the Governments and the private sectors. Some of the works that are relevant include Yesufu, 1978; Diejomah 1977, 1979; Ojo 1977, Aderinto 1980. All of these studies analysed the high level manpower situations which reveal uneasy shortages particularly in the technical and professional categories. In order to understand and appreciate the contribution of this thesis it is necessary to provide a brief review of the manpower situation.

Manpower Supply Situation

Since the Ashby Report (Ashby 1960) in which the need for massive manpower development was articulated, the Nigerian Government has embarked on systematic manpower training and development. At primary school level, free education was introduced at varying time by some State Governments (then Regions) to provide a

good base from which to recruit entrants into secondary education and other vocational system. Consequently, national primary school enrolments rose from 3,894,539 in 1971/72 to 5,193,550 in 1974/75 and to 11.5 million in 1980/81, representing an increase of about 200 per cent within a decade (Fagbamiye, 1979). However, we must not overlook the imbalance with respect to geography. In 1977/78, the three most educationally developed states at least with regard to primary school system, Imo, Anambra, Oyo had about 78 per cent of the total of national primary school enrolments while the least three educationally developed states - Niger, Ogun and Sokoto put together had only 8 per cent.

The phenomenon at the secondary school level was similar to the situations in the primary school system. Secondary school enrolments rose from a national figure of 135,434 in 1960 to 606,752 in 1974/75. Enrolments at the Technical and Vocational education rose from 5,037 in 1960 to 24,647 in 1974/75. Enrolments at the secondary and vocational education institutions are estimated at 240,000 and 290,000 for 1978/79 and 1980/81 respectively.

The rapid expansion of education was more noticeable in the universities enrolments. From only one university in 1948, the number of universities rose to 20 in 1981/82.

/from the Federal and State Government plans, this number may reach 31 universities before the end of the plan period in 1985. University Students enrolments increased from 27,025 in 1974/75 to 53,009 in 1978/79 (Guobadia, 1979).

The Federal Government has also encouraged and promoted rapid development of management talents and skills. The Centre for Management Development, was established by Decree No. 51 of 1976 to stimulate, promote and coordinate management education training and development primarily in the private sector. The Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) was established by Decree No. 39 of 1973 primarily "to provide higher management training for the development of senior executives for the public and the private sectors of the Nigerian economy." Similarly, the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) was established by Decree No. 47 of 1971. Its primary objective was and still is to promote and encourage the acquisition of skills in industry and commerce with a view to generate a pool of indigenously trained Junior and middle level manpower sufficient to meet the need of the economy.

The combined effects of the massive education development and the expansion of various management development institutions have been a very spectacular

growth in the stock and flow of high-level manpower in Nigeria.

Manpower Utilization

Impressive as the achievements in manpower development have been, the situation of manpower supply remains one of inadequacies. Almost every sector of Nigerian economy is characterised by acute shortage of skilled manpower. Indeed it has now been recognised that shortages of some types of manpower are more serious constraints to Nigeria's economic development than other factors such as capital.

Although there are no sufficient data to show the extent of manpower shortages, some, howbeit partial indicators are available. One of such documents is the background paper provided by the National Manpower Board for the National Conference on Relaxing Manpower Constraints to Nigeria's Economic Development.

Two somewhat different approaches have been used to assess the magnitude of the manpower shortages in the Nigerian economy. These are (i) the vacancy rates and (ii) the dependence on the expatriate manpower (Diejomaoh 1979).

Table 1.1 shows the extent of vacancies in the public service in 1973. From the report there was a vacancy rate of 33.4 for senior managerial and administra-

TABLE 1.1

PUBLIC SERVICES OF NIGERIA VACANCIES AS PROPORTION OF EMPLOYMENT
POTENTIAL BY MANPOWER CATEGORY, APRIL, 1973

Manpower Category	No. Actually Employed	No. of Vacancies	Employment Potential (Employed Vacancies)	Vacancies as % of Employment Potential
1. Senior Managerial & Administrative Staff	1,690	847	2,537	33.4
2. Senior Technical & Professional Staff	7,225	3,547	10,771	32.9
3. Intermediate Manage- rial and Administra- tive Staff	3,837	2,791	6,628	42.1
4. Intermediate Techni- cal and Professional Staff	15,567	5,646	21,213	26.6
5. Clerical and Junior Office Staff	39,840	6,494	46,334	14.02
6. Craftsmen and Arti- sans	46,006	8,917	54,923	16.24
7. Other Grades	94,801	10,274	105,075	9.8
All Categories	208,966	38,515	247,481	15.6

Source: Table 6 of T.M. YESUFU, V.P. DIEJOMAOH and F. I. ODUAH.
Manpower in the Public Services Report of the Manpower
Task Force, Udoji Commission, Lagos, September, 1973.

tive staff, about 33 per cent for senior technical and professional staff and 42.1 and 26.6 per cent for intermediate administrative and managerial and intermediate technical and professional staff respectively. From the national manpower survey (Diejomaoh, 1979), it appears that the vacancy rates have remained significantly high for various categories of manpower. However there appear to have been some improvements since 1973. From table 1.2, the vacancy rate for Senior Managerial and Administrative Staff has fallen from 33.4 in 1973 to 24.4 in 1979 perhaps due to the rapid development of these categories of manpower in Nigeria. However, it's very significant to note the disappointing deterioration of vacancy rate for the Senior Technical Scientific and Professional Manpower category. It increased from about 33 per cent in 1973 to about 44 per cent in 1979. The breakdown of the survey data showed that the vacancy rate in the Federal Civil Service and the Federal Corporation was 55 per cent senior administrative staff (i.e. Grade Level 14 and above) and 65 per cent for senior technical, scientific and professional staff such as medical doctors, architects, engineers, surveyors, etc (Diejomaoh 1979).

Although the vacancy rates for technical scientific and professional manpower were generally high for the economy, the degree of seriousness reflected by vacancy

TABLE 1.2

EMPLOYMENT AND VACANCIES IN SPECIFIC OCCUPATION ALL STATES
(1979)

Category	No. of Persons Employed	Vacancies	Total	Percent- age
Administrative and Managerial Manpower	95,686	30,902	126,598	24.4
Technical, Scientific and Professional Manpower	19,156	14,736	33,892	43.5
Agricultural Manpower	30,715	18,762	49,477	38.0
Medical Manpower	21,582	9,148	30,730	29.0

Source: Computed from Background data for the National Conference on Manpower Constraints to Nigeria's Economic Development, September, 1978.

rates varies among the States. The shortage is moderate in some States but extremely severe in others.

From table 1.3 vacancy rate was lowest for Oyo State and highest for Niger State. Using the vacancy rate as a measure of the extent of manpower shortage It is reasonable to conclude that manpower shortage is most acute in Niger State followed by Kaduna. This is just an illustration of the imbalance in the distribution of shortage of manpower among the states.

TABLE 1.3

VACANCY VARIATION IN SELECTED STATES OF PUBLIC SERVICE

States	Establish- ment	Vacancies	Total	Percentage Vacancies
Kaduna	2,663	1,311	3,974	33.00
Niger	1,328	1,181	2,509	47.00
Oyo	3,529	793	4,322	18.3

Source: Computed from Background data --- 1978

The extent of manpower shortages has also been measured by the number of expatriate personnel employed by the various establishments in Nigeria. Table 1.4 shows the extent of expatriate employment in Nigeria.

TABLE 1.4

DISTRIBUTION OF SPECIFIC CATEGORIES OF MANPOWER BY NATIONALITY
1979

Category	Nigerian	Non Nigerian	Total	Percentage Non-Nigerian
Administrative and Managerial Manpower	90,019	5,690	95,709	6.0
Technical Scientific and Professional Manpower	38,652	2,751	42,403	7.0
Agricultural Manpower	7,892	210	8,102	17.0
Medical Manpower	20,110	1,221	21,337	8.0

Source: Computed from Background data for the National Conference on Manpower Constraints to Nigeria's Economic Development September, 1978.

In the Administrative and managerial manpower categories, the dependence on expatriate personnel was about 6 per cent, ^{for Administrative/managerial manpower} 7 per cent for technical, scientific and professional manpower and as high as 17 per cent for agricultural manpower. Low as these may appear the dependence on expatriate personnel in some occupational categories was found to be highly significant. For example, the dependence rate was about 22 per cent for General Managers and Managing Directors, 35 per cent for architects, 28 per cent for Mining engineers, 38 per cent and 20 per cent for physicists and chemists respectively. In the medical profession the dependence rate was 29 per cent for general practitioners, 31 per cent for pediatricians 32 per cent for anaesthetists and 42 per cent for Dentists (Diejomaoh, 1979).

The above review, sketchy though it is, shows that even the studies that have been done on skilled manpower have tended to concentrate on the examination of supply and demand and little has been done in the area of effective utilisation. In particular, the studies have not been concerned with the movement of skilled manpower across the state boundaries to maximise the benefits from existing stock. This study therefore aims at adding to the existing knowledge about manpower situation in Nigeria. It is the first study to examine,

in a systematic manner, the issue of the free movement of skilled manpower on a national scale in Nigeria.

1.3 IMPORTANCE AND OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The primary objective of this thesis is to analyse the extent of inter-state mobility of high level manpower in Nigeria, to identify the determinants of such mobility, and provide recommendations aimed at eliminating observed constraints thus improving the performance of the Nigerian labour market for skilled manpower.

The need for this study becomes more appreciated when it is realised that the effect of factor mobility on the regional differences in factor returns and on regional growth have been central to the theoretical analysis of regional growth. Since it is believed that economic growth of a region depends on the growth of factor input in that region, the role of factor mobility cannot be ignored.

Nigerian government which places a very high premium on balanced development among the component states cannot ignore the distribution of factor inputs that generate such growth. Consequently much attention has been focused on not only spatial distribution of industries but also the spatial allocation of human resources that make the economy grow.

To the extent that this thesis is able to quantify the patterns and trends of labour mobility in Nigeria, the findings will be very useful in the formulation of regional growth policies. It will, for example, help in the formulation of recruitment, training and compensation policies of the various levels of government aimed at not only attracting but also **retaining** skilled persons from the various parts of the country.

The results of our investigation may also be helpful in reforming some of the existing government policies. For example, Ojo (1977b) reported that the impact of NYSC on inter-state labour mobility in terms of those who actually took up permanent appointments after the service year is encouraging, though not impressive. This study, specifically designed to estimate the pattern of mobility, will shed more light on crucial factors which have been probably ignored under the Youth Service programme. The final objective of the study is to recommend a workable system that will ensure a more optimal utilization of human resources and hence a much more equitable development of the States. Specifically, the objectives include the following:

1. Analysis of the Patterns of mobility by Socio-Economic and demographic characteristics.

2. Analysis of mobility by major occupational groupings and also by public-private sector dichotomy.
3. Identification of the determinants of inter-state labour mobility.
4. Discussion of the future prospects of inter-state labour mobility.
5. Recommendation of policies needed to move in a more optimum direction.

1.4 HYPOTHESES:

The hypotheses that are being tested include the following:

1. Mobility and costs of moving are inversely related. The cost of moving depends on the size of the family and the distance to be covered. Thus one expects mobility to fall with increase in the family size and also with increasing distance between origin and destination. Relationship between mobility and costs of moving is tested. This is checked against the relationship between family size on the one hand and mobility and distance of destination on the other.

2. Mobility rates, in general, tend to rise with education. The more educated one becomes the higher the propensity to migrate. This is so because the market for highly skilled professional is not local,

but tend to cross labour market (State) boundaries.

3. Relationship between age and mobility is non-linear. Mobility rates rise with age, stabilise in the early forties and then decline.

4. Geographic labour mobility can be explained in terms of "push" and "pull" theories in the labour market areas. The "pull" exerted by superior economic conditions in one State and the "push" generated by inferior conditions in another provide the stimuli for potential movers to move. Put succinctly the degree of mobility in the labour force depends on broad economic forces and its incidence on the characteristics of the workers.

5. Non-economic factors such as discrimination in recruitment practices, community ties, fear of political instability provide the major explanation for limited inter-state mobility in Nigeria. Family commitments and housing requirements also tend to reduce the geographic mobility while pension arrangements may tie him to a specific firm .

6. Professional and technical workers have the highest lifetime mobility and current mobility rates of all occupational strata. This is to say, that professional and technical workers are most mobile segment of the labour force.

7. In terms of inter-state mobility there is a higher mobility rate in the private sector than in the public sector. This to some extent may depend on the pension scheme. In particular the effect of institutional barriers in the public sector such as discrimination in State Government recruitment practices on labour mobility is analysed.

1.5 DATA SOURCES

The data on which the thesis has been based were collected from two sources.

- (a) Primary source
- (b) Secondary source

(a) The primary source was survey data collected from a sample survey of workers through the use of questionnaire. In order to achieve a high response rate, the questionnaires were self-administered by a group of trained interviewers.

Six of the Nineteen States in Nigeria were covered. These included Kano, Sokoto and Plateau States in the former Northern Region and Lagos, Bendel and Cross River States in the former South Region. We have chosen three States from the North and South respectively to reflect equal representation, since most of the discussions about labour mobility in Nigeria has tended to be between the North and the South. Within each of the two regions

(North and South) particular States have been chosen to reflect adequate ethnic and geographic representativeness. For example, Lagos was included because of its dual role as the Federal and State capitals. But once Lagos was chosen it also adequately represented other Yoruba states like Oyo, Ogun and Ondo. Bendel state was included as it could not be represented by any other states in the former Eastern Region. Cross River was included as a minority State. Kano state was included as a typical Fulani state, Sokoto as an Hausa state and Plateau as a typical minority state of former Northern Region. The samples thus adequately represented the three main ethnic groups Hausa, Yoruba, Ibo and the minorities.

The East-West (or Vise-versa) flow of high level manpower is of little interest in Nigeria as movement between highly developed regions is conceptually and theoretically expected to be lower than the flow from the more developed to less developed states resulting from differential economic opportunities. In addition to differential economic conditions, another factor that has influenced our choice of states, included relative geographical attractiveness. For example we have included states that are relatively more attractive to both indigenous and foreign manpower (e.g. Lagos, Kano, Plateau) as well as those that are relatively less attractive in terms of location and weather (Sokoto and

Cross River). The theoretical justification was the extent to which relative attraction or otherwise has facilitated labour mobility to the states concerned.

The public service survey was confined to the ministries of Health and Education at the Federal level and in the six sampled States. These two ministries have been chosen because they constitute the two most critical areas of manpower shortages. (Diejomaoh 1977). These ministries, on the basis of observed shortages, are areas where mobility should be encouraged if we are to pursue in a meaningful way the goal of balanced economic development throughout the country. The choice of respondents involved a random sample of staff on grade level 07 and above. This includes staff classified by Udoji and senior staff. Our sample fraction was 10 percent. The survey of educational institution was confined to secondary schools and Teacher Training Colleges because they provide the broad base for tertiary education such as technical colleges, polytechnics and the Universities. From the list of secondary schools obtained from the State ministries of education and schools boards, systematic random samples of between 10 to 12 secondary schools and Teacher Training College in each State were chosen and all the teachers on GL. 07 and above were given

questionnaires. This included mainly the NCE and graduate teachers or teachers with equivalent teaching qualifications.

For the private sector survey a number of firms were purposively selected from the list of registered firms in each of the chosen states. The basis of selection was primarily on the geographic spread of the industries particularly included were those operating in more than one State . These firms in terms of employment strength included both the medium and large firms. A preliminary staff list from such firms was compiled and stratified according to occupational rank. From this stratified list an optimum number of potential respondents were randomly drawn. In some of the smaller firms every one was a potential respondent . On the whole a total of 120 firms were selected.

Preliminary information was collected from establishments records such as staff list from the chosen States. This enabled us to stratify the respondents into various departments and units from where systematic random samples were selected. On the whole 4,000 workers of various, socio-economic as well as occupational status were selected as respondents. Only 1365 respondents completed our questionnaires. However, the totals of most of the tables do not add up to 1365 because of failure of some respondents to provide answers to some

questions.

Information collected from the respondents included demographic characteristics such as age, sex, family status, number of children. Other socio-economic characteristics included: education, family income, profession, state of origin, whether ever worked in another state. We also included a large number of questions relating to potential and actual mobility.

In each of the state, the survey covered the public and the private sectors. We included these two sectors so that we could determine the mobility differentials between them. For example we wanted to know in which of the two was there a higher rate of inter-state mobility. The inclusion of the two sectors was, hopefully, to enable us to analyse the inter-sectorial movement of the high level manpower.

(b) The main secondary data used was the background data provided by the National Manpower Board for the National conference on Relaxing Manpower constraints Nigeria's Development which was organised between January 30th and February 1st 1979. This data was a summary report of a National Manpower Survey in Nigeria. It was a total survey of all establishments both public and private and it covered all the states of the Federation. The primary objective of the survey was to provide

up-to-date information about manpower situation in Nigeria. The report provided several valuable tables and important statistics such as vacancy rates for various sectors and occupational categories.

It should be pointed out however ^{that} the survey data on which this thesis is based relates to the intermediate and Senior Staff. The whole spectrum of the Junior Staff which corresponds approximately to over 80% of the employed labour force is outside the study. The rationale for this exclusion is that most of the workers in the categories excluded are unskilled and being unskilled are likely to be relatively more abundant in each of the States. Since each state is assumed to have enough of this labour force and there does not appear to be any constraint in meeting the manpower needs for them, concern for their inter-state mobility does not pose any problem. The skilled ones such as craftsmen and artisans too are unlikely to engage in inter-state mobility to any appreciable extent.

Other limitations include the choice of only two ministries. Why education and Health for example? As we indicated earlier in this chapter, the two ministries constitute important areas of need as they are most affected by manpower shortages. However shortages also exist among other categories of manpower such as engineer-

ing and agriculture and there are people who might argue that health and education are secondary to say agriculture.

1.5 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

MIGRATION

Migration is a relatively permanent moving away of a collectivity, called migrants, from one geographic location to another preceded by decision-making on the part of the migrants on the basis of a hierarchically ordered set of values or valued ends and resulting in changes in the interactional system of the migrants.

MOBILITY:

Mobility in this study is defined as the propensity (including ability and willingness) to move. Movement on the other hand is the actual or observable act of moving. A mobile person or group of persons therefore is one that is potentially able or willing to move or has indeed moved whereas an immobile person is either unable or unwilling to move or has not moved.

Although substantial actual movement of a group suggests that it is mobile, it does not follow however that the groups who do not move are not mobile. In other words a group of people can be mobile and yet may not move.

MOBILITY RATE:

Mobility rate is conventionally defined as the number of migrants as a proportion of total population of a given geographic region. This is the usual definition when the census data are available. In this study our data are based on sample survey. Consequently mobility rate is defined as the total number of migrants in the survey as a percentage of total sample for each state of destination.

MOVERS/NON-MOVERS:

A Mover is defined as a person born in State i and found working in state j. While non-movers are defined as a persons born in state i and surveyed in state i or born in state j and surveyed in state j. This definition ignores those born in state i ^{who} had worked in state j in the past but has migrated back to state i.

PUBLIC-PRIVATE SECTOR MOBILITY

This is defined as movement from the public to the private sector. This definition excludes intra-public sector movement such as movement from the civil service to the parastatals. It also excludes intra-firm movement in the private sector. Consequently a movement from the government in one state to another state government in another state or to the Federal Government is not considered as mobility.

PROFESSIONAL

A professional is defined as someone trained in the skilled application of a generally accepted body of knowledge according to acknowledged standards of integrity. Codes of professional conduct are basic instruments used to establish the profession and its integrity. They signify voluntary assumption by members of the obligations of self-discipline above and beyond the requirements of law. Above all the codes include a definition of professional responsibility which is mandatory and serves as a basis for disciplinary action if a member infringes the agreed standards. These include the profession of medicines, engineering, law, accountancy etc.

SENIOR STAFF:

In this thesis we adopt the definition provided by Udoji in his Salary Review Commission's Report 1975. In the Report all public servants were classified as either Junior Staff or Senior Staff and fitted into the salary scale ranging from grade levels 01-06 for junior staff including the lowest paid unskilled workers to paid skilled and semi-skilled artisans, and post secondary technical training up to semi-professional level like the Ordinary National Diploma (OND). The Grade Levels 07 - 17 are for the Senior Staff which normally requires the minimum of a University degree or its equivalent qualification. These

grade levels include the highest paid permanent secretaries and managing directors of government-owned companies and corporations.

CHAPTER TWO

PATTERN OF INTER-STATE MOBILITY IN NIGERIA

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS

2.1 The process of labour mobility can be conceived as a combination of individual acts made in response to perceived opportunity differentials. Because not all individuals can and do take advantage of perceived opportunities to the same extent those who migrate do not constitute a random sample of the population group from which they originate. Rather they represent those who are most knowledgeable about opportunities elsewhere, those who face the fewest obstacles in moving and those who are most likely to improve their socio-economic circumstances by moving.

Since migration is a response to regional differences in social and economic opportunities the social and economic characteristics of migrant can vary across countries or regions as well as over time in any given setting. In the following section we describe briefly the various socio-economic characteristics of our survey respondents.

Out of a total sample of 4000 respondents, 1365 (or approximately 35%) satisfactorily completed our question-

naires. The response rates for the various States ranged between 29 to 42 percent, as shown in Table 2.1 below

Table 2.1

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY STATE AND
RESPONSE RATES

	Sample Size	Responses	Response Rate
1. Bendel	500	165	33.0
2. Cross River	500	168	34.0
3. Kano	600	253	42.0
4. Lagos	1400	432	31.0
5. Plateau	500	203	41.0
6. Sokoto	500	144	29.0
Total	4000	1365	34.0

A.

2.1.1 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

AGE:

The broadest generalization that can be made about the respondents concern their age. Their distribution shows clearly that the relatively younger ones are more likely to migrate than the older ones. Demonstrably

Appendix 2.1 shows that the proportion of respondents fell with advance in age. Whereas as high as 25 percent of the respondents fell within the 26-30 age bracket this percentage declined from approximately 23 percent for 31-35 to as low as 2 percent for above 55 years age bracket. The greater tendency for relatively young people to migrate is consistent with several fairly universal feature of social organisation in relationship with age.

SEX:

Most of our respondents were male. Specifically 1022 (or 75%) were male as against 343 (or 25%) that were female. (Appendix 2.2). The argument is often advanced that because of the nature of economic uncertainties associated with migration and in so far as the social norms in many cultures in Nigeria tend to protect women by restricting their contacts to kinship net works, only men are encouraged to take the risks associated with movement. Hence the males are more likely to settle down permanently in another state than female unless through the process of accompanying husbands.

MARITAL STATUS:

Most of our respondents were married with children. Approximately 80 percent were married leaving only 273

or about 20 percent as either single or divorced or separated (Appendix 2.3). The average family size was four. The professionals ^{showed} / a tendency for higher family size than other categories of workers apparently because they also ^{showed} / a greater tendency for self-employment.

KINSHIP AND ETHNICITY:

Certain ethnic or regional groups are sometimes more likely to move than others indicating occupational and other cultural characteristics that either facilitate or hinder their movement. Our data showed that respondents who claimed Anambra and Imo as their State of origin (largely Ibos) were found in almost all the other states implying that the Ibos are more likely to move than any other tribes in Nigeria. The least mobile are the people who claimed to be Hausa/Fulani. The finding that the Hausa/Fulani ^{were} least mobile looks a little contrary to expectation since there is hardly any city in Nigeria where you don't find the Hausa/Fulanis. Indeed they usually live together in quarters specifically developed by themselves. However these are usually illeterate population like petty traders, herdsman and those engaged in the slaughtering of cows and ofcourse security guards. Our respondents were skilled and educated persons.

2.1.2 ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

The data, generally seem to indicate that our respondents are not the "dregs of society" or the vast pool of illiterate labour which classical rural-urban models might predict but the ones who are relatively more educated. Most of our respondents had University degree or equivalent qualification. Appendix 2.4 showed that about 49 percent had university degree or equivalent professional qualifications and about 32 percent had at least three years of post-secondary education or the intermediate professional qualifications. People who had at least intermediate qualification constituted as high as 82 percent of total respondents.

Occupational distribution ^{showed} \angle that about 5% were employed in general management and administration; 37.6 in professional jobs; 11.7 as secretaries and executive officers while about 32.5 were teachers. As a result of high level of education most of the respondents were earning above ₦2,500 per annum. Average income was ₦3,800 per annum. The professionals ^{were} more than proportionally represented in the higher income bracket.

2.2 GENERAL PATTERNS

Most of our respondents were relatively new in the States in which they were working. Out of a total of 1365 respondents about 60 percent indicated that they

had spent only one year in their current places of work. Only about 10 percent had stayed beyond 5 years. (Appendix 2.5) However, they were experienced; about 60 percent of them had worked elsewhere before taking up the present employment. The fact that most of the respondents indicated that they had spent few years in the present State of their employment can be explained in two ways. First, during the survey we found that many highly placed people who fell into our sample and who would have been on the job for several years did not complete our questionnaires. They complained of having no time and some were openly antagonistic. Their advanced age would affect the overall length of stay in the present state. Secondly, consequent upon the creation of new states, civil servants transferred to their newly created states. The newness of these states presupposes that the length of stay of the staff could not possibly exceed the age of the states. This position was reinforced by the finding that most of our respondents indicated that they have voluntarily worked in other states.

As regards those who had moved at least once to work in another state, most of them worked for different employers. Although about 60 percent of the respondents indicated that they have voluntarily worked in another state only 25 percent of the movements can be said to be

truly voluntary. Most of the movements occurred as a result of creation of new states. However, a sizeable proportion of them still worked for the same employers. The latter group included^d those who were transferred by their employers to State branches of their establishment. The respondents claimed that such transfer or secondment reflected the wishes of the employers and not the voluntary desire of the employees to work in another state of their choice and hence cannot be regarded as voluntary mobility.

2.2.1 NORTH-SOUTH MOBILITY

It has been severally asserted that mobility between the southern and Northern states is very low whereas intra regional labour mobility within each region is relatively high. Put in another way, mobility between the States is considerably low.

A simple computation from the Table 2.2 shows clearly that the proposition is upheld. The proposition is that since Plateau State is one of the States carved out from the former Northern Region, significantly high proportion of high level non-state manpower working in the State would come from the other States in the former Northern Region. Out of a total of 560 non-state high-level manpower working in Plateau State in 1978, 446 (i.e., about 80%) of them came from the

TABLE 2.2

DISTRIBUTION OF NON-STATE OFFICERS IN THE
PUBLIC SERVICE OF PLATEAU STATE 1978

State	Total	Youth Corps Members
Anambra	22	(3)
Bauchi	30	(2)
Bendel	20	(5)
Benue	187	(6)
Borno	20	(4)
Cross Rivers	7	(3)
Gongola	40	(11)
Imo	21	(5)
Kaduna	80	(9)
Kano	5	(4)
Kwara	72	(6)
Lagos	3	(1)
Niger	11	(3)
Ogun	11	(2)
Ondo	12	(5)
Oyo	13	(7)
Plateau	-	(1)
Rivers	5	
Sokoto	111	
	560	

Sources: Computed from the Plateau State Government
Establishment list, 1978.

other Northern States. Only 20 percent came from the Southern States.

In the Cross River State, we observed similar pattern of low North-South mobility of high level manpower reflected by the scanty presence of non-state indigenes in the State Government establishment. An examination of the compiled list of non-State indigenes on the establishment (Table 2.3) showed that of the 133 Non-State indigenes working in the various establishments in the Cross River State as at April, 1978, 101 (76%) were from the Southern States and only 14 came from the Northern States. In fact all the 14 officers from the Northern States were Youth Corps Members.

2.2.2 MOBILITY BETWEEN CONTIGUOUS STATES

The other aspect of our hypothesis on which our current data throws light is that mobility between contiguous states is higher than between distant states. Our two sources of data provide^d information in support of this hypothesis. Table 2.2. shows that Benue State alone accounted for about a third of non-state high level manpower working in Plateau State. The six contiguous states - Benue, Kwara and Kaduna, Bauchi, Gongola and Niger accounted for 75 per cent of such non-state staff. In the case of Cross River State that Table 2.3 showed the most contiguous States Anambra,

TABLE 2.3Distribution of Non-State Established Officers in
Cross River State (1978)

No	States	Total	
1	Abambra	17	(5)
2	Bauchi	0	
3	Bendel	1	(1)
4	Benue	9	(9)
5	Borno	1	(1)
6	Cross Rivers	0	
7	Gongola	1	(1)
8	Imo	18	(7)
9.	Kaduna	1	(1)
10	Kano	0	
11	Kwara	0	
12	Lagos	0	
13	Niger	0	
14	■gun	0	
15	Ondo	0	
16	Oyo	2	
17	Plateau	1	(1)
18	Rivers	62	(11)
19	Sokoto	1	(1)
20	Foreign Country (Africa)	6	
21	Foreign Country (Non Africa)	12	

N.B.: The number in bracket indicates the number of Youth Corps Members included in the total.

Source: Computed from the Establishment list of the Cross River State Government, 1978.

Benue, Gongola, Imo and Rivers accounted for about 87 percent of the Non-State high level manpower Southerners working in the State.

Our data, though rather ~~fragmentary~~ and very limited in scope did show that mobility in terms of North-South direction ~~was~~ rather low as compared with intra-state labour mobility within each of the Northern and Southern geographic zones. Table 2.4 for example, shows a significant presence of the Southerners in the North and the negligible presence of the Northerners in the South, ($\chi^2 = 38$, $p \leq .05$). While Southerners represented about 38 percent of total respondents in the three surveyed Northern States, the Northerners represented less than 2 percent of respondents in the three Southern States. Indeed the 9 respondents from the Northern States happened to be located in Lagos presumably in the Federal establishments.

2.2.3 EDUCATION AND MOBILITY

The tendency for those with more years of schooling to be more likely to migrate has been well documented in the literature. This relationship was submitted to empirical test with our data. We found the relationship positive and very significant at the one percent level. ($\chi^2 = 50.9$, $p \leq .01$) The study showed that inter-state mobility was low at lower levels of education

TABLE 2.4Distribution of the Respondents By Whether from
Northern or Southern States

Surveyed States	No of Respondents from Northern State	No of Respondents from the Southern States	Total
3 Northern State (Kano, Plateau and Sokoto)	343	212	555
3 Southern State (Lagos, Cross River and Bendel)	9	659	668
Total	352	871	1223

Source: Survey Data.

but rose with additional years of education and declined again. One possible explanation for this phenomenon relates to the degree of demand and supply differentials for the various categories of manpower among the states. Most of the states have relatively sufficient supply of the manpower at the secondary school level and below hence migration to other state would not be economical. Most of the states, however, suffer from the acute shortage of high-level manpower thus encouraging migration of such skilled people.

Studies of labour mobility also predict that most of the migrants would be mostly young, and single, predominantly between 15 and 25 years old. Many studies in Africa and Asia, have provided quantitative evidence in support of this proposition. (Caldwell, 1969; Brigg, 1971, Yap 1975). Similarly, there are increasing evidence showing that proportion of migrating women are now on the increase as their educational opportunities increase.

In the Nigerian study we found higher mobility rate among the relatively younger population group 26-35 years. Between 20 and 40 years age bracket (χ^2 46.5 $P \leq .01$) the relationship between mobility and age was positive and significant. However, from 40 years and above, mobility declined steadily thus supporting a non-linear correlation between mobility and age, although their relationship is significant at 5 percent level. Similarly most of the migrants were single male. The relationship between mobility and marital status was significant at the 5 percent level, ($\chi^2 = 32.3$, $p \leq .05$)

Some studies have reported a negative correlation between migration and number of children a man has. The rationale has been that the more the number of children the greater the cost of migration and other social costs. Therefore, a man with many children, say 5, is assumed to

be less mobile than a man with only a wife and a child to look after. Table 2.5 did not appear to indicate categorically the relationship between mobility and the number of children. Statistically number of children produced a negative and insignificant impact on the probability of migrating, even at five percent level.

2.3 INTER-STATE MOBILITY OF NIGERIAN PROFESSIONALS

2.3.1 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NIGERIAN PROFESSIONALS

The information obtained from our survey confirmed the domination of professions by male. Slightly over 77 percent of the sampled professionals were male compared with less than 30 percent that were female. They were

TABLE 2.5
VOLUNTARY MOBILITY BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Number of Children (1)	T		Total (4)	2/4%
	Movers (2)	Non-Movers (3)		
0	157	97	254	61.81%
1	75	47	122	61.48%
2	105	72	177	59.32%
3	109	55	164	66.46%
4	129	79	208	62.02%
5	79	57	136	58.09%
Above 5	156	127	283	55.12%
	810	534	1344	

mostly in their middle age. The differential was significant at 5 percent level ($\chi^2 = 24.3$, $p \leq .05$). Some computations from Table 2.6 for example showed that the professionals were mostly concentrated between age bracket 30-40 and slightly more in 40 and above age bracket than the 30 and below age bracket. Most of them were married as it would be expected considering their advanced age. Separation and divorce rate was highest among them than for other occupational groups such as administration and management. Not surprisingly, the professionals were found to be highly educated, second only to teaching profession. Of the 881 respondents who held at least a University degree or its equivalent 270 (or 31%) of them were professionals, while 393 (i.e., 44.6 percent) were teachers. (Table 2.6) ($\chi^2 = 50.9$, $p \leq .0001$). If teaching was included among the professions, it would mean that over 75 percent of those who held at least a University degree were professionals.

If our findings supported the claim that the professionals constitute one of the major cream of the society in terms of their level of education, one is curious to know whether this reported high level of education, is associated with higher level of earnings. Table 2.7 illustrated this issue. From the table, professionals in general earned more than other categories of high and

Table 2.6

Distribution of Respondents By Education and Occupations

	Primary or less	Some Second- ary	Secondary Completed	Teachers College Certifi- cate	Post Second- ary Technical Commer- cial	NCE, OND & Other Interme- diate Profes- sional	Degree Full Profes- sional Certi- ficate	Univer- sity Profes- sional Diploma
1. Administrative	6	2	13	23	6	15	25	67
2. Professional/ Technical	14	31	38	31	8	33	138	144
3. Secretarial/ Executive	5	2	21	27	5	34	29	28
4. Teaching	22	3	6	1	12	6	127	162
5. Others	2	2	2	5	4	4	4	6
Total	49	40	80	87	35	92	323	467

Table 2.7

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY OCCUPATION AND EARNINGS

	0	2,501	5,001	7,501	10,001	12,501	15,001	Above
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2,500	5,000	7,500	10,000	12,500	15,500	20,000	20,000
1. Administrative	10	73	60	25	13	8	7	5
2. Professional/ Technical	54	239	103	50	21	18	12	14
3. Secretarial/ Executive	12	96	40	5	3	2	2	0
4. Teaching	49	260	103	30	3	0	0	0
5. Others	4	17	5	2	2	2	1	2
Column Total	129	685	311	112	42	30	22	21

intermediate level manpower. About 37 percent of the respondents earning between ₦5,001 - ₦10,000 were professionals. This was closely followed by teaching professions which accounted for about 31 percent. The domination of high income bracket by the professionals becomes quite glaring when we examined those on super-scale of over ₦10,000 per annum. The professionals accounted for about 57 percent followed by those in administrative group with 28.7 percent. Out of the 21 respondents that reported earnings of ₦20,000 and above, 14 (i.e. 67.8 percent) were professionals.

From Table 2.8 the finding of higher incomes for professionals was corroborated. From all the States of our sample, professionals in general earned more than other categories of workers. What was also important in our finding was that geographic wage differential existed among the States. Professionals in Lagos, for example, earned more than professionals in Kano and indeed in all other States capitals. The explanation for this, as will be made clearer subsequently in this chapter, was probably that most of the self-employed professionals were concentrated in Lagos being not only the Federal Capital but also the nation's major commercial centre. Compared with Lagos, other State Capitals were also dominated by professionals whose

Table 2. 8

INCOME DIFFERENTIALS AMONG GIVEN OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES

Occupations	STATES					
	N Lagos	N Kano	N Cross River	N Bendel	N Plateau	N Sokoto
1. Administrative	6,508	5,880	5,628	5,428	5,428	3,264
2. Professionals	9,232	7,284	6,381	5,927	5,706	5,867
3. Secretarial	5,944	4,580	4,016	4,079	3,914	3,257
4. Teaching	4,982	4,728	4,856	5,117	5,141	3,578
Average	6,667	5,618	5,113	5,188	5,047	3,992

earnings were significantly higher than other occupational categories.

2.3.2 MOBILITY AND EDUCATION

We wish to know which occupational groups show high and which show low Inter-State Mobility in order to determine what general attributes of work and career might explain the differences. In general, mobility rates were highest among the best educated (as explained above). Interstate mobility rose with additional years of post-primary education. It reached a peak with levels of education that can be categorised as intermediate manpower and thereafter declined. It was highest among those categories of workers possessing Ordinary National Diploma (OND), Higher National Diploma (HND), and the Nigerian Certificate of Education (NCE and other intermediate manpower categories.

It is difficult to explain this Phenomenon, particularly since most of the States suffer from acute shortage of this category of manpower. Perhaps the only plausible reason is that the movement was accentuated as a basis for ensuring upward occupational mobility. When these people move they move to occupy positions of higher responsibilities. This observation was supported by the fact that majority of those who migrated to other states were relatively young and inexperienced. Over 65 percent

of those working in other states have worked for between one and five years and only 15 percent have worked in the state for 20 years and over.

2.3.3 MOBILITY AND OCCUPATIONS

In Occupational terms, mobility rates ^{were} found to be lowest for professionals, technical and kindred workers. The professionals happen to find themselves at the upper range of the higher education where the mobility rates are expected to be lower than the rates for intermediate level education. However, our finding of lower rates of mobility among professionals ^{is at} variance with the finding of several earlier ^{reports.} Thus, Lansin and Mueller (1967) assert - "The extent of geographic mobility varies among occupational groups. Migration rates are highest among the best educated and in occupational terms among professional and technical workers".

High mobility rate among the professionals has been found in Britain as well as in the United States. In the United States, for example, mobility among the professionals has been found to be as much as twice higher than any other groups of workers. This apparently high mobility rate for professionals has been ascribed to the incidence of the geographically mobile young workers entering the professional labour force.

From our data, only 63.5 per cent of the professionals that responded to our questionnaire were mobile while 36.5 percent of the professionals were not mobile. This compared with 64 per cent and 60 per cent of occupational groups such as Administrative/Managerial and Secretarial/Executive respectively that were mobile. The possible explanation of the rather relatively lower mobility found among the professionals is the relatively new existence of most of the professions and the existence of very high demand for the existing professionals. Since the professions are relatively more remunerative and since they are needed in every State of the Federation, one does not need to make an interstate movement to improve one's economic conditions. This is more so in view of the fact that making interstate move is not without some costs - social, economic and psychic.

This explanation conforms with the proposition that the people with the greatest incentive to make interstate migration will be those with the greatest prospect of considerably improving their economic positions. Consequently, those workers that are relatively worse off with respect to other workers in the economy would have a greater incentive to migrate in order to improve their relatively poor conditions. As we have said earlier, the

junior and intermediate workers, because of their perceived poverty will possess greater desire to migrate to other States compared to the relatively comfortable status quo of the professionals who are the Nigeria's new class of rich people. In addition, the non-economic benefits given to the professionals are often more than sufficient to compensate for the difference in absolute income derivable from moving to other States and hence retard the movement of a significant number of them. Factors such as social status, ownership of properties, and now opportunity to participate in local politics, all operate to reduce the incentives to make Inter-State mobility.

2.3.4 SOUTH-NORTH GEOGRAPHIC MOBILITY OF PROFESSIONALS

Earlier in this chapter we found that there ~~was~~ a very restricted mobility between the Northern and the Southern States. It was also reported that there was a higher mobility between the contiguous states. In this section we are interested in knowing whether the pattern is the same for the professionals.

We hypothesised, as was done for the general mobility pattern that there is a higher South to North mobility rate for professionals than for other workers. This hypothesis has been based on the fact that the Southern States have greater supply of professionals.

Since the Northern States have relatively more acute shortage of professional manpower, the Southern professionals would be attracted to the North by higher salaries and more attractive conditions of service in addition to the probable faster occupational mobility.

From our survey a number of startling revelations emerged. First, of the 513 Nigerian professionals interviewed, 138 (i.e. 27 per cent) were Northerners while the rest were from the former traditionally Southern States. In general, most of the Nigerian professionals working in each of the two geographic regions came from that region. Specifically, most of the professionals practising in the former Northern Region (now States) came from the Northern States. Of the 204 professionals working in the three sampled Northern States (Kano, Plateau and Sokoto) 136 (i.e. 67 per cent) were from the three States put together, implying that about a third of all the sampled professionals migrated from the South to the North.

In contrast, the North-South mobility rate among the Northern professionals is considerably lower. Of the total of 282 professionals interviewed in the three Southern States (Lagos, Bendel and Rivers), only 2 professionals came from the North.

It appears as if the pattern of mobility of professionals reflected ^a definite preference for some States.

In terms of political objective of reflecting Federal character, Plateau and Kano States ^{appeared} _∟ more representative. It is particularly significant to note that Lagos, inspite of the fact that it is a Federal Capital, ^{was} not as representative as one expected. The situation ^{was} _∟ even worse in Cross River and Bendel States where the influence of Northern professionals was least felt. In term of economic rationalisation, however, there ^{was} _∟ little justification for expecting Northern professionals in Lagos or Calabar. As we have said earlier, the demand for professionals is even stronger at the state level where upward mobility is faster. When this is added to possible social problems in Lagos, the long term balance of economic benefits are higher to stay in the North than to come down to the South.

Compared with the situation in the Northern States, professionals from the Southern States were found in most of the Northern establishments both in the government and private sectors. The numbers from the Southern States in fact out-number those local professionals working in such states as Kano. Several additional reasons could be advanced for the relatively low North-South mobility among the Northern professionals. These reasons could be economic and non-economic. Economic factor relates to the fact that most of the Northern professionals secure

more lucrative jobs in the North than they could secure in the South. The non-economic factor relates to the strong attachment of the Northerners to their traditional society. This feeling is reinforced by their perceived hostile environment in the South, all which do significantly retard their movement to the Southern States.

In spite of the relatively low mobility among the two major geographic regions, our study reported a high rate of intra-state labour mobility within the States in a particular region. Thus of the 58 sampled non-state professionals working in Kano State 23 (i.e. about 40 per cent) ^{was} were from the Northern States. The pattern ^{was} equally true of Plateau and Lagos States. We observed a significant effect of contiguity (nearness) on interstate mobility of professionals between contiguous states. This phenomenon, it will be recalled was reported for the general mobility pattern. What was true for general, is also true with particular, in this case the professionals.

2.3.5 MOBILE VERSUS IMMOBILE PROFESSIONALS

Our study showed structural differences between several occupations within the professional groupings. We observed for example that salaried professions have a higher migration rate than self-employed professions.

Salaried professions include those professions whose practitioners cannot easily establish their own private practice such as teachers, paramedical workers, clergymen etc. On the other hand, those professions heavily characterised by self-employment recorded the lowest interstate mobility rate. These include, the dentists, architects and lawyers. The importance of the distinction between salaried and self-employed professionals is clearly illustrated by Table 2.9 where migration rate for the salaried professional occupations is about

Table 2.9

MOBILE VERSUS IMMOBILE PROFESSIONALS

	Mobile	Non-Mobile	Total	% Mobile
Salaried Professionals (workers)	187	26	213	87.8
Self-employed professionals (Entrepreneur)	139	161	300	46.3
	326	187	513	

twice higher than for the self-employed professions. A major probable reason for the lower migration rate for the most self-employed professionals is that as

entrepreneurs they are tied down by heavy capital investment and clienteles built over many years. The most obvious cases are doctors, dentists and lawyers.

The salaried professions, on the other hand, have relatively little capital outlays or none at all are not so closely bound to clients. Teachers and Filmstars for example, have in common the fact that both can shift frequently and often hold "captive" rather than cultivated audiences, judges and airplane pilots are similar in that their respective "clients" are transients who require no fiduciary relationships. The pharmacists and medical doctors are perhaps not as exceptional as they appear. The two professions are normally organised so as to weaken the impact of salaried status through private practice. The salaried ones generally worked hand in hand with their self-employed superiors in relatively small clinics and stores. In the process, they also build up clienteles and necessary capital and many of them later move to self-employed status. In short, they conform to a general proposition that professions that demand costly equipment purchases and close cultivation of clienteles block inter-state migration.

We also found that professionals with high rates of Inter State migration typically work in medium or small bureaucratic organisations with short organisational

hierarchies and low ratios of managers to total employees. Professions such as clergymen, teachers, intermediate technicians, etc., fall into this category. They tend to work in organisations with relatively few career stages and levels of advancement within the organisation. For most of these people, there are not many rooms at the top into which to advance. Career advancements usually come about by changing organisations and because of high demand for their skills and the national dispersion of relevant work organisations, job change does invariably involve geographic mobility. Consequently for numerous salaried professionals as against entrepreneur/professional a combination of high marketable skills, blunted organisational advancement and decentralised work units fosters high rate of interstate mobility.

2.3.6 SHORT VERSUS LONG DISTANCE MOVEMENT OF PROFESSIONALS

The relationship between salaried professions and the mobility distance was also investigated. In general, salaried professionals have higher long distance rates than self-employed professionals. For example, teachers, have higher distance rates than lawyers, architects, doctors etc. However, further inspection suggests other attributes of work that appear to facilitate this observed higher distance rates. Professionals with high distance migration rate are characterised by work condi-

tions and salaries that vary widely from job and from one geographic area to the other.

Professionals with very low distance mobility rates such as dentists, phamacists, lawyers are each characterised by relatively similar work conditions. One of such common characteristics is that they are entrepreneurs. An additional factor relates to the individual State's requirement for licensing. The relative ease with which professionals can register and practise varies from State to State. The difficulties of getting offices and houses for staff and indeed that of obtaining the required staff do, to a large extent, retard some movements. Finally those professionals that do not require approval from State Government to practice are in general more mobile than others that require such approval.

One other occupational characteristic that one should mention is the close relationship between long distance movement and strong professional contact. We found that the professional associations that are characterised by very strong collegiality have strong organisations that are nation-wide such as Nigerian Medical Association, the Nigerian Bar Association etc. These professions are such in close professional contact with their far distant members. They attend regularly professional conferences and meetings and read associations publications very closely. Consequently these

professions are quickly informed and constantly surrounded by wide-ranging occupational-based relationships. Information about job opportunities near or far travels fast. Aspirations and any dissatisfactions with work conditions or salary stimulate the search for advancement.

2.4 INTER-STATE MOBILITY WITHIN AND BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

2.4.1 INTRODUCTION:

A lot has been said about the brain drain from the public to the private sector of the Nigerian Economy, (Fajana and Aderinto, 1980; Diejomaoh, 1977). This movement has been ascribed to higher remuneration package in the private sector. Others have called attention to movement within the public sector itself particularly movement from the civil service to the parastatals. In this section we throw more light on the phenomenon.

2.4.2 INTER-STATE MOBILITY: PRIVATE SECTOR WORKERS VERSUS PUBLIC SERVANTS

As evidenced from chapter three, salary levels in the private sector were found to be significantly higher than in the public service sector. From our mobility hypothesis we expect labour to move from low to higher paying sector. Since earnings differential is in

favour of the private sector, it is expected that more workers would move from the public sector to the private sector.

Table 2.10 shows^d that the public servants have lower mobility rate than the private sector employees. Conversely the private sector workers are more mobile than the public servant. Specifically about 53 per cent of the public servants were found immobile compared with only 30% of the workers in the private sectors. While in the public sector wage determination process seems rather rigid and manipulation rather difficult, in the private sector, on the other hand, wage determinations are comparatively flexible and factors of supply and demand have stronger influence on wage levels. Consequently, higher salaries and fringe benefits exist in the private sector as a means of attracting highly suitable candidates.

Table 2.11 examined the same problem of mobility from a different perspective. When we asked respondents to indicate whether they have ever voluntarily worked in another state (life time mobility) our finding was consistent with the observation from Table 2.11. A significantly higher proportion of the private sector workers - (64%) indicated that they have worked in other States before taking up employment in the present

Table 2.10WHETHER WORKING IN OWN STATE BY TYPE OF EMPLOYER

	Yes	No	Total	% Working in State of Origin
1. Federal Ministry	15	79	94	16
2. State Ministry	191	107	298	64
3. Federal Corporation	53	80	133	40
4. State Corporation	81	40	121	67
5. Local Government	20	7	27	70
6. Private Firm	66	155	221	30
7. Education Institution	168	260	428	39
Others	21	22	42	49
	615	750	1365	45

SUMMARY

	Yes	No	Total	% Working in State of Origin
Civil Servant	360	313	673	53
Private Firms	66	155	622	30
Educational Institution	168	260	428	39
Others	21	22	20	49
	615	750	1365	45

Table 2.11

WHETHER EVER VOLUNTARY WORKED OUTSIDE STATE OF ORIGIN
BY EMPLOYER

	Yes	No	Total	% Ever Voluntarily worked outside state of Origin
1. Federal Ministry	67	27	94	71
2. State Ministry	193	161	254	55
3. Federal Corporation	62	59	121	51
4. State Corporation	82	59	141	58
5. Local Government	27	19	46	27
6. Private Firms	115	64	179	64
7. Education Institute	272	158	327	64
Total	818	547	1365	60

SUMMARY

	Ever worked in another State	Never worked in another State	Total	% over in Outside State
Civil Servant	431	325	756	54.0
Private Sector Workers	115	64	179	64.0
Education Institute	272	158	430	64.3
	818	547	1365	60

state compared with about 54 per cent of the public servants who so indicated. Particularly noticeable was the high mobility rate observed for educational institutions. Indeed, mobility among teachers ^{was} / slightly higher than for private sector employees.

A more detailed explanation for the rather low Inter-State mobility rate found among the public servants in addition to income differentials will be provided in another chapter. Suffice to say here that relative lack of effective incentives observable in the public sector has to do with nature of the employment. For example, it has been claimed that relative security of employment in the public sector and the influence of generous pension scheme significantly explained why people do not change employer once they have worked for Government or its agency for over a given period of time. This proposition is consistent with the observed tendency for mobility to decline with years of experience in the public services. Once one has put in say about 5 to 6 years in the public service, it is natural to want to continue until say up to 10 years, after which time a worker will be entitled to gratuity claims from Government. After such period, mobility in terms of withdrawal of service tends to pick up. This phenomenon has become the feature of public sector employment since

the time of Udoji salary awards in 1975.

2.4.3 INTERSTATE MOBILITY AMONG THE WORKERS
AND CHANGES IN OCCUPATIONS

In the earlier section of this chapter we dealt extensively with mobility among professional workers. We found that by and large professionals are slightly less mobile than other occupational categories. We rationalised that to acquire professional qualifications requires more than average intelligence in addition to significantly more years of schooling. In other words, human capital investment in professional qualifications is so large, such that once such qualifications are acquired there is less willingness to change from such qualifications such as lawyers, accountants, professors, architects etc. Consequently, when professionals make geographic mobility such as moving from one urban city to another they still continue within their professions.

Our findings gave strong support to our expectation. When our respondents change job places they invariably work for new employers. This is more so for private sector than for public sector. This is to say that change in geographic work place is normally accompanied by change in employers. However, even when they make geographic movement, implying, for example, a change in work place from one state to another, it is not normally

accompanied by change in the occupation. This is true for all workers whether working in the public or private sectors.

We asked further question as to the number of times respondents have ever changed their occupations. Only about a third of the respondents have ever changed their professions. On further inquiry most of the respondents who indicated that they have one time or the other changed their professions were formally either teachers or executive/secretarial workers. This is quite understandable. Firstly, these occupations cannot be adequately described as professions. Most workers in these types of employments consider such employments as a stepping stone, a stopgap before acquiring full professional qualifications. Secondly, even if we consider them as semi-professions, the remuneration and social status attached to them are far below the status of full professional qualifications. This is buttressed by the fact that most of them decided to change their occupation because they were "not satisfied with their former professions".


After the change most of them ~~became~~ ^{showed} satisfied with their new professions; Table 2.12  the state of satisfaction. From table 2.12 many workers were satisfied with their professions. About 70 per cent of

Table 2.12STATE OF SATISFACTION BY TYPE OF EMPLOYERS

	Not Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Total
Public Sector	320	324	164	808
Private sector	50	01	367	518
	370	425	531	1,326

the workers were either "somewhat satisfied" or "Very satisfied". We should however note that workers in the private sector ^{were} L more satisfied than their counterparts in the public service. Of the 531 respondents who were very satisfied 367 (or about 69 per cent) were workers in the private sector. The corollary ^{was} L that workers in the public sector ^{were} L relatively more dissatisfied with their job or professions or both than those in the private sector. 370 out of 1365 sampled employees were "not satisfied" with their work, out of which 320 (or 86.5) were workers in the public sector.

Asked whether they would like to change their professions, most of the responding professionals were unwilling to change their professions. Even the professionals in the public service who indicated that they

were dissatisfied with their employer did not show any sign of wanting to change their professions. This was also true of the Administrative workers. However, as would be expected teachers, executive and secretarial workers who indicated that they were unsatisfied with their work or employers, wanted to change their employers as well as their professions and invariably they wanted to change to professions.

2.4.5. Salary Levels in Both The Private and the Public Sectors

Table 2.13 below showed the distribution of the average annual income of our respondents. Observedly salary levels were generally higher in the private sector. The average annual income in the public sector was found to be about ₦5412 compared with well over ₦6000 salary levels prevailing in the private sector. From a more curious examination of the table the public private sector differential was consistent at all levels of occupational categories. Both for Administrative, Professional/Technical and other categories, salary levels were higher for private sector than for public sector. One other feature that should be noted in Table 2.13 is the fact that although we found that professionals in general received higher pay compensations than other categories of workers, we observed that professionals in the public sector received lower levels

Table 2.13TABLE SHOWING SALARY DIFFERENTIALS BY OCCUPATIONS AND EMPLOYERS

(AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOME IN NAIRA)

	Public Sector	Private Sector
1. Administrative	6,380	6,896
2. Professional Technical	5,982	8,467
3. Secretarial/Executive	3,596	4,788
4. Teaching	5,667	-
5. Others (Unclassified)	5,438	5,926
	$\bar{X} = 5,412$	$\bar{X} = 6,000$

of earning than the administrative class within the same public sector.

This feature has long characterised the Nigerian public service and has persisted inspite of the revolutionary innovation of the Udoji Salary Commission which recommended identical treatment for the professionals as well as the administrators. The end of the struggle between the administrators and professionals is not yet in sight.

Table 2.14 pointed out another dimension of the public versus private sector salary policy. In the States where the private sector is large and dominant such as Lagos and Kano the salary levels for professionals in private sector is larger than the levels in the public sector. On the other hand in the States where the private sector is less developed and less dominant the salary levels prevailing in the public sector is slightly higher than in the private sector. Such states include Sokoto, Plateau and Cross River States.

Table 2.14

PATTERN OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE SALARY DIFFERENTIAL BY
STATE (AVERAGE SALARY IN NAIRA)

	Public Sector	Private Sector	Average
	₦	₦	₦
Lagos State	5,678	6,529	6253.24
Kano State	5,176	5,169	5272.22
Sokoto State	5,649	4,874	3759.34
Plateau State	5,587	4,966	4961.66
Bendel State	5,346	5,568	4461.18
Cross River State	5,126	5,345	5323.27

2.4.6 INTERSTATE MOBILITY AND CHANGES OF EMPLOYERS

We do not find enough evidence from our data to support our hypothesis that interstate mobility among the public servants is normally and usually accompanied by a change of employer. On the contrary, we found that when a public servant made interstate movement, he did so within the public sector-such as moving from Federal employment to state employment or vice versa. We found only very few respondents combining interstate movement with changes of employers.

With regard to the private sector in general, interstate mobility is accompanied with changes of employers. In other words, when employees in the private sector do make interstate move, they do so to join completely new employers although as we stated earlier they might be doing the same type of job.

This phenomenon deserves further comments. Accumulation of the years of experience in the public sector is normally considered as investment because the greater the length of service, the larger the retirement benefits including gratuities and pensions. The larger the value of this gratuity and pension the stronger the unwillingness to change employer and hence lose all the entitlements. It is not surprising therefore that when

a public servant particularly an experienced one makes interstate movement, he does so only when the entitlements can be transferred to the new employer. The current laws and regulations governing the conditions of service for public officers allow the transference of these benefits from one arm of government to the other. It does not allow a transfer of such benefits from the public to the private sector. However, the strong professional attachment reflected by the very low and insignificant number of people who change their profession is a feature of both sectors.

Appendix 2.1

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY AGE AND PROFESSIONS

	15-19	20-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	Above 55	Row Total
1. Administrative	2	24	33	53	43	24	8	2	9	198
2. Professional/ Technical	1	34	122	127	104	52	37	12	20	510
3. Secretarial/ Executive	1	24	41	34	13	22	12	3	6	156
4. Teaching	0	75	131	83	74	36	12	5	22	438
5. Others	0	5	10	9	3	3	2	0	2	34
Column Total	4	162	336	306	237	137	71	24	29	1336

Appendix 2.2

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY WHETHER WORKING IN
STATE OF ORIGIN AND SEX

	Male	Female	Total
Working in State of Origin	651	190	841
Working in another state	371	153	524
Total	10022	343	

Appendix 2.3

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY MOBILITY STATUS AND
AND MARITAL STATUS

	Movers	Non-movers	
Married	431	661	1092
Single	138	88	236
Widowed	7	6	13
Divorced	6	3	9
Seperated	9	6	15
Total	591	764	1365

Appendix 2.4

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVELS

1. Primary School and Below	40	3.0
2. Secondary Modern/S.75	69	5.0
3. Full Secondary Education	164	12.0
4. Post Secondary Including Intermediate Professional Qualifications	421	31.8
5. University Degree or Equivalents	644	48.6
6. Post-Graduate Qualifications	27	2.0
	<hr/> 1365	<hr/> 100

Appendix 2.5

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY STATE AND LENGTH OF
EXPERIENCE IN PRESENT EMPLOYMENT

	Below 2 years	2-5 years	Above 5 years	Total
Bendel	84	53	28	165
Cross River	98	49	21	168
Kano	170	69	14	253
Lagos	265	126	41	432
Plateau	128	63	12	201
Sokoto	69	51	24	144
Total:	814	411	140	1365
%	59.6	30.1	10.3	100.0

CHAPTER THREEDETERMINANTS OF INTER-STATE MOBILITY BASED ON SURVEY
RESPONSES3.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the theoretical models for explaining the pattern of labour mobility has been in terms of "Push" and "Pull" model. The pull factors are generally defined in terms of better economic opportunities in the cities while the push factors operate in pushing migrant out to escape social and cultural imprisonment in homogenous traditional areas. Because of the significance of socio-cultural factors in pushing migrants out of their traditional society, it is not surprising that many foreign writers on African mobility have reported significant influence of non-economic factors in actual mobility decisions. Such factors included the need to get away from marital problems and from the extended family system.

Others have emphasised the importance of employment opportunities as the main determinant (Hart, 1972). They argue that to the employed man, the mere existence of higher pay elsewhere, does not provide sufficient motivation to move to other state. Rather the prospective

migrant would be as much interested in job security as in the long term prospects. Similarly for the unemployed person, movement is induced not only by the fact of no job in his state of origin, but also the existence of job opportunities, again with long-term job prospects in his proposed area of destination. Implicitly therefore a potential migrant's decision to migrate to another state is formed by a combination of both past and present experience as well as future expectation. In this chapter our analysis is based on the motives as provided by the respondents themselves. It should be recognised however that there may be a difference between the "real" and the "stated" motives.

3.2 ECONOMIC FACTORS

Based on our survey data, the most important factor for moving to another state was to take up employment. About 67 percent of the respondents who had at one time or the other worked in another state declared "to take up employment" as either very important or important (Table 3.1). This finding is consistent with the findings of the earlier studies in which existence of job opportunities provided attraction (the pull factor) to potential migrants to leave the home state to take up employment in another state.

Table 3.1

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE REASONS FOR MOVING
FROM OWN STATE TO ANOTHER STATE

Reasons	Not Important	Not Very Important	Important	Very Important
To take up employment	15.5	6.1	11.7	66.7
To get away from marital problems	60.7	19.7	10.1	9.5
To avoid extended Family problems	52.2	20.9	15.2	10.7
To pursue further Education	29.0	12.1	16.7	42.2
To go to Apprentice School	62.6	13.5	12.7	11.2

Second in importance among the factors influencing labour mobility to another state is "to pursue further education" or to improve their educational or skill (also an ultimate economic motive). Apparently mobility of this nature occurs in two stages. First people move to another state to acquire further and higher education e.g. attendance at universities, polytechnics etc., or even teacher training colleges. After graduation the migrant decides to remain in the State and to take up appointment.

This was common in the past when there were fewer post-secondary institutions which were concentrated in some States of the Federation. Ambitious people had to travel out of their states to take advantage of such opportunities. In the more recent years the influence of such factors have declined because post-secondary institutions are now more evenly spread. This is not to say that students no longer travel to other states for further education. In fact the constitutional requirement to reflect Federal character in major institutions particularly in the Federal Institutions tends to perpetuate this phenomenon. In addition, the operation of the National Youth Service Corps which requires most categories of newly trained Nigerian high level manpower to serve the Nation primarily

in a state other than his own will perpetuate the dual stage of voluntary labour mobility in Nigeria.

To get away from marital problems ^{was} the most insignificant factor, trailing behind the desire "to get away from extended family problems" with only 9.5 and 10.7 percent of the respondents indicating them as "very important" respectively. All told, the combined effect of job opportunities and related economic factors are found to be of significant effect on actual and potential mobility.

It is worth investigating the factors that have largely been responsible for the unwillingness to migrate to other states particularly among the non-movers. It is possible that there is a reverse effect of other factors on the non-movers. For instance it is possible that the pull effect of the economic forces operate more on the movers, vis-a-vis the non-economic factors. On the other hand the non-economic factors might predominate more on the non-movers such that the social benefits for not moving out-weigh the economic benefit derivable from inter state mobility.

When the respondents were asked to rank the various factors that have been responsible for their

lack of inter-state mobility the pattern of their responses (Table 3.2) clearly shows the relative insignificance of economic factors such as good job opportunities. On the contrary we observed a relatively high significance of non-economic factors. Of the sixteen variables that were ranked, the three most important factors were (i) desire to be near home to get certain things done (like building a house), (ii) Family obligation to take care of the aged parents, and (iii) Educational opportunities for myself and children. These factors are largely non-economic thus supporting our assumption that the effect of non-economic factors predominated on the non-movers than the movers.

3.3 NON-ECONOMIC FACTORS

3.3.1 PERCEIVED FEARS OF WORKING IN ANOTHER STATE

After the Nigerian civil war, during which time many Nigerians working in states other than their own suffered tremendous hardships many Nigerians became conscious of the "dangers", real or imagined, associated with working in another state. Some of such dangers normally mentioned include the following - feeling of insecurity, fear of discrimination in employment and promotion, fear of political uncertainty and fear of tribalism. The military administration which followed the end of the civil war tried to allay such fears in the minds of Nigerians. Both in their appointments

Table 3.2

RELATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF THE REASONS FOR WISHING
TO REMAIN IN OWN STATE OF ORIGIN

Reasons	Not at all Important	Not Very Important	Somewhat Important	Very Import ant
Good job opportunities in my state	3.0	15.0	34.0	47.0
Fear of Discrimination in Employment, Promotion etc In another state	20.1	14.1	24.1	41.7
Unwillingness to lose my experience and seniority in my state	53.6	17.0	20.1	9.3
Educational Opportunities for myself and children easier in my state	3.1	3.7	26.4	66.8
Family obligation to take care of aged parents	7.4	8.6	14.0	70.0
Fear of Political uncertain- ty	11.5	41.7	25.8	21.0
Desire to be near home to get certain things done e.g. building a house	3.5	4.3	20.2	72.0

and public pronouncements they tried to make every Nigerian acceptable anywhere in Nigeria irrespective of tribe, religion or state of origin.

However to really find out whether in fact such fears, as have been stated, have been largely altered we asked our respondents to indicate the degree of importance of such variables. The responses were analysed for movers and non-movers. It ^{was} interesting to note that most of the non-movers that responded to our question considered "fear of insecurity", "discrimination in promotion and employment" and "political insecurity" as "not important at all". The impression which this result gave ~~was~~ that most of the non-movers who ~~had~~ always worked in their State of origin did not consider socio/psychological issues such as fear of insecurity, political insecurity as important consideration in mobility decision.

However, when the responses were analysed separately for the movers i.e., those currently working in another state, we found that such fears existed, This was reflected by the larger proportion of the migrants that indicated that fear ^{was} either "important" or "very important". This finding is important in at least one important respect. It provides an interesting contrast between the reactions of those who have

always worked in their own states and who probably have never been subjected to the "stresses" of alleged discriminations in their various forms and those working in another state who would have been exposed to the various problems of working in another state.

3.3.2 THE INFLUENCE OF FAMILY AND FRIENDS

The proposition that the existence of one's family and or friends in one region exerts a significant influence on the volume and direction of labour mobility has been tested recently with the case of India by

Greenwood (1973). In the study he made use of census data and found that the existence of one's family and or friends in a region has a strong tendency to attract new migrants to that region. He also reported that failure to include this effect in earlier studies led to an over estimation of the true relationship between mobility and such variables such as income and employment .

In this section we present additional evidence on the influence of friends and relatives on mobility. Our results ^{were} similar to those of India inspite of some marked differences in methodology. While in the case of India, census data were available and stock of migrants from particular regions was easy to estimate, the

Table 3.3FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR IMMOBILITY

(a)	Movers	Not at all Important	Not Important	Important	Very Important
i)	Fear of Discrimination in Employment, Promotion etc.	20.1	22.2	30.1	27.6
ii)	Insecurity of Employment associated with working in another state	20.9	28.0	21.3	29.8
iii)	Fear of Political insecurity	19.1	30.0	17.4	35.5
(b)	<u>Non-Movers</u>				
i)	Fear of Discrimination in Employment, Promotion etc, in another state	56.5	28.5	10.0	5.0
ii)	Insecurity of employment associated with working in another state	58.3	17.9	10.7	13.1
iii)	Fear of Political Insecurity	60.5	21.3	8.2	10.0

Nigerian data was a cross-sectional data from which it was difficult to estimate the size of the migrants from say state i residing in state j . Since neither the old census nor our cross-sectional survey data provided necessary information on the stock of migrants, we were forced to use "sources of employment information". Although this ^{was} not a perfect substitute for migrant stock we believe it ~~was~~ an acceptable proxy. The extent of existence of friends and relations in the region of destination would reflect the extent to which friends and relatives have been sources of employment information. In section 3.2 of this chapter we found that the "search for employment" was the major factor influencing the mobility of labour from one state to the others in Nigeria. Consequently, we expect that the presence of one's relations and or friends in any particular state will be reflected in the frequencies of friends and relatives serving as referral for employment information.

Tables 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6 illustrated the role and importance of friends and relations vis-a-vis other forms of employment referrals. From Table 3.4 for example friends and relations ^{were} the most important single source of employment information. This ^{was} followed by newspaper advertisement, while other sources ^{were} significantly

Table 3.4SOURCES OF EMPLOYMENT INFORMATION ABOUT PRESENT JOB

	Frequencies	%
Through Friends and Relations	502	36.8
Internal Advertisement	139	10.2
Newspaper Advertisement	356	26.1
Government Labour Exchange	108	7.9
Government Gazette	67	4.9
Private Employment Agencies	40	2.9
Others (Unspecified)	153	11.2
	1365	100.0

unimportant. We further investigated the influence of friends and relations as a means of employment information on those who were working in another state (mobile) as against those who were working in their own state (immobile). There is a possibility that a differential impact for the two categories of workers exist. Table 3.5 illustrated the position. First the overall significant influence of friends and relations as employment referrals

Table 3.5SOURCES OF EMPLOYMENT INFORMATION BY WHETHER WORKING IN
OWN STATE OR IN ANOTHER STATE

	Working in Own State		Working in Another State	
Through Friends and Relations	151	(23.7)	411	(56.8)
Internal Advertisement	86	(13.5)	19	(2.6)
Newspaper Advertisement	268	(42.1)	204	(28.2)
Government Labour Exchange	50	(77.8)	57	(7.9)
Government Gazette	32	(5.0)	33	(4.6)
Private Employment Agencies	11	(1.7)	18	(2.5)
Others Unspecified	2	(0.3)	3	(0.4)
	637	(100)	723	(100)

was confirmed as the biggest sources of information for mobile but not for the immobile workers. For the non-mobile workers the most important factors was found to be newspaper advertisement.

7 Perhaps one can explain this differential effect. For the non-mobile workers the "Newspaper advertisement" may seem reliable. The job seekers may be around to submit application

for employment to prospective employers and check directly from time to time the outcome of such applications. Because of the nearness, it is possible for the applicants to find out the nature of the job, the social image of the company and the general conditions of employment either by talking to the personnel department or by discussions with some of the workers in the organisation. For those looking for job outside their state of origin, (mobile) reliance on "newspaper advertisement" may not be as ideal as for those applying within the State. One may not know whether indeed the employer is honest with the advertisement or it is meant to promote those already in the employment of the company. In addition the relative ease with which an in-state applicant can find information about the potential employer is absent for someone applying from outside the State. Hence he has to rely essentially on his friends and or relations living physically in the State in which the applicant is seeking employment. In most cases the spadework is done for the applicant to secure gainful employment.

Apart from those physically working in their own States or in another State, we classified our respondents into those that have ever voluntarily worked in another State and those that have always been working in their

own State and we asked them about the sources of employment information. Table 3.6 illustrated the pattern of their answers. Overall, friends and relations were the most important sources of employment information. Next in importance, were internal advertisement for those that have voluntarily worked outside their state of origin, and Newspaper advertisement for those who have always been working in their home state respectively.

Table 3.6

SOURCES OF EMPLOYMENT INFORMATION BY WHETHER EVER
VOLUNTARILY WORKED OUTSIDE STATE OF ORIGIN

	Have Voluntarily worked in other State	Have never Voluntarily worked in another State
Through Friends and Relatives	390	180
Internal Advertisement	77	125
Newspaper Advertisement	233	120
Government Labour Exchange	53	55
Government Gazette	29	36
Private Employment Agencies	21	18
Others (Unspecified)	7	-
	810	534

From this pattern of responses it could be concluded that friends and relations were important source of employment information for the inter-state job seekers as well as intra-State job seekers. However the importance was greater for Inter-State job seekers than for Intra-State job seekers.

Past migration of friends and relations to some States can be expected to influence the flow and direction of subsequent migration of their kins in that direction for several reasons. Friends and relations who have previously migrated from one state to another may provide information about their present location to persons residing in their former place of residence. They may also provide temporary food and shelter as well as ease social transition in the new State for the new migrants.

3.3.3. PENSION PLAN AND MOBILITY

Students of labour market have expressed concern that increasing number of pension plans tend^s to restrict labour mobility. Their contention is that workers who build up substantial credits towards a retirement annuity become reluctant to shift their job location for fear of forfeiting accumulated retirement benefits. Since the amount of accumulated retirement benefits are closely related to length of service, and mobility rate has been found to

decline with length of service, the relatively low mobility rate found among experience workers has been attributed to the effect of pension plans. Similarly, the low mobility rate found among the public servants after working for say an upward of five years in the service has been attributed to the influence of the attractive pension entitlements in their later lives.

We tried to provide answer to the following questions - Do pensions curb inter-state mobility of high level manpower? Do they inhibit the actual movement of a worker from one state to another in response to a more remunerative job? To the mobile respondents we asked them hypothetical question - How important ~~was~~ the pension plan on your decision to work in another state? To most of them the pension was not very important. Over 70 percent of the respondents claimed that pension ^{was} either "not important" or "not very important". To the non-mobile respondents we asked - How important has the consideration for pension and related issues influenced your reluctance to work in another state? The answer was similar, that pension has not been an important consideration. Out of 639 respondents, as high as 415 (or 65%) claimed that consideration for pension has either not been "important at all", or "not very important".

That pension plan was not an important variable in the consideration for mobility is quite contrary to our expectation, particularly that a large proportion of our respondents were public servants, working mostly in ministries, corporations and local government. To these people, we postulated that consideration for the large governments pension provisions particularly since Udoji salary Review Commission Report in 1975 should weigh very heavily in their decision to move from one state to another. That this has not been so requires further investigations. For example, could it be that people have been moving without regards to their experiences and hence to the size of accumulated pension benefits?

On further examination of our data we found that the group that moved composed of relatively young and inexperienced workers particularly those who have not built up considerable pension benefits in terms of extensive work experiences. One further explanation for the relative unimportance of pension in the consideration for inter-state mobility is the possibility of merging of years of services. Subsequently if one can leave the service of one state for the other without losing the pension benefits, pension would not be a major consideration for making that decision. The relative unimportance of pension plans is reinforced by the practice in the

Federal public service which allows State offices of the Federal establishments to be manned predominantly by the indigene of the state. Consequently after working in another State one can request to go back home, to the Federal establishments in one's home state and this will not affect the pension programmes. In addition the practice of service "Condonation" whereby one can have a break in the service and still merge the service, enables people to take advantage of short-term contract work in another states without forfeiting the pension credits with original employers.

The combined effects of all these factors tend to reduce the importance of pension plans in the consideration for inter-state mobility. Thus to a considerable extent the existence of pension has not influenced inter-state mobility rate in Nigeria.

3.3.4 MARITAL STATUS AND MOBILITY

Traditionally within the African households, the wife's job has generally been regarded as subordinate to or of less economic importance than the job of the husband. Presumably in a typical household in which the husband's job takes precedence, it is axiomatic that the wife generally cannot initiate job-related move and that only the husband is able

to respond to various economic opportunities emanating from other geographic areas and without regard to the wife's job. As a result family in which wife works for pay would be expected to be as likely to move as family in which the wife is not employed. Similarly a married worker will be expected to be as mobile as the unmarried worker since the job of the former exerts no influence on the decision to move.

Today the conclusion above suggesting that the wife's job is an unimportant factor in the mobility decision of the household has been challenged. Indeed some have argued that the labour force participation of wives would significantly reduce the probability of household migration (Sahdell, 1975, Long, 1974). The basis for this argument rests on the notation that employment of married women ordinarily fosters their increased social and psychological attachment to particular localities and as a consequence, increases their resistance to mobility moves initiated by their husband. Additionally, because geographic or interstate relocation would increase the likelihood that the wife would terminate her employment (at least temporarily) mobility entails greater opportunity costs for those husbands whose wives are in the labour force.

Table 3.7 and 3.8 illustrate the situation in Nigeria. From the careful observation of the Tables, the above inference seem to be borne out. A significantly large proportion of the unmarried workers migrate to other states. While, with the case of married workers the reverse was the case. Out of a total respondents of 1160, about 57% (i.e. 658) were working in their State of origin. In terms of the group in which both husbands and wives were working vis-a-vis the group in which only the husband was working, we found that the husbands whose wives were working were less likely to move to other state than those whose wives were not working. The probability that a household in which both husband and wife are working will move to other

Table 3.7

CURRENT INTER-STATE MOBILITY BY MARITAL STATUS

Unmarried	MARRIED			
	Husband and wife in the labour force		Husband working Wife not working	
Working in State of Origin	65	268	(61.6)	130 (42.9)
Working in other State	140	327	(38.2)	175 (57.3)
	205	855	(100)	305 (100)

Table 3.8

LIFE-TIME VOLUNTARY INTER-STATE MOBILITY BY MARITAL STATUS

	Un- married	MARRIED			
		Husband and wife working	Only Husband is working		
Ever volunta- rily worked outside state of origin	128	431	(41.4)	80	(86.0)
Never volunta- rily worked outside state of origin	73	636	(59.6)	13	(14.0)
	205	1067	(100)	93	(100)

state was only about half the probability that a household in which only the husband was working will move to other state in response to better economic opportunities open to the husband.

Further exploration in term of those that have ever made voluntary mobility and those that have always been working in their state of origin, confirmed the same phenomenon. The similarity of our earlier findings is illustrated by Table 3.8. Among the unmarried workers we found again that many of them have worked in at least one other state. As for the married

workers not only that a significant proportion of them have never voluntarily worked outside their State of origin but also that mobility among the working couples ^{was} lower than among the couples in which only the husband ^{was} working.

One further point needs to be explained. First, it is not surprising that most of our respondents ^{were} married. As we discussed earlier, the study from which this thesis was written focused on the senior staff, those relatively experienced workers and by implication they have fairly advanced age. Consequently one would expect them to be married. Secondly, the fact that in most of the households both husbands and wives were working is a reflection of the modern trends which view the economic contribution of wives as essential in order to meet the daily needs of the households. Indeed, it will not be surprising to find that among the households in which the wives ^{were} considered as "not in the labour force" most of the wives were employed in the non-formal sector of petty trading and other self-employment. This is more so in view of the present trends for formerly employed wives to withdraw from the labour market only to establish trades and businesses of their own.

From our analysis it seems quite clear that Inter-State mobility of labour ^{was} restricted by the influence of a working wife. A single male unbothered by marriage strings is more likely to seek better economic opportunity including employment

in another State than a married couple. Similarly a household in which the wife is not working is more likely able to quickly take up employment in another State than the household in which both husband and wife are working.

3.3.5 PERSONAL/COMMUNITY TIES AND MOBILITY

An important measure of the relationship of personal ties to a community is the frequency with which people move to locations where they already have members of their extended family. If people who moved selected their destination without regards to their personal ties to people at a distance, many moves would be made to places where they have neither friends nor relations. But as our earlier analysis shows^d most moves were made to places where people had personal ties. Nearly half of all the moves were made to States where the people making the moves had relations or friends and over 70 percent were made to places where they had either relatives or friends or both. (Table 3.9).

The finding was reminiscent of the historic pattern of immigration in West Africa. Immigrants with different national background often moved to countries where they had relatives or friends. Thus most of Nigerian migrants in West Africa moved to Ghana (former Gold Coast) or Ivory Coast because of the previous concentration of Nigerians in these two countries as reflected in their censuses. Similarly a migrant from Ogbomosho

Table 3.9

INFLUENCES OF PERSONAL TIES ON THE DIRECTION OF MOVEMENT
OF MIGRANTS

Personal Ties in Areas of Destination State	Percentage Distribution of Movers
Had only relations living here	21
Had only friends living here	23
Had both friends and relations living here	25
Had neither friends nor relatives living here	31
	100.00

would most likely move to Ghana while a migrant from Ejigbo would most likely move to Abidjan because of the previous concentration of people from Ogbomosho and Ejigbo in Ghana and Abidjan respectively (Mabogunje, 1970).

We must however be cautious about inferring causation. We should not conclude that when people move from one labour market area to another where they have friends and relatives that they do so because of the contacts. People of similar background may make similar moves and for similar reasons

quite independently of one another.

Community Ties are often cited as factors that tend to inhibit geographic labour mobility. The group of reasons that make up community ties include all the attributes of a locality which make it a pleasant place to live as well as the association with friends which can tie someone to a community. It may also include property rights in a community such as **home** ownerships. Specifically, home ownership has been suggested as another factor that exerts significant influence on the volume and direction of mobility. It has been suggested that home ownership would restrict mobility. There is need to investigate this relationship because of the increasing trend of home ownership resulting partly from the boom in the economy and partly from the Federal and State Government housing policies of providing for many Nigerians particularly the workers in the urban cities.

Before the Nigerian Civil war only a somewhat insignificant proportion of the working force lived in their own houses. Today the proportion has increased and is increasing. The increase in home ownerships occurs in most of the population subgroups, but it is now most pronounced among the upper-middle class made up largely of Government contractors as well as other managerial classes. This class of people shows a sizeable upward shift in the proportion of home ownerships.

Thus the increase in home ownership is concentrated among the potentially less mobile element of the population, suggesting that the resulting restraint of home ownership on mobility may be considerable.

A look at our data suggests that people who own their ^{homes} / are less likely to move than people who live on rented houses. If the movers only 3 out of 10 owned houses, while 7 out of 10 of the non-movers owned their own houses. The data could be interpreted as providing a tender support for the hypothesis that house ownership impedes mobility.

Several additional pieces of evidence could be put together from our survey all of which point to the same direction. When we asked the question: If you could do as you please, would you like to move to another state or remain in this present state; approximately 80 percent among those who owned a house would prefer to remain but only 65 non-house owners expressed the desire to remain. This again suggests that people who own houses are more likely than non-owners to remain in their present location if they could do as they pleased.

It should be pointed out here that the reported large mobility differential between the house owners and the non-owners may result from other socio-economic characteristics which are associated with house ownership status. Young people, for instance, are more likely to be more mobile than older people and young people are also more likely to be non-owners.

It is expected therefore that the percentage of house ownership should rise steadily with age. From Table 3.10 the proportion of house ownership rose with income and age as predicted. With occupation and education, the relationship was not so clearcut.

In brief one can conclude that house ownership is associated with relatively low Inter-State mobility in part because house owners are the kind of people (especially in terms of age) who are not highly mobile. But in addition house ownership of itself, seems to make for some reluctance to move. The word "seems" is used advisably here since one cannot be entirely certain of the direction of causation. People, who are unsettled on their job or dissatisfied with the community where they live, may put off building or buying a house with the idea that they might move. Thus, in some sense, the causation may run from potential mobility to house ownership status.

3.3.6 INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS AND LABOUR MOBILITY

In Nigeria, before the introduction of the Federal Constitution in 1954, nation-wide mobility of labour was encouraged by the unified system administration in the public service sector. This unified system was also reflected in the private sector. Unfortunately following the 1954 constitution, regionalism and ethnic politics have tended to restrict the pattern of nation-wide mobility particularly in

Table 3.10FREQUENCY OF HOUSE OWNERSHIP BY SELECTED SOCIAL ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

(A) BY INCOME

	Own House Landed Property	Does not Own House Landed Property	Total	Percent- age %
Less than 2,5000	7	77	84	8.3
2,500 - 5,000	124	539	663	18.7
5,001 - 7,500	74	203	277	28.7
7,501 -10,000	37	86	113	32.7
Above -10,000	53	79	132	40.1

(B) BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES

Administrative	55	126	181	30
Professional	131	359	490	26.7
Technical				
Secretary				
Executive	43	127	170	25.2
Teaching	72	352	424	16.9
Other	11	37	488	22.9

(C) BY EDUCATION

Secondary & Below	15	51	66	22.7
Post Secondary	136	305	411	33.03
University & Above	157	524	661	23.8

Table 3.10 (Contd.)

(D) BY AGE

	Own House Landed Property	Does not Own House Landed Property	Total	Percentage %
20 - 25	12	127	149	8.50
26 - 30	46	392	428	10.7
31 - 35	62	246	308	20.1
36 - 40	61	182	243	25.1
41 - 45	58	77	135	42.9
46 - 50	33	35	68	48.5
51 - 55	16	9	25	64
Above 55	1	4	5	20
Total	289	1,072	1,361	21.2

the public sector and to a lesser extent in the private sector as well. The breaking up of former ~~four~~ regions into 12 States and later into 19, has somewhat compounded the problem. The situation was somehow improved under the unified system of the military administration particularly under Murtala Muhammed. The return to civilian administration under the presidential system since 1979 seems to have returned us to the pre-military administration under which Inter-State mobility was severely restricted by the state government employment policies and practices.

From the existing records and published literature on Nigerian's manpower situation, it is apparent that inter-state flow of skilled manpower resources in Nigeria is significantly low, reflected by the very low proportion of non-state indigenes working in the establishment of most of the states. Some national manpower surveys including those of the National Manpower Board and the one by the author corroborated this impression.

Existing evidence thus shows that the Nigerian labour market for skilled manpower has been seriously influenced by major institutional factors. Such institutional factors include the State Government's refusal or reluctance to employ qualified persons of non-state origin

on regular appointment. Reluctance to employ non-indigene on equal terms with the state indigenes, keeps on appearing as a national issue. Only recently a Federal Minister was credited as criticising the employment of non-indigenes into the sensitive areas of Borno State Government. From his explanation it appeared that the Minister was not opposed to the idea of the employment of non-indigenes, per se what offended him was the appointment of non-indigenes into the "sensitive" areas.

Judging from the extreme state consciousness and pervasiveness of mutual distrust among the Nigerian ethnic population, the preference for state indigenes cannot be dismissed without some serious examination. Quite rightly, wanting the indigene to man "sensitive" areas of the state Government can be justified for fear of sabotage. Indeed this will be indigenisation applied to the State Government. The practice of offering contract employment to non-state indigenes has been defended on similar ground. That is, in case where there are no qualified state indigenes, non-state indigenes would be appointed from time to time on contract basis such that they could be easily replaced by indigenes at a future time when qualified state indigenes are available.

This practice apart from the political implications resulting from the contravention of both the constitution

and the national objectives of an integrated society, has its cost. Only young graduates experiencing difficulties of securing appropriate employment in their own states would accept such appointments and only as a last resort, and as soon as they secure appropriate jobs in their States of origin they would move back to their States. For staying in another State could put a ceiling on their upward mobility. Also older workers who perhaps have retired from one employment but are still strong to remain in the labour force could take advantage of temporary contract appointments. However and this is very important, middle aged, highly qualified and well experienced personnel are most unlikely to abandon permanent employment in their States for contract employment in another states regardless of pay differentials.

Various opinions have been expressed on the role of the expatriate in compounding the employment policies of most of the State Governments. Some people have argued that the ready availability of expatriate personnel who are quite willing to accept contract appointments has not only helped the State Governments to perpetuate "stateism" but indeed has encouraged them to do so. Some people on the other hand, particularly those from the states concerned, have argued that the large employment of expatriate staff in the States establishments is a consequence of relatively low supply of skilled staff from the relatively more developed

States in the Federation.

It definitely requires a critical analysis of the situation before one can take a position which is not our intention here. But one thing is clear - that whether openly or disguisedly, most of the states adopt "stateism" in their employment policies. The difference is that for some states, it is easier to claim that the employment policy is one of open door to every one irrespective of State of origin. This is so because for many skilled posts there would be more than enough qualified and experienced personnel from among their state indigenes. This is very true of most of the Southern States. The situation is not the same with most of the Northern States with the exception of Kaduna State. In most of these states highly qualified and experienced personnel of state of origin are in very short supply. But realising that most of the developed states in the South entrust key positions in their establishments to indigenes of the states, the Northern States also are determined to do the same. To employ non-state indigenes on a post of a permanent basis implies that the person so employed would be there until he retires unless transferred to another division or he voluntarily resigns. This will mean that the actual controls of the economy of the State may be in the hands of non-state indigenes for several years, hence the origin of contract policy of employment.

But most Nigerians want permanent and secure employments and hence are reluctant to make Inter-State moves only to take up contract employment which is by its nature temporary. But other aspect of employment policies which tend to restrict mobility relate to promotion, deployment and transfer. A policy under which seniority and or merit is not a criterion for promotion or upward mobility cannot but restrict mobility: so also is the deployment of people. A state which deploys indigenes to the more attractive areas and the non-indigenes to the less attractive areas will not only discourage people from other States but will encourage those already there to move back to their States of origin. This is now happening on a large scale in Nigerian particularly in relation to teachers teaching in another States where rural/urban deployment is always invariably in favour of the indigenes.

CHAPTER FOUR

FUTURE MOBILITY INTENTIONS

In this Chapter, an attempt would be made to relate the labour market characteristics to the future mobility pattern of skilled workers. Specifically, we would attempt to analyse the perceived future mobility patterns of the respondents in terms of some identified labour market characteristics such as occupations/professions, experience, type of employers, age and marital status.

Such an understanding of the pattern of mobility intentions can enrich the predictability of manpower projection models. An analysis of the expected future inter-state flow of skilled manpower will also highlight the magnitude of what needs be done to ensure desirable free flow which is a necessary pre-condition for achieving the national goal of a balanced development.

4.1

PERCEIVED FUTURE MOBILITY PATTERNS

Table 4.1 shows the pattern of the respondents plan for future employment. Some of the questions were asked to cross-check the consistency of the previous questions as will be shown later. From the distribution it appears that most of the respondents preferred to live

Table 4.1

PREFERENCES FOR FUTURE EMPLOYMENT

Variables	Response Categories				Total (N)
	Not at all my preference	Not very much like my preference	Somewhat like my preference	Very much like my preference	
1. I would prefer to live and work in my state of origin	20.00 271	21.3 284	23.6 318	35.3 476	1,349
2. I would prefer to remain with my present employer	15.4 208	17.7 239	30.2 407	36.7 495	1,349
3. I would prefer to work for Federal Government	30.8 415	28.0 378	23.6 319	17.7 237	1,349
4. I would prefer to work in another State	39.6 534	30.5 412	21.8 244	11.8 159	1,349
5. If employed by Federal Government, I would prefer to work in any State of the Federation	32.8 443	23.5 317	20.8 280	22.9 309	1,349

Note: i. Roll Totals may not be equal to 100 per cent because of rounding.

ii. Absolute frequencies are in parenthesis

and work in their state of origin if they have their wish in the future. This was corroborated by the wishes of most of those who responded negatively to the statement - "I would prefer to work in another state". While about 35 percent indicated definite preference for future employment in own state, only about 12 percent indicated the preference to work in another state. This implied that the past trend of very restricted inter-state labour mobility should be expected to continue in the future. What was more interesting to note was the relative unwillingness of our respondents to work for the Federal Government. Contrary to expectation only about 41 percent indicated their willingness to seek future employment with the Federal Government.

Some writers, including the author, have at one time or another suggested that one of the means of ensuring free mobility in Nigeria was for the Federal Government to employ a large number of Nigerians and then deploy them to the states other than theirs. The basis for this approach rests on the belief that fear of instability of employment if employed by the State Governments was the main constraint to Inter-State labour mobility. If this were true we would expect a much higher percentage of workers than 41 percent who would be willing to work in another state if

they were employed by the Federal Government. Our finding did not give a strong support to this thinking. Indeed only a small proportion of the respondents indicated their readiness to work in any states even if they are employed by the Federal Government. Comparatively, a significantly large proportion will still be unwilling to work in another state even if they are employed by the Federal Government.

When we analysed the pattern of respondents to the question of future preference of employment in own state of origin, on the basis of occupations we found that the professionals expressed stronger preference for employment in their states of origin (Table 4.2). This was followed by those in Secretarial and Executive positions. Teachers scored the least among those who preferred to remain in their state of origin in the future.

Among those who indicated that they would prefer to work in the States other than their own, the professionals and technical staff scored the least. Responding to the question "if employed by the Federal Government I would prefer to work in any state in Nigeria", here again Secretarial and Executive seem positively motivated to migrate to another state if and when employed by the Federal Government. The least motivated were the

Table 4.2PREFERENCES FOR FUTURE EMPLOYMENT IN OWN STATE BY
OCCUPATIONS

	(N)	Not at all preference	Not very much like my prefe- rence	Somewhat like my preferen- ce	Very much like my preferen- ce
Administrative	164	18.9	22.4	21.9	34.3
Professional/ Technical	245	18.1	18.7	22.4	40.0
Secretarial/ Executive	236	19.4	18.8	25.6	35.0
Teaching	720	21.0	22.0	24.8	29.1

professional workers. And only about 40 per cent of the administrative and Teaching professionals ^{regarded} as ² Federal Government appointment as sufficient motivation to make them ~~work~~ in another state.

It is useful to look at the pattern of future employment preference in terms of major employers rather than major occupational groupings. The pattern is illustrated by Table 4.3. If we look at the column "very much like my preference". It would

Table 4.3

FUTURE EMPLOYMENT PREFERENCE BY TYPES OF MAJOR EMPLOYERS

I would prefer to live and work in My State of Origin

	(N)	Not at all my preference	Not very like my preference	Somewhat like my preference	Very much like my preference
Federal Ministry	450	32.6	28.4	24.2	13.7
State Ministry	394	14.2	16.2	23.4	45.5
Federal Corporation	59	21.8	22.6	15.8	37.6
State Corporation	85	18.9	13.9	22.1	42.6
Local Government	44	14.8	14.8	11.1	59.3
Private Firms	123	17.1	24.8	26.1	30.6
Education/Institution	212	22.8	22.3	24.4	29.4

Roll Totals may not add up to 100 percent because of rounding

be seen that close to about 60% of local Government employees in our sample ^{preferred} ~~to~~ to remain in their state of origin in the future. This ^{was} followed by the State Government and Corporations employees. This pattern should not be surprising because being almost entirely indigenes of the State, most of them were likely not to have worked elsewhere, hence the weight of local community ties ^{was} likely to be heavier on them.

The proportion of the Federal Civil Service working outside their state of origin and who ^{preferred} ~~to~~ future employment in their State of origin ^{was} much less than the proportion of those employed in the Federal Corporations and Industries. Other things being equal one would not expect much differences in their reaction to the question and indeed the reason for the disparity does not appear apparent. Perhaps a plausible explanation is that there ^{has been} ~~is~~ greater Inter-State, inter-ethnic conflict in the Federal Corporations than in the Federal Ministries. In the Federal Corporations and Industries it ^{usually} was frequently found that the Chief executives ~~surround~~ surround themselves with supporting staff from their respective ethnic groups. Consequently, a person who does not "belong" does not feel comfortable and has a sense of insecurity real or imagined. Consequently those that have either suffered or witnessed one form of discrimination, persecution, victimization etc., expressed the desire to seek future employment in their state of origin.

Again examining the future preference for Federal Government employment, only the present civil servants indicated higher prospect of future employment with the Federal Government - about 54 percent compared with about 10 and 5 percent for the State Government and the private sector employees respectively (Table 4.4). But what was even more interesting here ^{was} that close to 30 percent or more of those now Federally employed ^{did} not have future preference for the Federal Government as an employer. That those employed by the State Government and Corporations have little preference for employment with the Federal Government is understandable. State consciousness makes the State the first place of call. This is reinforced by the extreme competitiveness of employment opportunities in the Federal Public Service and in most cases the need for reflecting Federal Character. Most private sector employees do not hope to look for Federal Government employment now or in the future, presumably because wage levels and conditions of service in the private sector are generally higher than in the public sector.

When asked whether if they are employed by the Federal Government they would be prepared to work in any state, surprisingly as high as 34 of those responding Federal Civil Servants indicated their unwillingness.

Table 4.4

FUTURE EMPLOYMENT PREFERENCE FOR THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT
(I would prefer to work with the Federal Government)

	(N)	Not at all like my pre- ference	Not very like my preference	Somewhat like my preference	Very much like my preference
Federal Ministry	450	13.7	11.6	21.1	53.7
State Ministry	394	26.4	36.6	25.1	10.6
Federal Corporation	59	16.5	27.1	27.1	27.1
State Corporation	85	31.1	33.6	27.9	3.3
Local Government	42	33.3	18.5	22.2	25.9
Private Firm	123	47.7	31.1	15.3	4.5
Educational/ Institution	212	31.0	22.8	23.9	20.9

1365

Well over 35 percent indicated either "Not at all my preference" or "Not very much like my preference". Only an insignificant proportion indicated their willingness to service in any State. The ratio of those employees of the Federal Corporations who had earlier indicated their willingness to continue to work for the Federal Government fell from about 54 percent to 35 percent when confronted with the suggestion of working in another state. The implication here is that there are people now working with the Federal Corporations or Companies presumably located in their state of origin but who would resign their appointments rather than be redeployed by the Federal Government to work in another State. They have interest in working for the Federal Government as long as they remain in their respective State of origin.

Reacting to the statement of an unconditional preference for out-of-state employment - I would prefer to work in a State other than my own, employees of the local Government, State Ministry, State Corporations and surprising the Federal Ministry in that order rejected the statement. Approximately 77 percent of both the employees of local Government and the State Government described the statement as either "not at all my preferen

or "not very much like my preference".

We then ~~dichotomized~~ our respondents into movers and non-movers and analysed the ^{pattern} of their future employment preference, the non-movers indicated a higher degree of preference to remain in their State of Origin than the movers. Conversely movers ^{showed} _∟ a higher prospect that they might move to other places in a future date. Close to 70 and 50 percent of the non-movers and movers respectively indicated their future preference to remain in their state of origin. This can be compared with 30 and 50 per cent of the non-movers and movers who indicated that they ^{did} _∟ not have future preference for employment in their state of origin.

When confronted with a more direct question on working in another state - the statement was "I would prefer to work in a state other than my own in the future" a significant proportion of the movers and non-movers reacted negatively to the statement. Specifically about 67 and 74 percent of movers and non-movers indicated their unwillingness to prefer future employment in another state.

We again asked whether they would change their minds if they were employed by the Federal Government. The relative unwillingness declined slightly from 67 and 74 percent to 54 and 58 percent for movers and non-movers.

respectively. This implies that being employed by Federal Government slightly reduces the degree of unwillingness to work in another state.

The conclusions that one could make on the data presented above are as follows:

- (1) Most of our respondents would prefer to be employed in their state of origin in the future if they should have their way.
- (2) The professional manpower were the most reluctant group of workers to want to seek future employment in another state. In general, the Teachers and to some extent the administrative group of workers indicated some relative preference for future employment in another states.
- (3) In terms of major employers, the employees in the local Government, state ministries and state corporations, in that order, show relatively low preferences for future employment in other state and conversely relatively high preference for future employment in their own state of origin.
- (4) Employment by Federal Government is no panacea for relative reluctance of people to work in states other than theirs. It does encourage some to work in other states but the impact on the whole is very weak and insignificant.

4.2 PARENTS' STATE PREFERENCES FOR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION AND PLACE OF WORK

An indicator of people's attachment to their state of origin is their preference for the State in which they would like their children to go to school and work. The proposition is that those that have preference for future employment in their state of origin would also, other things being equal, want their children not only to go to school (including higher Institution of learning) but also to work in their State of origin. Similarly, those who are willing to work anywhere in the future are most likely to care less for the state in which their children go to school or work after leaving school.

From the data in Table 4.5 it is clear that most of our respondents ^{preferred} / that their children should have their (children) education in the State of origin of the parents but also that the children should work in the same state where they go to school. Slightly more people wanted their children to work in their state of origin. Implicitly some respondents would allow their children to go to school somewhere outside the State of origin but having acquired the education would want them back in their states of origin for employment. Approximately the same proportion of our respondents wanted their children

Table 4.5PARENTS STATE PREFERENCE FOR THEIR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION
AND PLACE OF WORK

	Work	(N)	Education	
In my state of origin	57.7	(733)	61.9	(822)
In another state in Nigeria	24.8	(328)	24.4	(333)
In another country	2.60	(35)	4.5	(8)
Anywhere of children's choice	14.9	(144)	9.2	(128)

to go to school and work in the states other than their own. The proportion of people who wanted their children to work in foreign countries was much lower. But the marked difference between the proportion that preferred future education of their children in foreign countries and those that preferred their children to work in foreign countries deserves some comments. Slightly more Nigerians want their children to receive education in another countries than the proportion who want their children to seek employment in foreign countries. That more people would want their children educated overseas is a pattern that has characterised the Nigerian elitist system of education since the colonial period. Although without a trend data it

is difficult to say whether this pattern has declined, is declining or has remained the same, what is apparent however is the fact that the phenomenon has persisted inspite of the remarkable expansions at the various levels of our educational system.

The reasons for the persistence of the phenomenon are difficult to speculate. However, these may not be unconnected with the increasing affluence among the Nigerian elites and the desire to provide the "best" education for their children. This desire has been reinforced by the increasing inadequacies of the educational institutions particularly at the post school certificate levels to provide adequate places for the yearning qualified Nigerians. Consequently most people (particularly qualified but locally inadmissible ones) still aspire to go overseas to continue their education. Additionally many of the Nigerian elites in their subconscious minds still believe that education obtained abroad is better than those received at home. To this category of people and because of their relative affluence, the desire to educate their children overseas will continue long into the future.

We regrouped the data into the various occupational categories with a view to noting whether the pattern will be different. The data (Table 4.6) confirmed the earlier finding that preference for future employment in the state of origin

Table 4.6

PARENT'S STATE PREFERENCE FOR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION AND WORK PLACE
BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPINGS

	EDUCATION				WORK			
	In my own State	In another State	In another Country	Any where of Children's Choice	In my own State	In another State	In another Country	Any where of the Children's Choice
35								
Administrative	50.7	29.4	3.5	7.0	52.2	28.4	3.5	7.0
Professional/ Technical	54.8	24.6	2.7	9.0	58.5	25.1	5.1	7.6
Secretarial/ Executive	58.8	23.8	2.5	8.8	63.8	24.4	2.5	6.9
Teaching	51.5	22.3	2.0	14.7	55.8	22.3	4.7	12.4

was significantly high and that the proportion of those who wanted employment for their children in their state of origin again exceeded the proportion of those who preferred that their children should go to school in their state of origin. In occupational terms the dominance of the state of origin was greatest in the secretarial and executive class with about 59 and 64 percent preferring that their children should go to school and work respectively in their State of origin.

The administrative class appeared to be most open-minded with regard to the places where their children should go to school or work. About 29 percent indicated their preference that the children should go to school and work in the States other than their states of origin. This can be compared with about 26 and 22 percent for the professionals and teachers respectively. But with regard to allowing the children to exercise their freedom of choice of where to work the teachers appear to be the most open minded. Across the board the analysis showed that people seem to be less restrictive with regard to education than with regard to work place.

In terms of movers and non-movers, the attachment to State of origin ^{appeared} stronger again among the non-movers preferring that their children should receive education and work respectively in their (parents) State of origin (Table 4.7). This was far greater than about 48 and 53 percent of the movers who indicated the same preference. The proportion indicating preference for

Table 4.7

THE CLASSIFICATION OF STATE PREFERENCE FOR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION BY
MOVERS/NON-MOVERS AND PLACE OF PREFERENCE

	In my State of Origin	In another State	In another Country	Anywhere of Children's Choice	In my state of Origin	In another State	In another Country	Anywhere of Child- ren's Choice
Movers	47.7	27.9	3.1	11.0	52.6	28.8	4.7	9.4
Non-Movers	63.1	18.4	1.9	9.6	66.5	17.8	4.3	8.6

"other states" remained at about the same level for the movers in respect of education and of place of work. This was also true for the non-movers. The proportions^s were about 28 and 29 percent for movers and 18 percent for non-movers for education and work respectively.

On a more comparative basis there appeared to be some differences among movers and non-movers with regard to their preference concerning their influence on the choice of the State where their children should work and/or go to school. Movers appeared to be slightly less restrictive than non-movers. This was reflected by a slightly higher proportion among the movers who indicated they would accept any place chosen by their children either to go to school or to work. However, both movers and non-movers appeared to show equal permissiveness with regard to the choice of places where their children should work. A larger proportion of both movers and non-movers would prefer their children to go to school in the places of their (children's) choice than go to work. In other words, parents prefer a slightly greater control in deciding where their children should work than where they should go to school.

4.3 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The need for a good knowledge about pattern of future mobility is predicated upon the need for making reliable

projections about future manpower supply and demand. Such a knowledge is inevitable if the economy is to be provided with adequate executive capacity now and in the future. One of the major inputs into the manpower projections is the geographic flow of human resources. Since most of Nigerian Planning Programmes have always been on the basis of State, it is essential that we have the knowledge of how skilled manpower move from one State to the other so as to take into account, such movement in our manpower planning programmes.

In this chapter we have found that most of the skilled Nigerian workers preferred to work in their state of origin in the future as it has been in the past including those now employed by the Federal Government. In occupational terms professional and technical personnel were more restrictive in terms of the larger proportion of them planning to work in their state of origin in the future. By classifying people into major employers we found that local government employees had the strongest desire for future employment in their states of origin. Similarly, more of the Federal Government workers in the Federal Corporations and Companies showed greater preference for employment in states of origin than the Federal Civil Servants.

Surprisingly, we found that being employed by the Federal Government did not appear to have significant motivational effect on workers to wish to work in the States other than their own. And in terms of movers and non-movers, (i.e. mobile and non-mobile) both indicated their unwillingness to work in another States in the future.

The strong preference for future employment in the States of origin was supported by the preference that their children should both go to school and seek employments in their respective State of origin although with partial differential as between mobile and non-mobile, occupational groupings, major employers and so on.

The finding that most skilled Nigerians preferred to work in their state of origin now or in the future was in agreement with earlier studies. In the study of "Employment Aspiration and Prospects of Nigerian University Undergraduates and Graduates, Ojo (1976), found that about 60 percent of all respondents preferred to work in their state of origin. The finding again supported the earlier reports. Ojo (1977) in his conclusion stated: "There appears a natural tendency for the Universities to recruit most of their students from their (Universities) immediate geographical and ethnic environment". And Aderinto⁵(1976) a survey of undergraduate admissions pattern in Nigeria reported an over-whelming drawing power of the various universities

on the applicants located in the same states in which the various Universities were located.

Summed together, our findings revealed that the restricted Inter-State labour mobility which had characterized the Nigerian economy as we have discussed in the earlier chapters should be expected to continue in the future. What was more surprising was the finding that being employed by the Federal Government did not appear to provide any solution to this phenomenon. Since free and easy flow of skilled manpower among the States of the Federation has become not only a constitutional requirement but more importantly, an engine of growth, designed to ensure balanced development, it becomes necessary and indeed compelling that appropriate strategies must be developed and promoted. Such strategies must not only be beneficial but also acceptable to the giving and the receiving states. Only strategies which are mutually beneficial will be able to overcome the political rancour and sensation that now surround the employment of high level Nigerian personnel in States other than their own. Such strategies will be the focus of the concluding chapter of this thesis.

CHAPTER FIVE

MULTI-VARIATE ANALYSIS OF DETERMINANTS OF INTER-STATE LABOUR MOBILITY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters efforts have been made to describe the pattern of Inter-State Labour Mobility in Nigeria on the basis of Socio-economic characteristics of the migrants. We have also identified some of the important factors that have influenced the extent and pattern of such movements. In this chapter, we will attempt to measure, in more quantitative terms, the impact of some of the variables that have been discussed above. This will take the form of a series of linear multiple regressions that incorporate the basic relationships. First, we will examine the Zipf's hypothesis, then we will run a regression to estimate the parameter for each independent variable. Finally a regression will be run for each of the six selected States using gross migration in each case.

In this analysis we restrict ourselves to multiple regression models, rather than other more sophisticated statistical techniques primarily because of our relatively weak data base. The apparent weak data base does not justify the application of more rigorous statistical techniques. Perhaps similar problems explained why most

of the earlier quantitative studies of the determinants of inter-state migration have adopted regression techniques rather than more sophisticated statistical techniques (Levy and Wadycki 1973; Greenwood 1969a; Falaris, 1976; Sahota, 1968). It is in order to examine some of the models that have been applied in various countries. Such an exercise will provide some support for the application of simple statistical techniques as well as a useful guide for the treatment of some of the variables that are usually included in the international migration models.

5.2 SOME EXAMPLES OF THE APPLICATIONS OF REGRESSION MODELS TO INTER-STATE MIGRATION

Levy and Wadycki using the 1961 population census of Venezuela regressed the number of males over 15 years of age who moved from state i to state j in the proceeding year on a number of variables. The model was given thus:-

$$M_{ij} = g(D_{ij}, P_i, Y_i, Y_j, E_i, E_j, U_i, U_j, MS_{ij}, \text{random errors})$$

Where

M_{ij} = the number of males over 15 years of age who moved from state i to state j in the year preceeding 1961 census date.

- D_{ij} = road distance in kilometers between capital cities in states i and j .
 P_i = male population residing in state i in 1961
 P_j = average monthly wage (in Bolivia) of males over 10 years of age in state i in 1961
 E_i = percent of males over 10 years of age in state i who were literate in 1961
 U_i = percent of total population residing in state i who lived in urban areas (towns of 2500 or more) in 1961
 MS_{ij} = number of males age 15 and over who were born in state i and had been living in state j for more than one year prior to the 1961 census.

Three major differences can be observed between Levy and Wadycki's study and the present study even though both studies used strikingly similar models. First the Levy and Wadycki's data were based on census, the current study has been based on survey data. Secondly Levy and Wadycki's study was restricted to movement within the one year of census, whereas the current study focussed on persons born in state i and surveyed in state j without any restriction as to whether the movement occurred within one year of survey or not. And finally our study was focused on the

movement of skilled workers whereas Wadycki's study was focused on all sorts of people 10 years and over.

Another study which used similar model was the one by Falaris. Falaris's (1976) like Levy and Wadycki used the 1961 census for Peru. The determinants of migration were studied using regression analysis. His migration model was presented thus!

$$M = (D_{ij}, W_j, W_i, E_m, E_i, Emp_j, Empl_i, U)$$

Where M = some index expressing the outcome of the comparison of maximum utilities at alternative locational (the individual can be assumed to migrate to the location which compared to his origin, yields the highest m).

$W_{j,i}$ = wages at destination (J) and origin (i)

E_m = educational attainment of migrant

$E_{j,i}$ = education levels of population;

$Empl_{j,i}$ = employment rates

D_{ij} = distance between i and j and

U = random factors.

Falaris, like Todaro (1976, 1979) specifically included employment variables and wage rates. With regards to employment variables to the Nigerian study there were no

reliable data on both trends and patterns of unemployment and hence could not be included in our model. As for wage levels, the average incomes were calculated from the information contained in our questionnaires-information provided by the respondents themselves. For a number of reasons, this information must be interpreted with a great deal of cautions.

One other interesting study of inter-state migration and one which has used similar methodology is the study by Sahota (1968). His study was also based on census data. Unlike the earlier studies but like the current study it was a snapshot of the level at a point in time rather than a flow measure. His complete migration function was give as -

$$M_{ij} = M(R_{ij}, C_{ij}) = M(W_j, W_i, E_j, E_i, g_j, g_i, D_{ij}, \dots)$$

where M_{ij} = absolute number of migrants from region i to region j

W_i, W_j = wage rate per production workers in region i, and region j

E_i, E_j = percentage of educated people in the age group 15 - 29 years in region i, region j.

g_i, g_j = two-years rate of growth of the state per capital income 1949-51 in region i, region j.

D_{ij} = Geographic distance in kilometers from the capital city of region i .

Basic differences between Sahota's study of Brazil and our study are:-

- (i) Sahota was mainly interested in differential mobility between the young migrants 15 - 29 and the old migrant 30 - 59 years. In our own case our interest has been to determine the major factors that account for movement between the states within the framework of high level manpower.
- (ii) Secondly Sahota's analysis was based on current census data. In the case of this study, the analysis has been based on a sample survey. Accurate and reliable census data were not available.

The three studies discussed above are only few examples of studies that have utilised regression models in the determination of factors responsible for inter-state migration particularly in the less developed countries. A synthesis of the models shows that there are significant similarities between them. All of them for example used regression models and all of them included distance and wage variables, while most of them included education variable. There are however significant

differences in the inclusion or exclusion of some of the independent variables. For example only Falaris included employment variables while the growth rate of per capita income was included by Sahota only. There **are** also differences in the specification of education variable.

The model used in this chapter is similar in most respects to other models mentioned above. It is however significantly unique in at least one respect - apart from including most of the important explanatory variables used by them it includes additional variables such as marital status, number of children, landed property etc., with the hope that their inclusion will provide a better predictive model than the earlier studies.

5.3 THE LEAST SQUARE REGRESSION MODEL

$$M_{ij} = M(R_{ij}, \bullet_{ij}) = M(W_j, W_i, D_{ij}, E_i, E_j, A_{ij}, S_j, R_j, N_j, P_{oi}, P_{oj}, L_j, U)$$

which can be written explicitly as

$$\begin{aligned} M_{ij} = & (\beta_0 + \beta_1 W_i + \beta_2 W_j + \beta_3 D_{ij} + \beta_4 E_i \\ & + \beta_5 E_j + \beta_6 A_{ij} + \beta_7 S_j + \beta_8 R_j + \beta_9 N_j \\ & + \beta_{10} P_{oj} + \beta_{11} P_{oi} + \beta_{12} L_i + U) \end{aligned}$$

- M_{ij} = Absolute number of migrants born in state i and working in state j .
- W_i, W_j = Average income per worker in destination j and origin i (derived by dividing total income by total recipients).
- D_{ij} = Geographic distance (in kilometers) from capital city of state i to capital city of state j .
- E_i, E_j = Mean number of years of school completed by respondents of states i and j (20 years of age and over).
- A_{ij} = Age group i of individual j (below 20 is omitted). (20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50 and above recode).
- S_i = Sex of individual i
- R_i = State of origin of individual i (foreigners omitted)
- M_j = Marital status of individual
- C_{ij} = Number of children of individual born in state i residing in state j .
- P_{oi}, P_{oj} = Estimated population of state i and state j .
- L_i = Landed property e.g., ownership of house.
- U = Random Factors.

$\frac{dM}{dw_j} > 0$ = High wages at destination state increase migration

$\frac{dM}{dw_i} < 0$ = The higher the wages at origin the less likely a person will be to migrate from it. Of course, the higher the wages, the easier it is to finance migration. A positive sign in the empirical result will imply greater ability to finance migration thus the deterrent effect of origin wages.

$\frac{dM}{dE_j} \gtrless 0$ = This sign is ambiguous. A variety of competing hypotheses can be presented to explain the role of destination education in the decision to migrate. E_j can be a correction of the wage variable: An increase in E_j holding W_j constant implies a reduction in real wages relative to skill levels. This would lead us to predict a negative sign. E_j could also be a proxy for non-wage amenities, implying a positive sign. Finally, high E_j may constitute unwelcome competition for migrants who have low educational attainment and hence repel them (i.e., negative sign).

$\frac{dM}{dE_i} \geq 0$ = This sign is ambiguous due to a variety of effects producing opposite influences. An index of educational attainment at origin may be a proxy for education the migrant himself, has, assuming, migrants have educational attainment equal to the average of their origin. A high E_i encourages migration. The more educated the more one can use information about opportunities in other locations. Similarly the more educated the migrant, the easier it is for him to compete with residents of the destination state for jobs. Conversely in so far as E_i represents social and cultural amenities at the origin state it will discourage migration as it get larger.

$\frac{dM}{dD_{ij}} < 0$ = Distance is a proxy for direct, opportunity and psychic costs so it will discourage migration as it increases.

$\frac{dM}{dA_{ij}} < 0$ = Advance in age at both the destination and origin state will tend to discourage migration.

$\frac{dM}{dC_{ij}} < 0$ = Increasing number of children in a family will discourage migration, since large number of children directly increases both the monetary and the psychic cost of migration.

$\frac{dM}{dP_{oi}} < 0$ = Rapid urbanisation of origin state is likely to reduce migration. Urbanisation tends to go hand in hand with increased economic and non-economic opportunities.

$\frac{dM}{dP_{oj}} > 0$ = Increasing urbanisation in the destination state tends to accelerate the **rate** of immigration as a result of rapid increases in the economic and non-economic opportunities.

5.4 REGRESSION RESULTS

5.4.1 ZIPF'S FORMULATION

In testing Zipf's hypothesis the following function was fitted.

$$M_{ij} = M (D_{ij}, P_{oi}, P_{oj})$$

Where M_{ij} is the number of inter-state migrants between state i and j ; D_{ij} is the distance (in kilometer) between state i and state j ; P_{oi} is the estimated population of state i ; while the P_{oj} is the estimate population of the j th state. The result is shown on Table 5.1.

All together, the three independent variables in the Zipf's formulation explained 43 per cent of the variations as against 57 percent produced by Tarver and Mcleod (1973) Table 5.1 below indicates the order of the relative importance of each of the three variables. The higher proportion of

TABLE 5.1ZIPF'S REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS

D_{ij}	- .549 (7.5)
P_{oj}	.307 (4.6)
P_{oi}	- .151 (3.7)
R^2	0.453 (3.6)

t value in parentheses.

variance explained by Tarver & Mcleod seemed to suggest that Zipf's model has a higher predictive ability in estimating migration stream for the developed than for the less developed countries.

5.4.2. EXPANDED FORMULATIONS

In an attempt to improve the explanatory power of Zipf's hypotheses we added other additional variables as contained in our least square regression model. First we obtained a matrix of correlation among the variables (Table 5.2). The matrix showed a disturbingly high multi-collinearity among many of the variables. They may result in large standard error (low degree of precision) of the coefficients and it

TABLE 5.2

PEARSON CORRELATION MATRIX OF SOME SELECTED VARIABLES

	Age	Number of Children	Income	Landed Property	Education
Age	1.0	0.4	+0.5	0.6	-0.3
Number of Children	0.4	1.0	-0.2	-0.4	0.2
Income	0.5	0.4	1.0	0.6	0.7
Landed Property	0.6	-0.4	0.6	1.0	-0.3
Education	-0.3	0.2	0.7	-0.3	1.0

may be necessary therefore that in interpreting the coefficients such damaging effect of multi-collinearity must be kept in mind.

Table 5.3 shows the regression coefficients using the expanded formulation. A breakdown of the national result is provided by Table 5.3 below where the data from the states have been combined. The results for the individual states

TABLE 5.3
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS

Variable	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Value
D_{ij}	-0.529**	0.038	13.3
E_i	-0.517**	0.023	12.4
E_j	0.321**	1.59	4.9
W_i	-0.028**	0.026	7.8
W_j	0.123**	0.48	3.7
C_{ij}	-0.103	0.065	1.5
A_{ij}	-0.018**	0.002	9.0
S_i	0.016	0.011	1.4
N_i	0.029	0.027	1.0
P_{oi}	-0.144*	0.056	2.3
P_{oj}	0.299**	0.048	6.2
R^2	0.721**	0.039	3.9

Note: ** is significant at 1% level

* is significant at 5% level

are presented later in Table 5.4.

DISTANCE: The distance coefficient (D_{ij}) was significantly different from zero at the conventional levels and has the right and predicted signs. Distance (D_{ij} , came out with a negative coefficient signifying that it was a definite deterrent to migration. This result suggested that either the transportation costs or the non-economic variables for which distance is a proxy such as the psychological costs associated with moving away from one's family or friends or both ^{acted} as impediments to migration. This was consistent with our expectation and also consistent with most of the earlier studies. For Sahota (1968) Levy and Wadycki (1961) Falaris (1976) distance coefficients were negative and highly significant.

INCOME: The parameter of income variable for destination state (W_j) was positive and significant while that of origin state (W_i) was negative. Both coefficients were significant at 1 percent level. This suggested that higher income at origin state i discouraged workers from moving out, while at the same time higher income at destination state j encouraged migrants from other states. The pulling effect of destination income on migrants can be interpreted as the pull effect of either greater economic opportunities or higher employments prospects. The lower coefficients for education

could have been caused by a strong collinearity between education and wage rate.

EDUCATION: In the regression, the parameter of origin education (E_i) variable ~~was~~ negative and significant at less than one percent level suggesting that higher level of education at the origin state discouraged people from moving to another state. When an individual's level of education increases, other factors which are important to his decision to migrate are affected. More education may, for example, result in better employment and income opportunities in the state of origin as well as outside the state. Although the indirect effect of increased education cannot be easily measured but as it has been stated earlier, their net effects may be sufficient to cause better educated persons to remain at home. This conclusion is reasonable in view of the acute shortages of skilled and educated persons everywhere in Nigeria, consequently the best educated persons easily secure good jobs in their home states.

The parameter estimate of the destination education variable (E_j) ~~was~~ positive and significant at 1 percent level. This finding ~~was~~ not surprising since, in view of our finding that destination wage (W_j) ~~was~~ also positive and significant. Thus income and education at the destination state served as pulling factors. In our correlation analysis,

education and income ~~were~~ highly correlated. Since a priori consideration suggests no strong reason to suppose that the relationship between mobility (M_{ij}) and destination education (E_j) should be in one direction or another, the result obtained may not be especially surprising.

SEX, MARITAL STATUS AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN

The estimates for sex (S_i) and marital status (N_i) showed positive signs but they were both not significant at 5 percent level suggesting that whether a person is married or not married or whether he is female or male has no significant influence on the mobility of the skilled workers. This finding, though unexpected can be justified on a deeper reflection. The respondents were mainly experienced workers who could be assumed to be married. Once married, wives tend to move with their husbands hence we could not ordinarily expect the influence of whether married or not married to be high. Even though the opinions of wives could, in most cases, have been sought, such impact is usually silent on the actual mobility.

Similarly the relationship between number of children (C_{ij}) and mobility has correct and negative sign. The relationship was however not statistically significant at 1 percent level. The implication here ^{was} that although the relationship ~~was~~ negative, the number of children has not

played any significant influence on the rate of inter-state mobility in Nigeria. This finding was inconsistent with existing knowledge which expresses 'significant negative relationship between the number of children a family has and the probability of migrating. Two reasons, among others, could be advanced to explain the relatively insignificant role played by the number of children in explaining interstate migration.

First, one of the reasons usually reported for the negative relationship between migration and number of children is the cost of migration - the more the number of children, *ceteris paribus*, the higher the cost of moving. This also explains largely the relationship between distance and mobility. As we explained earlier, the relationship between distance and mobility was negative and highly, significant. It may well be that the high distance coefficient has somehow reduced the coefficient for number of children.

Secondly, our respondents were made up of highly educated and experienced workers. For this category of workers, it is natural to expect that when they move, their new employers will pay the costs of such movements. This is a reasonable assumption to make in view of various employment policies in Nigeria. In most cases employers also provide residential accommodation. Under this situation, it is not

unrealistic to expect that the effect of number of children on mobility (involving largely costs) could be slight or insignificant.

URBANIZATION: Two variants of urbanization have been used. These were population of the origin state, P_{oi} ; and Population of destination state P_{oj} . Our regression coefficients indicate that $P_{oi} < 0$ while $P_{oj} > 0$ implying that rapid urbanization at the origin state, ceteris paribus, discouraged migration while the destination urbanization (P_{oj}) pulled migrants from other states. Since rapid urbanization is often accompanied by substantial increases in economic and non-economic opportunities it is rational that rapid urbanization at origin state reduces the number of out-migrants hence the negative relationship. On the other hand rapid urbanization at the destination state not only discourages people for moving out but also and more importantly encourages people to move in as a result of greater economic and non-economic opportunities. This finding is in agreement with those of Herrick (1965) for Chile and Tarver and Mcleod (1973). Herrick found that the bigger the city the stronger the pull of migrants from other smaller cities. Tarver and Mcleod found that in their test of Zipf's hypothesis, destination population was a more important factor in accounting for inter-state migration.

Table 5.4 showed the regression coefficients by states. The distance coefficients were again consistently negative and significant at 1 percent level for all the six sampled states. This result clearly supported our expectation as to the role of distance in explaining interstate migration in Nigeria. As regards destination education (E_j) the migration coefficients were positive and significant implying that higher levels of education at destination states attracted migration, although the force of attraction varied from state to state. The origin education was however negative indicating that high level education at the state of origin discouraged migration from one state to another. All the origin wage levels (W_i) were negative and significant while the destination wage levels were positive. This **unplied** that, though origin wage levels discouraged migration high wage level at the destination state attracted migrants. The signs of the age coefficients were negative indicating that advanced age hindered migration to other states.

Table 5.5 showed the regression coefficients by some age categories. The results obtained gave strong support to the hypotheses advanced as to the role of destination income, education and distance in the allocation of out-migrants between our selected states. Destination income

TABLE 5.4REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS BY STATES

	Bendel	Cross Rivers	Kano	Lagos	Plateau	Sokoto
1. D_{ij}	-1.07** (4.8)	-1.27** (6.7)	-1.22** (5.2)	-1.35** (3.6)	-1.15** (3.2)	-1.16** (2.4)
2. W_i	-0.92* (1.8)	-1.61* (1.7)	-0.49** (3.9)	-0.57** (4.5)	-0.63* (1.8)	-12.46 (1.3)
3. W_j	-0.49** (2.5)	-0.01** (3.7)	0.27** (2.8)	0.36** (9.8)	0.92** (2.6)	0.83* (1.6)
4. E_i	-0.37 (1.2)	-0.65 (1.3)	-1.22** (3.8)	0.95 (1.2)	-0.23* (1.9)	-0.35* (2.3)
5. E_j	0.94** (3.2)	1.56** (3.3)	1.04** (6.7)	1.07** (5.6)	0.16** (2.8)	0.53* (1.9)
6. A_{ij}	-0.52* (1.6)	-0.72** (2.8)	-0.63** (2.9)	-0.27** (3.1)	-0.38** (9.8)	-0.27* (2.2)
7. C_{ij}	- .05* (1.5)	0.11** (2.9)	0.33** (3.7)	-3.56** (2.6)	0.25** (2.5)	0.17** (2.7)
R^2	0.56	0.54	0.67	0.72	0.67	0.57

Note: t-Value in Parentheses.

** Significant at 1 percent level

* Significant at 5 percent level

TABLE 5.5

REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS BY AGE COHORTS

Migration Age Group	Intercept	W_i	W_j	E_i	E_j	D_{ij}	R^2
20 to 24 years	-35.676 (-1.656)	-0.027 (0.036)	0.234** (3.054)	-0.236 (0.305)	0.987 (0.177)	-0.546** (2.966)	0.357
25 to 44 years	-29.813* (1.802)	-0.593)* (3.706)	0.809* (1.706)	-0.053 (0.149)	0.719* (2.007)	-0.473** (3.350)	0.414
45 to 64 years	-37.575* (1.386)	-1.019 (0.540)	0.198** (2.753)	-0.292 (0.676)	0.641 (1.487)	-0.602** (3.537)	0.319
20 to 64 years	-0.625** (3.425)	-0.725* (1.825)	0.749** (2.814)	0.583 (1.336)	0.822** (3.653)	0.813** (3.665)	0.567

t - value in parenthesis

Notes: ** Coefficient is significant at 5% level

* Coefficient is significant at 1% level

and distance were consistently significant at either one percent or five percent level and took the expected sign for all the six states across the three main age cohorts. The attenuating effect of migration elasticity with respect to distance was negatively correlated with age cohort reaching a maximum for migrants in the 45-64 years group. The elasticity of migration with respect to destination income (W_j) was greatest for age group 25 to 44 and least for those 45 to 64 years. The full interpretation of the age-specific impact of earned income was obscured, however, by the absence of the age-specific earnings data for each state. However it could be observed that the individual coefficients for destination income and education fell with advancement in age. A propabable interpretation for this phenomenon was that the "younger" age group migrants were definitely more sensitive to wage differentials than the older migrants. Origin income (W_i) although has the correct sign did not seem to have differential effect on the three age groups. The differential is not significantly different from zero in any of the regressions. Our find is consistant with Falarits (1976) results.

5.5 CONCLUSIONS

The primary purpose of this chapter has been to estimate in a quantitative manner the contribution of several factors

to the determination of inter-state mobility in Nigeria. We started off with the application of Zipf's population-distance hypothesis to our data. Subsequently we tried to see whether some improvements could be made by adding additional variables.

We found that using the basic Zipf's hypothesis the model explained only 45 per cent of the variation in the inter-state mobility in Nigeria. This result was less satisfactory than, and compared badly with the 68 percent reported for the United States of America for the 1955-60 period (Tarver and Mcleod, 1973). The addition of Several other variables substantially increased the explained variance from 45 percent to 72 percent.

In terms of the contribution of individual variable to the explained variance, we found that given a level of economic activity for the economy as a whole the most important factor affecting the pattern of migration turned out to be distance, followed closely by origin education although in a negative version. Looking across the different states, we observed that destination wages (W_j) and education (E_j) offered very strong attractions to migrants. A positive sign for E_j may mean that migration occurs from state i to state j because of high educational levels in state j . The effects of marital status and number

of children on inter-state mobility ^{were} insignificant although in a predicted direction. It must be kept in mind however that variables measured at a point in time may be poor proxies for the values relevant for decision of the older migrating groups. Consequently the above statement should be qualified accordingly.

Similarly even though those results compare favourably with those reported by other authors, inter-state migration studies for Nigeria are still in their infancy. One important limitation is the failure to identify migrants by their migratory experience. There are many others. In such a poor data regime it is infact surprising that our results are as useful as they are. Quite clearly considerably more work needs to be done before we can hope to come to grips with the analysis of determinants of inter-state mobility of labour in Nigeria.

CHAPTER SIX

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 AN OVERVIEW

Increasing concern for an increased inter-state mobility of high level manpower in Nigeria rests substantially on the need for ensuring balanced growth and development among the component states of the Federation. This concern has been on the increase since Nigeria's independence in 1960. Since then succeeding governments have persistently placed a high premium on free flow of scarce human resources as a way of ensuring even development throughout the country. The various National Development Plans (1970-74, 1975-1980 and 1981-85) discussed the problems associated with free flow of skilled human resources and emphasised the need for free mobility of labour among the states.

In part, one main reason for selecting mobility of highlevel manpower for particular attention is that it has been curiously neglected as a subject of empirical research. Many writers and commentaries have pointed to the need for optimal utilization of our limited manpower

resources and have hypothesized about the causes of the limited mobility but little empirical work has been done on the subject-matter. This neglect seems unjustified in the light of the importance, particularly in the emerging political economy of Nigeria, of even development throughout the whole economy. This study was undertaken to provide quantitative information about the pattern and trends of inter-state labour mobility with a view to making suggestions for its promotion. The patterns were assessed and the trends in terms of future mobility intensions were explored. Critical factors which hindered or facilitated inter-state mobility were identified.

Substantively we found that distance has played a significant role in discouraging migration for one state to the other. The farther away the states to themselves the less the probability of migration between them. This finding was supported by the fact that migration rates were higher between contiguous states^s than between distant states. Thus to a large extent Zifp's emphasis on distance is supported though the amount of variance explained by his model was rather low signifying that there must be other variables which significantly influence^d inter-state migration.

One other significant factor that influenced migration was education. Higher level of education at the destination

states facilitated migration while higher level of education at the origin states hindered migration. We found that high education states were also high income states consequently the combined effects of high education and high income at the destination states provided significant "Pull" effect on the prospective migrants. This finding was consistent with the earlier studies which placed emphasis on the aggregate economic levels as the primary determinant of inter-state migration (Bowels, 1970; Comelu, 1970; Todaro, 1969).

From the more general descriptive statistics, we found that in general, the most important reason for movement into another state has been "to take up employment". This finding was consistent with the findings of previous studies. Existence of job opportunities provided attraction (the pull factor) to potential migrants to leave the home state to take up employment in another state. Consequently, if we measure employment opportunities by differential labour demand among the states in the Federation, we will expect that there would be greater employment opportunities among the newer States that were recently created, since they would have to develop their administrative manpower capacity from the scratch. If this proposition was

valid, we expected (other things being equal) a higher flow of high-level manpower from the older states (which invariably have greater supplies of labour) to newer ones.

Second in importance among the factors influencing inter-state labour mobility was "to further formal education". This supported the findings of earlier studies regarding the desire to further education by the rural-urban as well as urban-urban mobility of workers, (Yesufu, 1971; Fapohunda, Sada and Adegboola, 1979). Apparently mobility occurs in two stages. First, people move to other States for further education, e.g. attendance at Universities, polytechnics, colleges of technology or even teacher training colleges, and secondly, after graduation decide to remain in the state and take up appointment.

But perhaps what ^{was} most significant in the study was the finding that more or less contradicted conventional wisdom as to the factors that influence mobility. Many writers on African mobility reported significant influence of non-economic factors in mobility decision. Such factors included the need to get away from marital problems and extended family system. Our findings showed that such non-economic factors exercised very low influence in

"pushing" skilled people to work in states other than their own.

Explanation for this lack of agreement with the expectation can be found in the fact that this study dealt with urban-urban labour mobility rather than rural-urban and with special sub-group of the population - the skilled manpower. The difference lied in the fact that the respondents were already urban dwellers. They may have, to some extent, been insulated from the family system as compared with rural dwellers who still have stronger traditional ties to their villages. The skilled, high level manpower, having been disentangled from the grip of traditional hold through increased education are now being more influenced primarily by economic related factors in their decision to work in other states.

For the non-mobile workers, one was interested in knowing the factors that influenced their continued stay in their respective States of origin. This information is crucial ^{for} the designing of incentives for motivating them. Out of the sixteen factors that were a priori identified the two most frequently mentioned were:-

- (i) Family obligation; to take care of aged parents.
- (ii) Desire to be near home to get certain things done.

These two factors are largely non-economic factors. It is important to observe the relatively low scores attributable to good job opportunities, feelings of insecurity and expected future income (Table 3.2). Rather than experiencing a high degree of push factors at home, we observed a high social attachment index reflected by high degree of desire to be at home. Political insecurity quite contrary to expectation was not identified as an important factor.

Mobility among the Professional and Technical Workers was considerably lower than for the other categories even though they generally earned more than other categories of workers. The proposition associating higher mobility rate with higher income therefore did not appear to hold for professional workers in Nigeria.

This contradiction, occurs because there is relatively short supply of this type of professional manpower in almost of all the States, consequently professionals would not need to make Inter-State moves, with all its antecedent costs, to attract satisfactory compensation. However, we observed some mobility differentials as between self-employed and salaried professionals. Self-employed professionals by reasons of heavier capital investment and stronger attachment to clienteles were

characterised by lower inter-state mobility. They also had lower distance mobility rate than the salaried professionals.

Analysis based on private-public sector dichotomy showed that inter-state mobility rates were higher for the private sector workers than for public servants. This phenomenon has been ascribed to the relatively more secured employment status in the public sector. We also found that when the professionals both in the private and the public sectors made inter-state change of location they generally remained in their profession.

An examination of the future mobility intensions of the workers showed that the observed pattern of restricted inter-state labour mobility will persists in the future. The general reluctance and unwillingness to work in another state should be expected to continue in the future.

6.2 IMPLICATIONS

All the above factors combined have tended to reduce the required free flow of skilled manpower among the States thus worsening the past and current disparities in the social and economic development of the states.

Since one of the national objectives has been the achievement and maintenance of a strong united (integrated)

country and that one way of ensuring this objective is the promotion of even development, the government policy should favour measures aimed at ensuring balanced regional development. To ensure balanced development, resources whether physical or human should be able to flow from areas where their marginal contribution is lower (developed ^{area}) to areas where their marginal contribution is higher (less developed states). This policy will not only ensure a higher national productivity but will also ensure that no State is unduly handicapped in its plan implementation by shortages of essential high-level manpower. This is one of the best ways of utilizing the existing stock of manpower resources both optimally and for ensuring an integrated nation.

From the existing records and published literature on Nigeria's manpower resources (even though existing data leave much to be desired) one can conclude that voluntary inter-state flow of Nigerian high level manpower has been extremely restricted with the exception of Lagos which perhaps because of its being the Federal Capital has a high concentration of skilled manpower from other states particularly the contiguous states and Federal Public Servants recruited from other states. Many factors have been responsible for the apparent failure of the classical labour model to distribute skilled labour

according to expected marginal productivity.

First, some writers have attempted to develop a model to predict the situation of relatively low mobility rate among the highly-skilled workers. According to their proposition, those workers who are relatively worse off with respect to other workers in the economy are likely to have greater incentive to migrate to other States to alleviate their perceived relatively poor conditions in their states of origin. Their perceived poverty gives them a greater desire to migrate compared to the relatively more comfortable status quo of the elites of the economy. This naturally results in the unskilled workers having the greatest desire to migrate because their relative economic position will also be improved considerably. Consequently, the expected Inter-State migration stream would consist of predominantly unskilled and semi-skilled workers although it is expected that some skilled workers might also migrate in response to absolute differentials in earnings.

On the other hand, the push factors, operating on the high-level manpower, are negligible. Comparatively the non-economic benefits enjoyed by the highly educated and skilled elites of the State are often sufficient to compensate for the difference in absolute income resulting

from Inter-State migration, and hence retard the movement of significant number of skilled personnel. Factors such as social status, local politics, ownership of properties, family and friendship, all operate to reduce the incentive of the elites to migrate to other unknown perhaps hostile States. This proposition is substantiated by Nigerian experience.

But apart from the basic economic rationalization, the labour market structure for the skilled manpower has been seriously influenced by major institutional factors. The institutional factors included the practice of state Government's refusal to employ qualified persons of non-state origin on regular terms with the State indigenes. Judging from the extreme State consciousness of most of the state governments and the pervasiveness of mutual distrust among the Nigerian ethnic population, the preference of State indigenes over and above non-State indigenes cannot be easily dismissed. Quite rightly, it is natural to want to put the state indigenes at the critical decision making positions for fear of sabotage by non-state indigenes. In fact, this could be regarded as indigenization applied at the state level. No one quarrels with this position. The practice of offering contractual employment to out-of-State persons has been

defended on similar ground. That is, in case there are no well qualified State indigenes, non-State indigenes would be appointed from time to time on contract basis to make provisions for their eventual replacement at a future time when qualified State indigenes are available.

This practice has had its cost. For one thing only young graduates experiencing difficulties of securing appropriate employment in their states are likely to offer themselves for such employment. Older workers, who perhaps have retired from one employment but are still strong enough also may take advantage of temporary contract appointments. Young, experienced and highly qualified personnel are most unlikely to abandon permanent employments for contract ones, hence would not be expected to be willing to work in the states other than their own.

The unattractive employment practice has been compounded by sheer unwillingness of many Nigerians to work in the States other than their own. According to Hinchliffe (1973) over sixty per cent of the students interviewed in Ahmadu Bello University in 1973 indicated their unwillingness to work outside their state of origin. Similarly, Ojo (1977), in his survey of 2,825 Nigerian undergraduates reported that over 50 percent preferred to work in their own States of origin. Most probably the

expressed unwillingness arose from the employment practices of the States governments coupled with ethnic/cultural and language barriers.

An important factor reinforcing the employment practices of state governments has been the ready availability of other sources of manpower supply. It has become obvious that the easy availability of expatriate personnel on technical assistance or direct overseas recruitment from Asian countries, personnel whose quality of education is clearly in doubt, does not help to facilitate the Inter-State mobility of trained manpower in Nigeria or the optimum utilization of Nigerian high-level manpower. Even though the Expatriate Quota Allocation Board (an agency of the Federal Government charged with the controls of aliens in Nigeria) stipulates that expatriates should be recruited into positions in Nigeria only where suitably qualified Nigerians are not available, in most cases no attempt or serious attempt is made by Governments and public agencies seeking to employ expatriates, to search for suitably qualified candidates in the national labour market. And when they do, little or no inducements are provided. The fact that most of these expatriates are got without much direct costs to the employing agencies encourages the illusion that technical assistance personnel are free..

6.3 REVIEW OF GOVERNMENT EFFORTS

The Nigerian Government has long recognised the need for even development among its components. Consequently one of the objectives of Nigeria's development policy is to ensure even development and equalization of economic opportunities for all citizens. A just and egalitarian society as conceived by the Third National Development Plan, must put a premium on reducing inequalities in inter personal income and providing balanced development among the various communities. But inspite of this noble and lofty goal, development in Nigeria has tended to be very uneven and lopsided.

This pattern of economic growth has been blamed on the regional disparities in educational development among the various States. The regional disparities in educational development is reflected in the imbalance in the distribution of educational Institutions in Nigeria. This is compounded by the restricted flow of manpower from the States that have relatively more abundant supply of manpower to the relatively poor States. To ameliorate this situation, the Government has embarked on a number of measures.

6.3.1 Expansion of Education Facilities

Since one of the most serious problems that has faced Nigeria is associated with the imbalance in educational development between different geographical regions in Nigeria, the Governments have embarked on vigorous educational expansions to remove this problem. This included rapid expansion of Federal Educational Systems in the relatively poorer States. Programmes to expand education particularly in the Northern States included offer of more generous education grants and establishment of more Federal Institutions in the affected States. These Institutions included Federal Secondary Schools, Colleges of Arts and Sciences, Polytechnics and Universities. Such efforts also included the establishment of Federal Universities in the States without existing Universities.

6.3.2 Deployment of Federal Public Servants to Needy States

In the past it was not uncommon for the Federal Government to redeploy civil servants from Federal to State Governments. This was particularly true for the Northern States when an official of the Federal Government would be seconded to a State Government for a particular period of time. Similar benefits have been extended to the Southern States on request from the States concerned.

Such a policy was able to overcome two main hurdles. First it made it possible for skilled personnel to be used in the States in which they would not normally have been prepared to serve. Secondly, it was possible to allay the fears of the States Government of dominations of their State by non-State indigenes. Since such appointment was on secondment such a seconded staff could be recalled at anytime by the Federal Government.

Desirable as this device would appear, it does not appear that its impact, even in the past, has been of any significance. But more importantly the device would not be efficient in the future. From our previous analysis we have observed that most people were unwilling to work in the States other than their own, even if employed by the Federal Government, consequently deployment of Federal Public Servants cannot be relied upon in the future to make any significant impact in the observed restricted Inter-State labour mobility.

6.3.3 The National Youth Service Corps

In 1973, when the Federal Government launched a one-year National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) scheme, the following among others, were the objectives (Federal Government 1973)

- (a) To encourage members of the service to seek, at the end of their corps service, career employment all over the country thus promoting the free movement of labour.
- (b) To ~~induce~~ employers partly through their experience with members of the service corps, to employ more readily qualified Nigerians irrespective of their States of origin.

These two objectives closely tied in with the Governments concern for free flow of high-level manpower to facilitate even development. However, the degree of success of the scheme depended largely on two conditions.

- (a) The willingness of corps members to take up permanent employment in their state of deployment.
- (b) The preparedness of the employers, both public and private to employ corps members irrespective of their state of origin and on terms that generate sense of belonging.

In an evaluation report, Ojo (1977) reported a modest achievement of the scheme in increasing the rate of Inter-State mobility of high level manpower in Nigeria. The report states:-

"In respect of high-level manpower mobility and the enhancement of graduate employment, the NYSC scheme has achieved some measure of success.

By deploying most of the participants to States other than their own, the scheme facilitates the mobility of graduate labour throughout the country during the one-year service".

In terms of the willingness of the corporers to accept offers of employment in their state of deployment a significant proportion was willing to do so. Also in terms of employer's willingness to employ non-state indigenes, most (88%) confessed that they become willing as a result of personal contact with corps members.

The findings by Ojo seems to be reassuring that a new Nigeria, in which labour can freely move and work in any State of his choice is emerging. Compared with the restricted past, present and future mobility reported in this study, one may be tempted to doubt the hopes raised in Ojo's report. It is strongly believed that such expressed willingness is a mere statement of intentions rather than serious desire and that the phenomenon of restricted Inter-State labour mobility is still with us.

To a very considerable extent discriminatory employment policies in different forms still exist in the Nigerian society today as it was in the past. Discrimination in the employment among the different geographic regions has always characterised the Nigerian society.

In the late fifties and early sixties for example there were indiscriminate dismissal of employees by Regional Governments for the simple ^{fact} that the dismissed workers were not indigenes of the Regions.

Diejomach and Orimolade (1971) in their own account attributed restricted mobility of manpower in Nigeria to the policy of State Government which stipulated that civil servants at particular level should be state indigenes.

The situation was much the same in the private sector. The discriminatory employment policy in the private sector was aptly demonstrated by Professor Yesufu, (1974) when he states:

"Even private employers particularly the large expatriate firms have largely adopted the regionalist approach in labour recruitment, indifference to the susceptibility of the Regional Government who might otherwise withhold important economic concessions".

Within the present political framework there does not appear to be any evidence to show that the trend in the discriminatory employment practices is on the decline. If anything, the situation appears to have worsened since the beginning of the second civilian administration in 1979. This is unfortunate and one can entirely agree with

Yesufu, (1974) when he asserted that there can be no development of a sense of common nationality if some States will share in the economic resources of others (e.g. mineral royalties) but refuse to share with others such resources as they themselves may have in the form of job opportunities.

6.4 POLICY OPTIONS

Having now gone through the gamut of problems and barriers inhibiting free Inter-State flow of high-level manpower the next line of action for us is the consideration of the appropriate package of policies designed to ensure a more efficient and effective utilization of human resources in Nigeria. These measures would be those aimed at removing the institutional as well as individual barriers in the labour market for high-level manpower. In addition, the measures will include policies of a more general nature aimed at not only ensuring a more efficient utilization of high-level manpower but also ensuring a balanced development and hence an integrated nation.

6.4.1 Strategies for Removing Institutional Labour Market Barriers on Inter-State Labour Mobility

As we have seen from previous chapters, one of the principal barriers to easy flow of manpower among the Nigerian states had been the extreme state consciousness

among the state functionaries. The State consciousness among the Government and people within the State has become a near permanent phenomenon that most Nigerians first think of themselves as belonging to a particular state rather than being first a Nigerian. For national integration this phenomenon must be reversed. One way of reversing this trend is for the State Government to deemphasize the feeling of extreme State consciousness in most of their policy statements and programmes. The new reorientation must permeate the whole service if it will survive. Perhaps some posts can be reserved exclusively for state indigenes. Positions such as Chairmanship of Local Government Councils or the Pilgrimage Boards naturally could go to State indigenes, for Local people are expected to be so close to their people as to understand their problem. But when it comes to development agencies such as Investment Corporations or Agricultural Corporation, to mention but a few, merit should be the watchword and a hunt for talents from whatever States should be encouraged.

This leads us to the appalling situation of preferring expatriate personnel to equally or more competent Nigerians from other States. The Expatriate Quota Allocation Board which approves the recruitment of expatriates rightly specifies that expatriate personnel

could be employed only and if equally competent Nigerians could not be obtained. This yardstick has been applied predominantly to the private sector even though there are still many loopholes. But it seems rather clear that the decree has not been effectively enforced against the State Governments or how can one explain the preponderance of expatriates in many State public services including teaching! In an interview with a Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education in one of the Northern States, he lamented the unwillingness of many Southerners to take up appointments with his State Government. He presented a file showing a long list of Southerners mostly NCE and Graduate Teachers who were offered appointments but did not take up such offers. Out of desperation, the State resorted to mass recruitment of expatriates from India and other Asian Countries.

On further investigation, most of the appointments offered to the Southerners were on contract basis. But in addition to that, the same State Government operated a differential policy whereby all such out-of-state appointees had to work in the rural areas. It was also observed that appointment of headmasters was not based on seniority or experience but at the discretion of the State Government. In one example, an NCE graduate was made the head of a big State Government Girls School over the better educated and

more experienced teachers but indigenes of another States. Many Nigerians have shown tremendous resentment to such practices and where such policy exists one cannot hope to find many Nigerians taking up appointments in such States particularly if they could secure alternative employment in their state of origin.

It is strongly suggested that the Federal Government's policy which regulates the recruitment of expatriate staff through the Expatriate Allocation Quota should be strictly enforced against the State Government. The policy of resorting to the employment of expatriate staff only and when equally competent Nigerians could not be obtained should be vigorously enforced. For example each State Government requiring expatriate staff should be asked to show the efforts already made to recruit Nigerians. Only on the basis of demonstrated efforts should such a permission be granted.

This suggests that instead of the traditional wasteful annual overseas recruitment tours by most State Government functionaries, we should encourage and intensify Inter-State recruitment drives within Nigeria. Such a recruitment tour will include visits to the universities and polytechnics, depending on the type of manpower required. Pre-arrangements that are necessary

will include the advertisement of such posts in the universities and the civil service of the States to be visited. It may also include previous notification of the labour exchange offices located in the States to be visited. Undoubtedly in terms of cost and time, the required arrangements will be less, compared with the arrangements made for overseas recruitment tours.

This suggestion is likely to receive stiff opposition from those that have in the past benefitted materially from it as the new policy will not so favour them. In particular, some officials have used the avenue for personal advantages and they will want to continue with the system. But there is no doubt that the practice is overdue for an overhaul and a complete change. Conversely regular tour of other states has a built-in capacity of promoting mutual understanding among the States thus removing the perceived fears and anxiety connected with out-of-state employment.

6.4.2 Strategies for Removing Individual Labour Market Barriers to Labour Mobility

Most of the points discussed above would have influence on the individual willingness to work in states other than their own by way of removing their fears and anxieties. Perhaps one may add, that in employment, involving recruitment, deployment and promotion,

extensive dependence on connections and the so called "long leg" should be considerably played down. Only the system that is based on merit can guarantee career prospects for every Nigerian anywhere in the Federation.

Secondly, because of the geographic spread of the country and the relative unattractiveness of some parts of the country one would like to suggest a form of differential incentive system for the country. No doubt one would run into the problem of semantics and measurement as to how one can say that one state is relatively more attractive than another, particularly in the political context of Nigeria where every State wants preferential treatment. However, the stark reality is that some States attract people from other States more than the others. For example, Sokoto and Borno States, because of their harsh weather, are relatively more unattractive to skilled manpower from other States such as Plateau State. The states that experience this type of relative unattractiveness should design various differential fringe benefits and allowances. Such benefits will include equal treatment of the children in respect of educational and health facilities, inconvenience allowances, provision of houses etc. Equal treatment of Indigenes and their dependents should be mandatory on the employers. The

present practice whereby children of non-State indigenes are discriminated against in School enrolments should stop. It should be recalled that existence of facilities for children's education was one of the most important factors encouraging Inter-State Mobility in Nigeria. To the extent that this is so, concerted efforts should be made to ensure equal and free access to education irrespective of whether the parents are local indigenes or not.

Another important hurdle that has to be removed from the labour market in order to encourage a free Inter-State flow of skilled manpower is the lack of labour market information. The inadequacy of the existing labour market information in Nigeria has been aptly stated in the Third National Development Plan: 1975-80:

"Perhaps, one major deficiency in the Nigerian employment market is the weakness of the market information system. Only limited machinery exists for collecting and appraising labour market trends, and especially no system is developed for informing the employers of the manpower supply situation."

The deficiency of the labour market information system was evident from our survey findings reported in chapter two. It will be recalled that most of the non-State indigenes employed in other State relied largely on friends and relations as the main source of employment information. To a somewhat lesser extent advertisement was a source of employment information. Labour Exchange Offices and Professional Registry appeared to be of relatively insignificant use as employment referral.

To overcome this deficiency requires that information about employment opportunities in the various sectors of the economy be widely disseminated in Nigeria. No doubt the present practice of extensive reliance on friends does not augur well for the future. One way of removing this deficiency has been discussed earlier. This involved extensive tour of the States by various employing agencies or institutions such as the public service commission. Other methods include extensive use of the media such as the dailies, radio and televisions. It will also include wide internal circulation of vacancies in the public service of other states. An interlink between the public Service Commission^s of both the Federal and State Governments should be established. Such a link would provide and exchange information on various employment issues including

vacancies. In a similar vein, both the Federal and State employment exchanges, should be involved in the Scheme. Establishment of a special information department, and dissemination specifically assigned with the task of collecting/information on employment status including vacancies, openings and redundancies would be necessary. The availability of adequate employment opportunities contingent on the establishment of the various information organs above would go a long way to provide an integrated, as against a highly segmented labour market for skilled personnel in Nigeria.

Another complementary strategy for removing obstacles on Inter-State mobility of labour is the National Youth Service Corps. As we mentioned earlier, the scheme, in terms of exposing both the corps members and the various employers to the mutual benefits derivable from it, has achieved some success. However in terms of the scheme encouraging participants to take up permanent appointments in the States of deployment, the success so far has not been impressive. Most Corps members returned to their States after the Service years. Most of those that experimented taking up employment in the States of assignment returned home for a number of reasons after a few years of experiment.

To enable the scheme to achieve its primary objective of encouraging free flow of manpower throughout the country, a number of measures have to be taken. First, Corps members should be very fairly treated during their service year by making life less difficult for them. Secondly, efforts should be made early enough by the various State Governments to offer permanent appointments to willing corps members and not wait until they have got offers from elsewhere. Finally necessary adjustments should be made for enhanced entry points on appropriate grade levels to reflect the degree of needs of particular States.

6.4.3 General Strategies

As a part of the whole package of strategies for ensuring an even development through efficient utilization of human resources, it is proposed that there should be bilateral arrangements between the States on technical assistance. It may look strange but the philosophy rests on the principle of the traditional foreign technical assistance. If some States have relatively more abundant supply of high-level manpower, they should come to the aid of their sister States that are relatively disadvantaged. Such technical assistance may include secondment of State employee to another State to execute

a particular project, initiate or design programmes of action, etc. Such a policy is capable of generating profound mutual understanding and friendly relations among States and argues well for the future in promoting the so much cherished integrated and united society.

One other way of ensuring a more even development through efficient utilization of human resources is the development of joint industrial projects between states, particularly the contiguous ones. Such a development strategy will entail a pulling together of physical and human resources. A policy such as this will not only encourage even development, but beside the purely economic gains, it will enhance mutual understanding and cooperation among States all of which are pre-conditions for national integration.

Finally, the various State Governments should be encouraged to tap the scarce manpower resources that are now partially idle in the Nigerian universities. Many talents which can be very productively utilized are buried in the various universities and in various disciplines. Many senior academics could be used on short-term basis, say 3-6 months and in some cases up to one year. In many cases, most of them particularly the professional ones could be encouraged to spend their

year of sabbatical leave in the public sector. Such period could be used in designing programmes for the State Government, undertaking major projects, coordinating planning activities, initiating and establishing new departments. Many scholars have spent many years on research. Such an opportunity provides a forum for an occasion to bring the fruits of their several years of research to bear on the development of the State in particular and the nation in general. Such talents should be sought from among the various universities irrespective of political and geographical boundaries.

It could be argued that in terms of the number of academics involved, the gain from such a policy will be minimal. It is submitted that because of the quality of manpower involved, the impact of such a policy might be considerable and in any case the number of potential participants will certainly increase with the increase in the numbers of universities and the development of the **existing ones**. Moreover, in a country where manpower in appropriate type and quantity is everywhere scarce, no additional supply, however small should be considered unimportant. Besides, the programme could be used to train State personnel such that when such scholars return to their universities the programme they help to initiate can be effectively taken up by the State personnel that

have been adequately groomed.

6.5 CONCLUSIONS

The geographic labour market for high-level manpower does not appear to be working well in the sense that the market has not been responding readily to regional differentials in demand. Inter-State mobility has been restricted by both institutional and individual barriers. These findings have implications for policies which attempt to ensure an even development among the states.

The barriers to the Inter-State movement of high-level manpower discussed in this thesis were only few examples of widespread restrictions on mobility of workers, high-level or otherwise. The consequences of these restrictions have been openly reflected in the geographic disparities in the levels of development among the states. Factors responsible for these restrictions have been identified in this thesis.

A number of policy options have been suggested to play down these factors. These varied from measures directed at removing the institutional barriers and those directed at individual barriers and included strategies of a general nature all designed to ensure a more efficient utilization of human resources for a more even socio-economic development in Nigeria.

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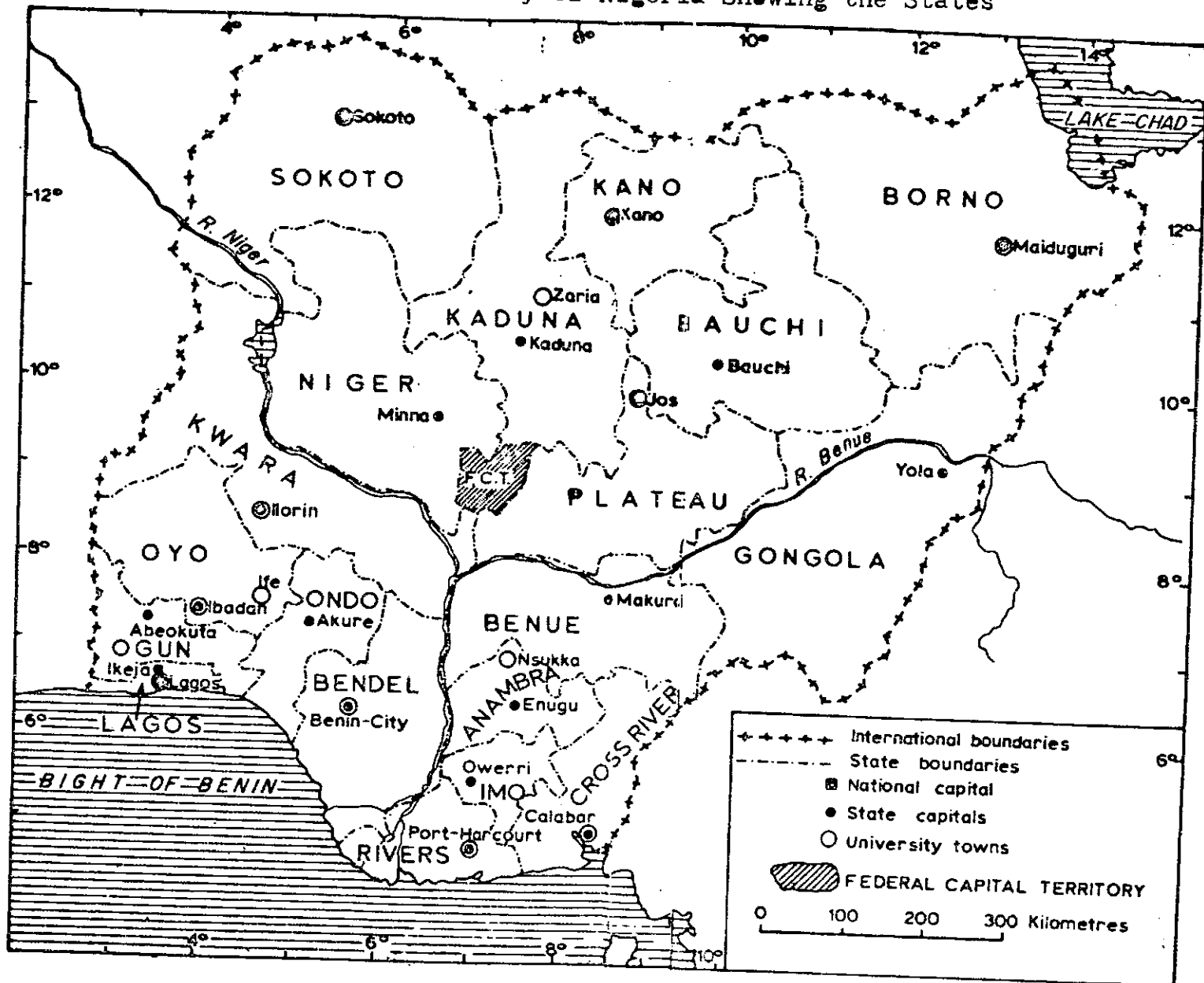
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APPENDIX A

Map of Nigeria Showing the States



APPENDIX B

SCHEDULE V

REVISED SALARY SCALES

Grade Level					Step							Incremental Rates
					1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N
					N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
01	720	744	768	792	816	840	870	+ 24/30
02	804	834	864	894	924	954	984	+ 30
03	900	936	972	1,014	1,056	1,098	1,140	+ 36/42
04	1,164	1,206	1,248	1,290	1,332	1,374	1,416	+ 42
05	1,440	1,512	1,584	1,656	1,728	1,800	1,872	+ 72
06	1,908	2,004	2,100	2,196	2,292	2,388	2,484	+ 96
07	2,496	2,616	2,736	2,856	2,976	3,096	3,216	+ 120
08	3,264	3,414	3,564	3,714	3,864	4,014	4,164	+ 150
09	4,368	4,530	4,692	4,854	5,016	5,178	5,340	+ 162
10	5,460	5,622	5,784	5,946	6,108	6,270	6,432	+ 162
11	6,444	6,624	6,804	6,984	—	—	—	+ 180
12	7,104	7,320	7,536	7,752	—	—	—	+ 216
13	7,764	8,084	8,404	8,724	—	—	—	+ 320
14	8,868	9,188	9,508	9,828	—	—	—	+ 320
15	9,996	10,312	11,028	—	—	—	—	+ 516
16	11,268	11,844	12,420	—	—	—	—	+ 576
17	12,696	13,332	13,968	—	—	—	—	+ 636

APPENDIX C
QUESTIONNAIRE
LABOUR MOBILITY IN NIGERIA

A. Employment Status:

We want to start with your employment.
Please indicate your answer by putting X in the
appropriate space.

1. What is the official name of the establishment in
which you now work?

1. Federal Ministry
2. State Ministry
3. Federal Corporation
4. State Corporation
5. Local Government
6. Private Firm
7. Educational Institution
8. Others (Please specify

2. What is the official designation (title) of
the position which you currently hold with the
organisation?

1. Administrative
2. Professional/technical
3. Secretarial/Executive
4. Teaching
5. Others (Please specify)

3. How long have you been working for your present
employer? (Please give appropriate number of years).

_____ years.

4. Where were you when you were employed for your present job?

1. In this State
2. In another State
3. In another Country

5. How did you obtain information about your present job?

1. Information channel through friends and relatives
2. Internal advertisement
3. Newspaper advertisement
4. Government Labour Exchange
5. Government Gazette
6. Private Employment Agencies
7. Others (Please specify)

6. How long have you been in your present place of work?

_____ years

7. Did you work somewhere else before you took up your present appointment?

1. Yes

2. No

8. What kind of employer(s) did you work for somewhere else?

1. Federal Government
2. State Government
3. Private Firms
4. Self-employed
5. My Family
6. Religious organisations
7. Private educational institution
8. Any combinations of above (Please specify)
9. Did you work elsewhere
10. Others (Please specify)

9. How long did you work for your former employer(s)?
_____ years.

B. Inter-State Mobility

In this section we would like to know whether or not you have worked in the other states besides your own state?

10. Are you now working in your state of origin?

1. Yes

2. No

11. Have you ever voluntarily worked outside of your state of origin other than on transfer or secondment? (Not: Working in other states because they were formerly a state, e.g., Plateau and Benue, Oyo, Ogun and Ondo, should be treated as secondment).

1. Yes

2. No

12. If you ever voluntarily worked in the states other than your own, for how long did you seriously think of moving before you actually moved?

_____ years.

13. When you moved to that state, did you consider moving to other states?

1. Yes

2. No

14. Please indicate the states in which you have ever voluntarily worked and state how long you worked there.

State	Length of Work (approximate No. of years)

15. Did you go to work for a new employer after the move or you continued to work for the same employer?

1. Worked for new employer

2. Worked for the same employer

16. Have you ever been transferred or seconded to another state by your present or previous employer(s)?

1. Yes

2. No

If No, go to Question 25).

17. To which of the states were you ever transferred?

18. To which of the states were you ever seconded?

19. Which of the following organisations was/were responsible for the transfers?

1. Federal Government

2. State Government

3. Educational Corporation

4. Government Corporation

5. Private Firms

6. Any combination of above (specify)

7. Not applicable

100

20. Which of the following organisations was/were responsible for the secondment?

1. Federal Government
2. State Government
3. Government Corporation
4. Educational Institutions
5. Private Firms
6. Any combination of above
7. Others, (Please specify)
8. Not applicable

21. If you worked in other state on ~~transfer~~ or secondment, were you transferred or seconded because your employer wanted you there?

1. Because I wanted to come there
2. Because my employer wanted me there
3. Both of these
4. Others (Please specify)

22. Did the employer pay the moving expenses?

1. Yes
2. No

23. If yes, how much did it cost the employer?
(Please put the rough estimate in naira)

₦ _____

24. How much did you actually spend? (Put actual or rough estimate in Naira)

₦ _____

20. Which of the following organisations was/were responsible for the secondment?

1. Federal Government
2. State Government
3. Government Corporation
4. Educational Institutions
5. Private Firms
6. Any combination of above
7. Others, (Please specify)
8. Not applicable

21. If you worked in other state on ~~transfer~~ or secondment, were you transferred or seconded because your employer wanted you there?

1. Because I wanted to come there
2. Because my employer wanted me there
3. Both of these
4. Others (Please specify)

22. Did the employer pay the moving expenses?

1. Yes
2. No

23. If yes, how much did it cost the employer?
(Please put the rough estimate in naira)

N _____

24. How much did you actually spend? (Put actual or rough estimate in Naira)

N _____

25. For how many different employers have you worked?

1. In the last 2 years
2. In the last 5 years
3. In the last 10 years
4. In the last 11 years

26. On what salary were you first employed?

\$ _____

27. How many times have you been promoted by your present employer?

_____ times

28. How would you rate promotion prospects in your present employment compared with similar establishments? (Please put X where appropriate).

1. Very poor
2. Poor
3. The same
4. Good
5. Very good
6. Don't know

29. If you have lived outside state of origin, how important was each of the following reasons to you for moving out of your state of origin? (Please check one response for each of the factors).

Reasons	1 Not at all Important	2 Not very Important	3 Somewhat Important	4 Very Important
1. To take up employment				
2. To get away from marital problems				

(Continued) Reasons	Not at all Important	Not Very Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
3. To get away from extended family problems				
4. To pursue further formal education				
5. To go to an appren- ticeship school				
6. Others (Please specify)				

30. If you are currently working in your state of origin, how important is each of the following factors at the present time influencing your decision to remain in your state of origin? (Please check appropriate response for each factor).

Factors	Not at all Important	Not very Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
1. Sufficiency of good job opportunities in my home state				
2. The feeling of insecu- rity working in a state other than my own				
3. The fear of discrimina- tion in employment and promotion policies in a state other than my own				

(Continued) Factors	Not at all Important	Not very Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
4. I would feel like a stranger if worked in a state other than my own, because of difference in language and other social customs				
5. I would prefer to help my state rather than another state				
6. Having worked many years for my state, I would be losing some- thing (in money or kind if I were to work for another state or govern- ment				
7. The amount of income I could make in the future in my state compared with what I could make else where is greater				
8. The living standards I enjoy in my state compared with what I would expect to enjoy in another state are higher				
9. Education of myself or my family including my child- ren is easier in my own state				

(Continued) Factors	Not at all Important	Not very Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
10. Other family obligations, e.g. taking care of aged parents or close relatives				
11. Simple love for the social life of my state				
12. Influence of friends				
13. Fear of political uncertainty				
14. Tribalism				
15. Degree of satisfaction with my present employment				
16. The desire to be nearer home so as to get more things done (e.g. build your own house)				

31. How closely does each of the following statements describe your preference for future employment? (Please indicate a preference for each statement by X).

Statements	Preference			
	Not at all like my preference	Not very like my preference	Somewhat like my preference	Very much like my preference
1. I would prefer to live and work in my state of origin				
2. I would prefer to remain with present employer				
3. I would prefer to work with the Federal Government				
4. I would prefer to work in a state other than my own				
5. If employed by Fed. Govt. I would prefer to work in any state in Nigeria				
6. Im uncertain as to whether I would prefer to work in my home state or in another state				

32. If you were to prefer to work in a state other than your own state, what states would that be? (Note: You may choose more than one state but not more than three. Enter them in order of preference).

1.

2.

3.

4. I don't prefer to work in a state other than my own

33. In what state(s) would you prefer to your children to school?

1. My state of origin

2. Other states (specify)....

3. Other countries (Specify)

.....

34. In what state would you prefer your children to live and work?

1. My state of origin

2. Other states (specify)...

3. Other countries (specify)

.....

35. The following are some of the factors people like you consider in deciding whether or not to move to and work in the states other than their own. Rate each factor by inserting a check; mark in appropriate column.

Factors	Not Important at all	Not very Important	Somewhat Important	Very Import ant	Not Rele- vant
1. Good Salary					
2. Job Security and Promotions Prospects					
3. Nearness to one's own state of origin					
4. Cost of living in other states					
5. Availability of medical services					
6. Availability of recreation- al facilities					
7. Availability of good schools for my children					
8. My spouse's feelings					

Factors	Not Important at all	Not very Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Not Rele- vant
9. Opinions and feelings of members of my extended family					
10. The size of my family					
11. Overall opportunities for my personal economic advantages					
12. Others (specify)					

36. Would you like to remain in the same profession after a change of employer or you would like to change your profession as well?

1. Will change both employer and profession

2. Will change only employer

37. After a lay-off, would you return to your employer if requested, even if you have found comparable job elsewhere?

1. Yes

2. No

Finally, we would like to know just a little about you so that we can see how different types of people feel about issues we have been examining.

38. How old were you last birthday?

_____ years

39. What is your marital status now?

1. Single (never married)

2. Married

3. Widowed

4. Divorced

5. Separated

40. Please indicate your sex.

1. Male

2. Female

41. What is your state of origin? _____

42. How many children have you?

_____ Children

43. How many children are under 18 years

_____ Children

44. How many of your children now go to school, including college and university?

_____ Children

45. How many of them go to school in the town where you work?

(number)

46. Who financed you education? (Please indicate the primary source only by putting 'X' in appropriate space, e.g. if your post-secondary education is financed by the Federal Government, you put 'X' in front of Federal Government and below the post-secondary column.

Sponsor	Primary	Secondary/ Teacher Training	Post Secondary
1. Myself			
2. My parents			
3. My relatives			
4. Federal Government			
5. State Government			
6. Religion Organisation			
7. Foreign Government			
8. Private Firms			
9. Don't know			
10. Others (specify)			

47. Would you please tell us how much income you and your family made during the last calender year, 1977, (We mean salaries and all other earnings during the year before tax)

48. Does this include income of everyone in the family?

1. Yes

2. No

49. In addition to main job, did a second or additional work earn extra money during the twelve months?

1. Yes, second job

2. Yes, additional work

3. No, neither

50. If 1 and 2 above, how much did you make in this way?
(Put in the amount in naira).

N _____

51. How many cars does your family own including you spouse

_____ Cars

52. Do you own a house or landed property in the state you are now working?

1. Yes

2. No

53. Please indicate the highest formal education you received.

1. Primary or less
2. Some secondary
3. Secondary completed
4. Teachers College certificate
5. Post-secondary Technical
6. NCE, OND, and other Intermediate Professional certificate
7. University degree/full Professional certificate e.g. ACCA, HND, AIB, etc.
8. University plus professional diploma
9. Masters Degree
10. Ph.D
11. Others (Please specify).....

54. In which state are you now employed?

As you can tell from the questions in this survey, we are interested in who moves and who does not move. We may want to contact you briefly in a year or so to find out whether or not you have moved. Would you therefore please indicate your name and addresses of two close friends or relatives who will always know where you are living even if you should move.

Thank you very much for the pains and cares you have taken to fill this questionnaire. It is well appreciated.

Name and Address of Person Completing this Questionnaire:

Name and Address of 1st Friend/Relative

Name and Address of 2nd Friend/Relative:

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