

The Pattern and Characteristics of Inter and Intra Regional Migration in Nigeria

Godwin O. Ikwuyatum PhD

Department of Geography

University of Ibadan

Nigeria

Abstract

Inter and intra regional migration in Nigeria has been very dynamic from the pre-colonial through the colonial, post colonial to this modern era in the migration history of the country, however, there remain paucity of reliable and current migration data in the country. In addition, the changing pattern and characterization of inter and intra regional migration between and within the states and geo-political zones in Nigeria further require examination for planning and policy intervention in both the area of origin and destination. The aim of the paper, therefore, is to analyze the changing face or pattern of inter and intra regional (states and geo-political zones) over time; its characterization in terms of the demography of migrants (the increasing of female into the migration stream); explanatory factors or drivers, in terms of existing socio-economic inequalities, urbanization, trade and commerce, conflict and terrorism.

Key Words: Socio-economic Inequalities, Trade, and Commerce, Conflict, Regional migration, Nigeria

1. Introduction

Migration, which is the movement of people over defined space and time, is a phenomenon that has been part of humans from creation. Humans have been on the move in quest of overcoming the earth, so to speak, and to exploit existing resources and socio-economic opportunities for the wellbeing of humans. In addition, humans have also been forced to relocate from their usual place of residence in the face of environmental shocks, such as, flooding, desertification, earthquakes and similar environmental disasters. Furthermore, people can also be forced or compelled ('pushed') to relocate from one place (origin) to the other (destination) due to social conflict and warfare. Under the latter circumstance, people migrate in search of 'safe heaven' where their safety is significantly assured (Adepoju, 2008; Bakewell and de Haas, 2007; Afolayan and Ikwuyatum et al, 2011). Migration as a process, involves the relocation of people from current place of residence (origin) and/or to a destination. The duration of stay in the destination/new place of residence often define whether it is a migration process or not. The duration of relocation must be between six months and one year before it can be classified or defined as a migration process. When the migration process occurs within national boundaries of country, it is referred as internal migration and when it occurs across national border and/or boundaries, it is referred to international migration (Castles, 2012).

In essence, migration can be either voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary, migration occurs when the decision-making is based either on the individual's choice/desire or by the household, that is, when members collectively desire to send a family into the migration process. Under the latter situation, there is no form of compulsion involved, as the decision to migrate is taken based on the evaluation of the cost and benefits involved in entering the migrating process. This is however, not the case with involuntary or forced migration. In involuntary migration, people are forced to migrate against their desire and will to destinations far removed from their area of origin and/or usual place of residence. It may due to environmental shocks and/or socio-economic instability, insecurity, conflict and warfare. Examples of forced or involuntary migration include: slavery, human and child trafficking, environmental shocks, such as flooding, famine, drought, desertification, and earthquakes among many others. In modern times and in this era of globalization, socio-economic factors play significant roles in human mobility, in particular, migration. The existing inequity in the level of socio-economic development, resources, and opportunities between places and regions, which has led to the classification of places and people into deprived, disadvantaged and underdeveloped, is a significant determinant of migration.

Other determinants of migrations are conflict, warfare, socio-economic instability that negates peaceful coexistence and conducive environment for self actualization.

2.0 Conceptual Issues of Migration in Nigeria

Conceptually, several migration theories and models were examined in the literature on migration in Nigeria; however, there is no concise/precise model or theory developed for studying migration in Nigeria. Varied factors are responsible for the pattern and characteristics of migrations in Nigeria. These are both exogenous and endogenous factors that predispose the migration process. Exogenous factors include economic differentials, decision-making process of individuals that shape their aspiration and perception of potential places to move to and social-economic networks that affect the migration dynamics. However, the endogenous factors, relates to the decision-making process of individuals that shape their aspiration and perception of potential places to move to and social-economic networks that affect the migration dynamics (Mabogunje, 1970; Afolayan, 1976; 2000; 2004).

One popular model is the pull-push model (Udo, 1993; Afolayan, 1998; Awaritefe, 2000). The basic assumption of the push-pull model is hinged on the fact that there exist push factors or repulsive forces, such as poverty, unemployment, dearth of basic socio-economic infrastructure, and generally lack of economic opportunities to another place or destination of higher opportunities. Several scholars among which are Udo (1975) and Afolayan (1972) in particular, criticized, the 'push-pull' model as being mechanical in nature, as she proposed a behavioral approach or the theory of spatial behavior, which postulates that migration decision making process is based on an evaluation of the exogenous factors. The approach considers some social and psychological factors, in particular perception and evaluation, in the decision-making of actors. The decision-making serves as the intervening variables that make individuals decide to either move or not-move. The decision to move out of rural areas is often based on the socio-economic inadequacies that exists in the source region (rural); this sets up a trajectory or pattern of movement from places (rural) with 'push' endogenous factors (unemployment, dearth of socioeconomic, poverty etc.) to destinations with attractive exogenous factors (pull) of employment opportunities, accessibility and availability of socio-economic facilities, and better life generally (Castles, 2012).

Mabogunje (1970) conceptualized the rural-urban migration pattern as a system. The systems approach is designed to answer such resident? What changes does the rural person undergo in the process? Migration process is, therefore, conceived as a system, in which attraction is focused social, economic and other relationships (adjustment mechanisms) which are essential parts of the process of migrant's transformation. The two most important sub-systems are the rural and urban control sub-systems. The system comprises not only matter (the migrant, the institutions, the various organizations) but also energy, that is, potential and kinetic energy. In the theory of rural-urban migration, potential energy is transformed into a kinetic form of movement. The rural-urban migration is therefore seen as an open system which involves not only exchange of energy but also of matter, in this case, persons within the environment. Furthermore, the Classical Economic Theory, which focus on the state of demand and supply of goods and services between regions. The theory posits and perceives migration as movement of people from regions of low labour demand to those of high demand for labour and with many employment opportunities. Finally, the concept of the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) by Stark (1991) which was adopted by Ikwuyatum (2006) also tends to explain the pattern of migration in Nigeria. NELM assume that migration decision-making process, is a collative issue, carried out by the household which bear both the cost and benefits of migration.

3.0 Pattern of Internal Migration

The migration process and pattern in Nigeria, as in other countries in West Africa, is very dynamic and complex because it is multi-faceted and fluid. However, noticeable eras identified include: pre-colonial, colonial, post-colonial, and post-independent periods of migration. It is based on this classification that the issue is examined.

3.1 Migration in the Pre-Colonial Era

The history of labour migration in Nigeria dates back to four eras of slave trade between 1400 and 1900, when over 12 million slaves were exported from west, west-central and eastern African countries (Nigeria inclusive) to European Colonies in the Americas in the 15th century (Mberu, 2010). Nigeria during this period of slavery lost about 2 million forced labour migrants' (Dunn, 2008).

In addition, intraregional migration during this era, now regarded as international migration, occurred across national frontiers to restore ecological balance and in search of new land safe for settlement and fertile for farming (ECA, 1983). Trade-related migration between Nigeria and Gold Coast (Ghana) also featured very prominently during this period and involved both males and females. Indeed, migrants have always considered West Africa as an economic unit within which people, trade in goods and services flowed freely. Furthermore, there was hardly any distinction between internal and international migration: migration and intraregional labour migration was between neighboring countries with similar social and ethno-cultural features. It took place on a routine basis; these factors also facilitated migrants' relocation at the destination (Adepoju, 1998).

3.2 Migration in the Colonial Era

The arrival of the British in the mid-19th century provided the framework for large scale intraregional labour migration. They ushered into the country export oriented political economic policies, which completely changed the face of migration and intraregional labour migration in particular in Nigeria. New resource-rich areas in north (groundnuts and tin) and southern (cocoa, kola nuts, rubber and coal) of Nigeria were opened up to sustain the colonial policy. The need for labour to sustain the production of these resources led to rural-rural migration of people to work as either, migrant tenant workers, farm labourers, miners or migrant traders. Migrant labourers were also attracted from different West African countries, such as, Burkina Faso, Niger, Chad, Mali, Guinea, Cape Verde, and Togo (Udo, 1975). Colonial political economic policies, led to inequity in the provision of socio-economic services and infrastructure, which was skewed towards areas in the eye of the political economic interest of the Colonial masters. The rural areas were consequently neglected and virtually abandoned. This led to the intense rural-urban labour migration witnessed at the time (Udo, 1975). The expansion of cash crops to increase foreign exchange needed for the new developmental aspirations magnified intraregional labour flows to regions of production of export crops, such as, the cocoa belts in the south-western Nigeria, palm-oil in the eastern Nigeria.

In addition, the discovery of petroleum in 1956 in the Niger-delta region of Nigeria brought about immense local and international migrant labour relocation and circulation into the area. Afolayan et al (2008) reported that the arrival of the British in the 19th century marked a turning point and added another angle to intra and inter regional labour migration, as dictated by the colonial political economy. Modern means of transportation were built across the country and the export oriented colonial political-economic facilitated the intraregional movement of migrant labourers to the then emerging ports of Lagos, Port Harcourt and Calabar among others. The latter finding was alluded to by Adepoju (1996) who stated in his work that the political economy of the country during the colonial period was such that it provided a framework for large-scale migration; deriving from the need for large labour force for mines, plantations, and public administration.

Labour was recruited through persuasion and coercion. There was intraregional labour migration between the three (Northern, western and Eastern) regions of Nigeria leading to enhanced rural-rural migration of migrant tenant farmers, migrants to the tin and coal mines in Enugu and the Jos Plateau respectively. Migrant traders were not left out in this movement as goods and services were exchanged between the three regions of Nigeria. The items of trade and direction of their trade also changed, from local to imported goods, mostly in a south-north and north-south direction (Udo, 1975). The seasonal movement of nomads that was noted for the pre-colonial era continued, the exceptions being movements towards viable locations in the south. Studies on internal labour migration have also revealed that migrant labourers from different parts of the country, especially from rural areas moved into regional headquarters, administrative and market centers of Lagos, Kano, Zaria, Enugu, Ibadan, Sokoto, and Kaduna, among many others, in quest of trade and gainful employment (Udo, 1975; Shimada, 1993; Ikwuyatum, 2006). For example, Abba (1993) reported that between 1914 and 1922 there was a noticeable immigration of foreigners into Kano and its environment. It was estimated that within this period between 10,000 and 30,000 Tuaregs from Niger Republic moved into Kano city in Nigeria.

In addition, Afolayan (1998) also reported that migrant labourers moved to locations and places involved in the Nigerian Rail line construction of the 1900s. Some of these migrant labourers were employed and some even participated in the construction of the Tema-Takoradi area of Gold Coast and the Cotonou-Parakou in Dahomey (Adegbola, 1972). Available data showed that between 1900 and January 1902 about 6,500 labourers left Lagos to work on the Sekondi-Tarkwa rail line and in the gold mines of the Gold Coast, where wages were higher than in Lagos. In Dahomey, many of the Nigerian emigrants took to trading after the completion of the railway, while many of them left for Ivory Coast after the World War 1.

Many of the emigrants from Nigeria were attracted by evidence of success displayed by returnees; by the belief that wealth was easier to acquire while away from home and over time, as wives or new brides joined their husbands (Adegbola, 1972).

3.3 Migration in the Post-Colonial Era

The relatively stable and prosperous economy of Nigeria after independence and the early 1970's attracted large numbers of intraregional labour migrants within and as well as labour migrants from other ECOWAS countries, such as, Togo, Guinea, Cote d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Niger and Mali. These labour migrants were attracted to the known clusters of mining and cash crop production, regional administrative cities of Enugu, Kaduna, Ibadan, and major commercial centres and sea ports of Lagos, Port Harcourt, Calabar and Warri among others, which offered a range of employment opportunities. Afolayan et al (2008) also reported that the third and final quarter of the 20th century, the post-independence era, witnessed heightened labour migration from several parts of the country to the main administrative and economic centers of the country and to more varied destinations than ever before. Relatively large scale of immigration into the country was interrupted by flight and or expulsion. Moreover, the cause of human mobility had not always been economic; civil war and ethnic conflicts had spurred the dislocation of minorities from their destination back to their home region. The Biafra War of 1967-1970 recorded the largest dislocation and dislodgment of many ethnic groups from the northern part to the south-eastern and southwestern parts of the country. In addition, for some of the people dislodged during and after the Biafra war, the option was the flight out of the country, to the Republic of Benin and to the outlying islands of Sao Tome and Principe.

Furthermore, the immigration of ECOWAS citizens into Nigeria took another dimension after the Protocol on Free Movement of Goods, Capital, and People was ratified in 1980. This almost coincided with the period of economic buoyancy in Nigeria, such that many ECOWAS citizens immigrated into Nigeria. However, this was short lived; due to a sharp decline in the price of oil. Consequently, in January/February 1983 and April/June 1985, many ECOWAS citizens that had exceeded the 90 days of grace without the residence permit were expelled from the country. In addition, by the late 1980s, some other changes in the economic and political policies of the country resulted in changes in the pattern of intraregional labour migration in Nigeria. One in particular is the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in June 1986. SAP dictated a shift from the official policy of full employment to substantially reduced government spending on critical services, such as health, education, and housing. This created a greater tendency for persons to emigrate. Evidence include the relatively large number of women traders that shuttle between Lagos and Abidjan in Cote d'Ivoire and in a few other coastal West African countries (Afolayan, 1991, 1998).

3.4 Migration in the Era of Modernization/Globalization

Recent migration patterns and their underlying motives are modeled along the new forces of globalization which are transforming economies the world over. The deteriorating socio-economic conditions and deepening poverty in the late sixties and early seventies propelled a wide variety of migration configurations. Macro-economic adjustment measures and a huge increase in the number of entrants into the labour market have fuelled a job crisis, creating a sustained pressure for migration (immigration and emigration). The dearth of distance has become very manifest in this era, information, and communication technology hold sway in the process of intraregional labour migration. Information on employment opportunities and the location of such opportunities are can easily be obtained from internet in seconds; consequently, intraregional labour migration is significantly facilitated via the various forms of globalization infrastructure.

4.0 Dynamics of the Pattern of Flows: From, Through, and Into Nigeria

While there have been significant changes in the migration flows into, through, and from Nigeria over space and time, the migration flows are better described as complex. Human mobility across national boundaries in the past had been largely north-south and to a lesser extent, west-east; resulting from trading, droughts, conflicts and pilgrimage (Freund, 1981; Abdu, 1982; James, 1987; Mortimore, 1988). Mortimore (1988) for example, argued that the north-south mobility across Nigeria's borders dates back to the colonial era. Its continuation depended, at times, on the effectiveness of diversification strategies, of the seasonal movements of nomads from the arid region to the relatively green areas of Sokoto and Kano (Goddard, 1974; Apeldoorn, 1981; Grainger, 1990). Abdu (1982) revealed that migrants north of Sokoto were still migrating to the south-western forest lands of Nigeria and outside the country, for example, to Ghana.

Moreover, James (1987) believed that both the north-south and east-west movements took place, with a counter current of west-east mobility to the Arab world, especially to Saudi Arabia; explained by the age old pilgrimage tradition. The latter is still relevant to international mobility, as a good number of Nigerian pilgrims stay back in Saudi Arabia, for economic reasons, after their Hajj ritual (Alkali, 1985).

Likewise, the movement of Chadian to Nigeria was recorded as essentially east-west, with Maiduguri being the major destination, and Jos, being the most probable southernmost end (James, 1987). These flow patterns were further buttressed by the fact that out of the three countries bordering Nigeria in the north, Nigerien migrants constituted the highest percentage of immigrants (between 7-8%) of the total immigrants to Nigeria by the 1970s-80s (NPC, 1998). Presently, most illegal/undocumented emigrants from the south-west, south-east and south-south geo-political zones of Nigeria moving to the OECD and Gulf Arab countries largely transit through Chad or Niger, en-route Morocco, Mauritania and other North African countries to the Mediterranean countries, with final destination in Western Europe (Adepoju, 1991). Also, the volumes and directions of forced migration had been changing over time. The two major expulsions from Nigeria involved thousands of ECOWAS citizens; refugees of concern to the United Nation High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) from Sierra Leone and Liberia numbered close to 7,000 at Oru Refugee Camp near Ijebu-Ode, Ogun State of Nigeria (Adebayo, 1997). The dynamics of refugee flows in the country are still to be investigated at greater depths than hitherto. For instance, the number of assisted refugees by UNHCR has been decreasing, with the options of repatriation, resettlement in third country and closing down of the camp. In addition, there are very few writings on refugee-in-orbit within the country and on Nigerians as refugees outside the country.

5.0 The New Face of Internal Migration in Nigeria

Migration in Nigeria has been very dynamic, in terms of the spatial pattern, the nature of the actors and processes. The 1963 and 1991 censuses, the 1991 Post Census Enumeration Survey (PES), and NISER Migration Survey (1998) reveal some of the dynamics of the volumes and directions of voluntary immigration into Nigeria. The 1963 census data indicates a total of 101,461 foreigners, (65,467 males, and 35,994 females). This included Africans and non-Africans living in Nigeria. The population of foreigners accounted for about 0.18 per cent of the country's total population of 55.7 million. In 1991 census, the figure had increased to 447,135 immigrants (268,339 males and 210,796 females), constituting 0.54 per cent of the total population of 88.99 million (NPC, 1998). Although foreigners formed very small percentages of the total population at the 1963 and 1991 censuses, nonetheless, the annual growth rate of immigration, that is, of 5.5 per cent was high. When the number of immigrants from each African country is compared, Cameroon had the largest number of immigrants (18,434; 18.2%); followed by Niger (8,807; 8.7%), Ghana (7,563; 7.5%) and Togo (7,392; 7.3%).

The recent survey by National Population Commission (NPC, 2010) examined the state of internal migration in Nigeria. The survey revealed that migrants and return migrants showed a youthful age structure, that is, migrants between 10 to 34 years dominate the migration process in Nigeria. The peak age of migrants and return migrants is between 25-29 age groups, which is in agreement with NISER (1993). The NPC (2010) survey further showed that migrants with no formal education, ranked highest (27%), followed by those with primary education (21.3%) and the least are people with Postgraduate qualification (0.6%). This finding tends to affirm Udo (1975) who observed a greater percentage of people who enter migration stream are youths with low educational level (no formal education or primary school leavers).

5.1 The Volume of Internal Migration Flows

The current pattern of migration flows in Nigeria is expressed in the NPC (2010) report. The survey which revealed that: a quarter (25%) of the total sample population (migrants -23%; return migrants-2.0%) had changed their residence in Nigeria in the past 10 years proper to the time of the interview, while, the remaining proportion, of 75.0% constitute non-migrant or the population that did not move from Local Government Area or State in Nigeria in the past 10 years. The high percentage of non-migrants, none movers, is a reflection of the fact very few people ever moves from their places of usual residence or area of origin the country. Further analysis by NPC (2010) on the course of migration, as it relates to spatial movements of migrants and return migrants in Nigeria indicated that seven out of the 36 states in the country have above two-fifths of their total population as internal migrants. These are Abia (48%), Ekiti 48.1%), Delta (45.3%), Imo (45.1%), Anambra (44.4%), Bayelsa (43.2%) and Lagos (40.1%).

In addition, the spatial distribution of migrants differs among the states of the nation, 20 states and Abuja (FCT) reported high percentage than the national average of 23.0 percent, the remaining 16 states have lower figures. Abia (44.4%), Bayelsa (42.9%), Ekiti (40.7%), and Imo (40.0%) are states with high percentage of migrants. However, Bauchi (10.5%), Gombe (10.5%), and Jigawa (11.3%) have the least percentage of migrants. It is interesting to note that there is difference in the pattern of internal migration between the NISER (1998) and NPC (2010) surveys. This is particularly so, as the NPC survey revealed a relative shift in the position of Lagos state as number one in-migration and the emergence of Abia, Ekiti and Imo, as in-migration states.

5.2 Volume of Internal migration by Gender and Migration Status.

The NPC survey showed that migration is gender sensitive; this is in line with earlier works by NISER (1998); there are more female (51.5%) migrants when compared to male (40.5%) migrants in Nigeria. This pattern however, varies from state to state; the percentage composition of female vis-à-vis male migrants in the states is higher in Sokoto (64.8% Vs 35.2%), Plateau (62.0% Vs 37.8%), Adamawa (62.0% Vs 38.1%), and Jigawa (59.7% Vs 40.3%). On the other hand, States with lower female percentage and conversely higher male migrant population are Oyo (43.3%/56.1%), Ogun (43.9%/56.1%), Akwa Ibom (44.0% Vs 56.0%), and Enugu (44.4% Vs 55.6%). Much more striking is the predominance of male return migrants (61.3%), compared to a lower figure for female migrants (38.7%), in particular, Akwa Ibom (93.3%), Adamawa (87.1%), Abuja (FCT) (75.0%), and Anambra (75.0%). This pattern is also reflected in almost all the States, except Gombe, Katsina and Osun, where females form between 54.3 and 57.6 per cent of total return migrants (NPC, 2010). The pattern of percentage distribution of migrants gender and migration status for Nigeria is shown in Table 1 and graphically depicted in Figure

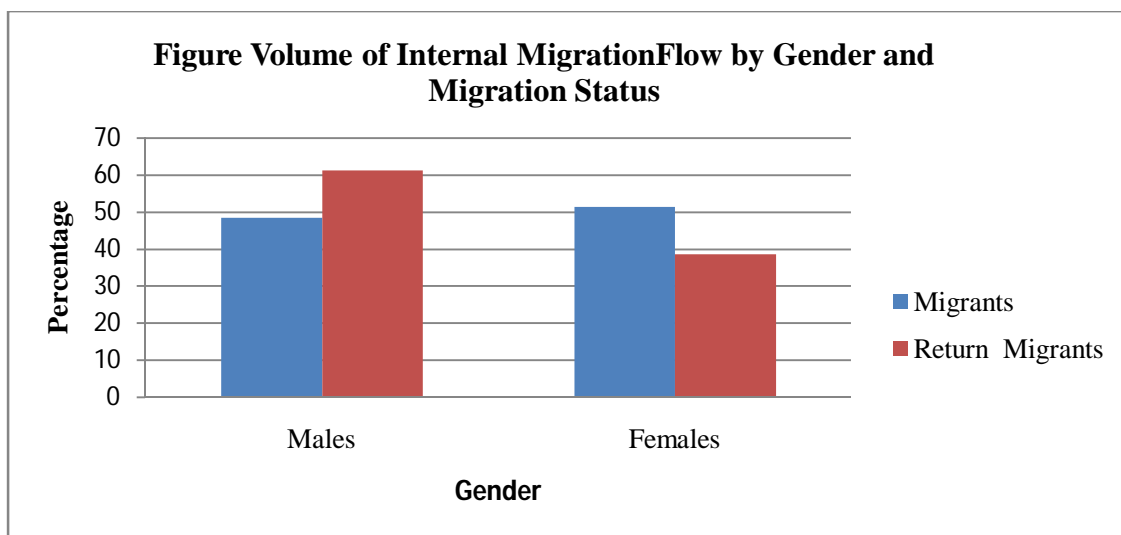


Table 1: Percentage Distribution of Migrants 'Population by Gender and Migration Status

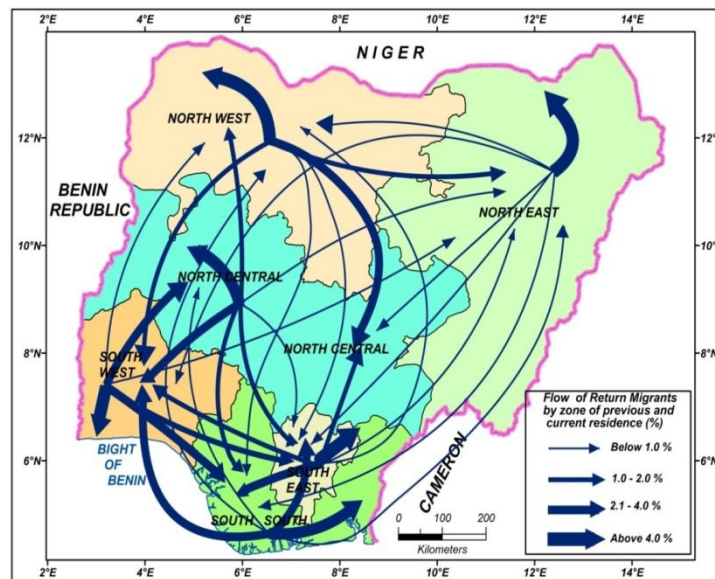
Migrant			Return Migrant		
Males	Females	No. of Resp.	Males	Females	No. of Resp.
48.5%	51.5%	11279	61.3%	38.7%	1813

Source: NPC, Internal Migration Survey (2010).

5.3 Volume of internal Migration Flows by Geo-political Zones and Migration status.

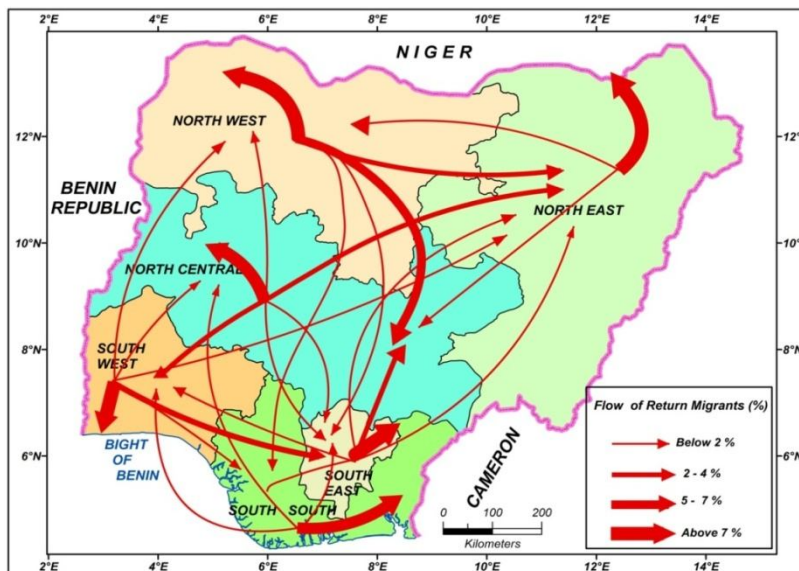
The NPC (2010) survey cross tabulated the period migration against migrants and return migrants respectively. The result indicate highest diagonal values, that is about 90 per cent of migrants and return migrants moved within the same geo-political zone in all the six geo-political zones of Nigeria, except North Central that has slightly less than 90 per cent of return migrants (87.9%) that moved within and ended in the same geo-political zone; the net migration values for migrants, in descending order of importance are: +2.53, +2.28, +1.75, +0.35, -0.29, -4.91 respectively for migrants from South-South, North Central, South-East, North-East, South-West, and North-West. The increasing importance of South-South and North-Central zones is essentially due to presence of natural resources (Petroleum) and administrative function (the presence of FCT).

Figure 2: Percentage Flow of Migrants by Previous and Current Zones of Residence



Source: Drawn using NPC Internal Migration Survey 2010 baseline data

Figure 3: Percentage Flow of Return Migrants by Previous and Current Zones of Residence



Source: Drawn using NPC Internal Migration Survey 2010 baseline data

For return migrants, the result indicated: +6.4 and +6.3 respectively for North-East and North-Central, while they are net negative for the other zones of: -0.2, -0.7, -0.9 and -11.3 South-South, South-West, South-East, and North-West. In all, North-Central has the highest value that is, it received the highest net flow of migrants and return migrants and return migrants from all other geo political zones, in particular from North-West and South-West; followed by North-East and South-South (NPC, 2010). The net internal migration flow (migrant and return migrant) between the geo-political zones of Nigeria from the NPC (2010) baseline data is graphically present in Figure 2 and 3

5.4 Feminization of Migration in Nigeria

Independent female migration is on the increase in Nigeria (Adepoju, 2008; Ikwuyatum, 2006). Traditionally, men migrate leaving behind wives and children (who may join them subsequently) in the care of the extended family. A variety of customs, coupled with job segregation and discrimination in the urban labour market, restricted female migration.

Often young girls are withdrawn from school because their parents choose only to educate their brothers with the diminished household income, or because their families require their labour to help mothers and aunts, thereby perpetuating intergenerational cycle of poverty. Two decades of economic distress and the changing economic circumstances are increasingly forcing communities to condone female migration.

Independent female migration has become a major survival strategy in response to deepening poverty. As men increasingly lose their jobs, and incomes become irregular, women, like men are turning to migration to meet their economic obligations. Driven by poverty, they are now migrating to urban areas in greater numbers in search of wage employment, as traders and business women, as house helps and some of the women are forced into commercial sex work in urban centers, in the face of deteriorating living and working conditions in rural areas. Increasing access to education means that educated women are having greater opportunities for employment in the urban formal sector and are able to participate perhaps more effectively, in both non-domestic and formal sector activities. The increasing proportion of educated females is also reflected in the accelerated migration of females (especially the young ones) into urban areas to seek further education and jobs. Women in West Africa have historically been involved in cross-border migration; they dominate the informal commercial sector, which is less affected by economic crisis than the wage sector where most male migrants work. The increase in autonomous female migration is not confined by national borders: female nurses and teachers from Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Uganda, South Africa and Zimbabwe, now engage in international migration, often leaving their spouses behind at home to care for children.

5.5 Commercialization of Migration in Nigeria

Trade has become a major determinant and driver of both internal and international migration in Nigeria. The apparently large unemployed labour stock that cannot find employment in the formal sector of the economy, tend to find solace in trading, which is a form of self employment and a survival strategy in the informal sector of the economy. Commercial migrants have gradually evolved in Nigeria, as a new face or configuration of migration in the country. This form of migration is essentially driven by the high energy of demand, caused by the immense needs of the burgeoning population within most Local Government headquarters, State Capital, the Federal Capital Abuja and the commercial capital of Lagos in Nigeria. A recent study by Afolayan, Ikwuyatum and Abejide (2011) titled 'Dynamics of Internal and International Mobility of Traders in Nigeria' best capture the configuration of commercial migration in Nigeria, particularly from the commercial city of Lagos. Traders in four international markets namely: Alaba, Balogun, Computer Village Ikeja and ASPMDA in Lagos metropolis were surveyed. The study found that commercial migration evolves in a step-wise process from rural-urban and urban-international/foreign destinations; Ibo ethnic group from south eastern Nigeria dominate commercial migration in Nigeria. International destinations have changed significantly from the hitherto traditional destinations of Western Europe, North America to oil-rich countries of the Middle East (Saudi Arabia, Dubai among others), China, Taiwan, and South East Asian countries (South Korea etc- 'The Asian Tigers').

6.0 Conflict induced Migration in Nigeria

Social conflict and its attendant consequences of violence and warfare have increasingly become a major driver of interregional migration in Nigeria and other regions of the world. Conflict defined as the struggle of opposing forces or when people disagree on issues of common interest (Ikwuyatum, 2013). The disagreement could be person versus person, person versus self, person versus nature, person versus society, between regions and nations and between organized sects and the establishment and/or the state, for example, the Boko Haram insurgency in the North-eastern region of Nigeria.

Available statistics indicates that there are about 2 million internally displaced persons (IDPs) in the country due essentially to the activities of Boko Haram, Conflicts between Herdsmen and local farmers. In the course of the incessant violent clashes between Fulani Herdsmen/Pastoralist along the Benue River valley, lots of housing infrastructure and property are destroyed, thereby leaving significant number of IDPs homeless (NEMA, 2016) The most manifest impact of conflict is the redistribution of the population and forced migration of internally displaced persons from rural to urban destinations. Rural populations are the most vulnerable in the course of violent conflict and warfare, as rural areas constitute the theatre of war and military engagement. Forced migrants or Internally Displaced Persons (IDS) under this circumstance tend to migrate from rural to urban centers, which are perceived to be 'safe heavens', with greater security and where their safety is significant assured.

The influx of people from conflict areas has not only increased the urban population but also put immense pressure on existing urban socio-economic infrastructure and services in urban centres in conflict zones. For example: Maiduguri, Yola and Damaturu; Jos and Makurdi; Port-Harcourt and Yenagoa in the Northeast, North-Central and South-south geo-political zones of Nigeria, respectively Schools and colleges are consequently converted to emergence rehabilitation homes in urban areas, such as, Makurdi and Lafia, thereby disrupting the educational system in these urban centres.

The latter fact is alluded to by Auclair (2005) who stated that conflict can have a distorting effect on urban settlements and production systems, making a bad situation even worse; that it is estimated that one in three African city-dwellers lives in life-threatening conditions, with the number of the urban poor expected to reach 404 million in 2015, or 46 per cent of the population, compared to 241 million people in 1990; this percentage is expected to increase. The conflict between Boko Haram and the Nigerian State, for example, has degenerated into open warfare (though no official declaration of war). The latter conflict has led to the death of thousands of people and loss to immense destruction of socio-economic infrastructure and services since 2009 when the conflict started (Ikwuyatum, 2012). Conflict and a combination of war-related factors can be said to be a factor in rapid and unplanned urbanization (Tvedten, 2001). The increasing influx of IDPs from rural areas to urban centres in the North-eastern, North-central and south-south geo-political allude to this fact, though there is dearth of data on the volume of flow from conflict zones in Nigeria. For example, the population of Luanda, the capital of Angola, doubled from 1990 to 2001. The situation in Luanda was such that the proportion of the total population living in the capital was higher than any country in the region. This was in part due to the effects the war had in rural areas, including reduced access to agricultural land because of landmines, related chronic food insecurity, isolation from markets, and the general threat of violence against civilians. Displacement was used as an instrument of war by all parties to the conflict. Between 1.3 million and 2 million people fled their homes from 1992 to 1994, moving primarily to urban areas. Between 1998 and 2002, when hostilities ended, an additional 3.3 million persons were forced to flee their homes (Tvedten, 2001).

The urban centres (e.g. Maiduguri and Damaturu) in the North-Eastern zone of Nigeria are currently facing infrastructure deterioration, essentially due to loss of investment and reduced ability to maintain these structures. This has implications for health, communications, education, and overall well-being. It is important to note that in all these notable periods in the migration history of Nigeria, the movement of people was essentially voluntary and aimed at enhancing social and economic interaction and wellbeing of the populace. However, it was only during the Nigerian Civil war (1967-1970) in the post-independence era that country ever experienced the magnitude of forced migration of people along ethnic lines to their ethnic cleavages and regions. The issue of national insecurity for southerners (especially of Igbo ethnic group) in northern region, led to the forced migration of people from rural and urban centre in the north to regional bases and ethnic cleavages, for fear of their lives and in search of safety. Furthermore, the ongoing Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria, which have adopted the use of terror, destruction of lives and property have significantly killed the usual urban life which was a major factor in rural-urban migration in the early eras in Nigerian Migration history (Ikwuyatum, 2012).

Conclusion

The pattern and migration history of Nigeria has been very dynamic from pre-colonial to the present era, and has continued to change with the changing nature of the global and country's political economy. This is coupled with the increasing inequalities in: resource allocation; socio-economic opportunities; between rural and urban population; socio-economic development between regions and places; and the global economy, among others.

In addition, there are environmental and human induced shocks that affect the spatial pattern and nature of migration. Notable environmental induced shocks include: famine, desertification, floods, earthquake among others, while human induced shocks, include: slavery, human and child trafficking, social instability, poverty, conflict and war. These shocks have often led to forced migration of people, which is essentially involuntary. Conflicts and insurgencies, such as, the Boko Haram in North Eastern region of Nigeria has impacted negatively on the urban centres in the region. These inequalities and shocks (environmental and human) are the driving force of migration flows, in particular, Nigeria. Migration is gender and age sensitive; migrants are essentially youths within the labour force bracket; there is increased feminization (NPC, 2010) and Commercialization (Afolayan, et al, 2011) of migration in the country.

The pattern of migration varies from one geo-political zone to the other; and more women are joining the migration stream, as a survival strategy in the face of the daunting socio-economic challenges in the country; increasing number of unemployed, youths have embraced trade, as they move in search of opportunities and means of livelihood, thereby commercializing migration. Return migrants are important actors in the migration process in Nigeria. However, there is the issue of dearth of migration data, the positive consequences of migration should be exploited for the sustainable development planning, as majority of migrants and return migrants in the country, are people within the labour force, which should form the human capital for Nigeria development.

References

- Adepoju Aderanti (2008) Migration and social policy in sub-Saharan Africa February 2008 prepared for the UNRISD – IOM – IFS project on Social Policy and Migration in Developing Countries
- Abba, A. I. (1993), 'The Niger factor in the implementation of Kinnoy's policy on Almajirai'. In Asiwaju A. I. and Barkindo, B. M. (eds.), *The Nigeria- Niger Trans-border cooperation*, Malthouse, Lagos, pp390-396.
- Abdu, P. S. (1982), 'Dry Season Migration'. In Sokoto State in Maps, Abdu, P. S. and Swindell, K. (ed.), Ibadan University Press Limited
- Adegbola, O. (1972) 'The impact of migration on the rural economy of Osun division of western Nigeria'. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Department of Geography, University of Ibadan, Ibadan Nigeria.
- Adekanye, B. J. (1998) 'Conflicts, loss of State capacities and migration in contemporary Africa, in Appleyard Reginald (ed.) *emigration dynamics in developing countries*, Vol 1, sub-Saharan Africa. Pp 165-206.
- Adepoju, A (1991) 'South-north Migration: the African Experience' *International Migration Review*, vol.29, No 2, pp. 205-222.
- Adepoju, A. (1996) 'International migration in and from Africa: Dimensions, Challenges and Prospects. Population, Human, Resources and Development in Africa (PHRDA), Dakar.
- Afolayan, A. A. 1976 Behavioural approach to the study of migration into, and mobility within the metropolitan Lagos PhD Thesis, Department of Geography, University of Ibadan
- Afolayan, A. A. (1988), 'Immigration and Expulsion of ECOWAS Aliens in Nigeria, *International Migration Review*, Vol. 22, pp 4-27, 1988.
- Afolayan, A. A. (2000), 'Trans-border Movement and Trading: A Case Study of a Borderland in Southwestern Nigeria.' *Trans-border Studies*, No 13, pp33-48. Afolayan, A.A. and Afolayan, A.A. and Ikwuyatum, G.O. et al (2011) *Dynamics of Internal and International Mobility of Traders in Nigeria*; University of Ibadan Press. May, 2011
- Awaritefe, O. D. (2000), *The Spatial Pattern of Turnout's Preferences and Demand in Nigeria*, (Unpublished PhD Thesis) Department of Geography and Regional Planning University of Benin, Nigeria.
- Auclair, C. (2005). *Environmental and Socio-Economic Impact of Armed Conflicts on Urban Areas*. United Nations Environmental Programme. *African Environment* 2
- Bakewell, O. and de Haas (2007), 'African migrations: Continuities, discontinuities and recent transformations'. In L. De Haan, U. Engel and P. Chabal (eds), *African Alternatives* (Leiden: Brill, 2007).
- De Haas, H (2010) Migration and development: A theoretical perspective. *International Migration Review*, Vol. 44 (1), Spring 2010: 227–264.
- Freund, W. M. (1981). "Labour Migration to the Northern Nigerian Tin Mines, 1903-1945." *The Journal of African History* 22(1): 73-84.
- Grainger, A (1990), 'The Threatening Desert: Controlling Desertification.' London; Earthscan.
- Grove, A. T. (1971). 'Africa South of the Sahara. London: Open University Press
- Human Development Report 2004 'Selected indicators of human poverty for Nigeria'
- Ikwuyatum, G.O. (2006). 'A Spatial Analysis of Rural Out-migration and its consequences in Benue State, Nigeria'. (Unpublished PhD Thesis) Department of Geography University of Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Ikwuyatum, G.O. (2012). *Migration as a Threat to National Security: The Case of Nigeria in the Boko Haram Era*, Paper Presented at the 2012 Annual International Conference of the Royal Geographical University of Edinburgh, George Square, Edinburgh EH8 9JU, UK (July 3 –July 5, 2012)

- Ikwuyatum, G.O. (2012b). The Changing Face of Migration in West Africa: The Case of Nigeria". *African Migration Observatorio sobre la Realidad Social del África Subsahariana*, University Universidad Autonoma de Madrid (FCA-UAM). Madrid, Spain (2012).
- James, I. (1987), 'Human Mobility in the Lake Chad Basin.' *Annals of Borno*, vol. iv, pp57-
- Mabogunje, A. L. (1970) 'Systems approach to a theory of rural-urban migration' *Geographical Analysis*, Jan, 2(1): 1-8
- Mabogunje, A. L. (1972) 'Regional mobility and resources development in West Africa. McGill University.
- National Population Commission (1998), '1991 Population Census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria: Analytic report at the National Level. Abuja.
- National Population Commission (2008), '2006 Population Census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria: Protem report at the National Level. Abuja
- National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) (2016). Statistics on IDPs; Abuja.
- National Population Commission (NPC) 2010. Internal Migration Survey in Nigeria 2010
- NISER (1998). Migration and Urbanization Surveys, NISER Publication, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Stark, O (1991) 'Migration in LDCs: risk, remittances and the family.' *finance and development*, 28(4): 39-41.
- Tvedten, I. (2001) *Angola 2000/2001: Key Development Issues and the Role of NGOs* Chr. Michelsen Institute (CMI Report R 2001:1) 60 p.
- Castles, S. (2012). 'Methodology and Methods- Conceptual Issues' In: *African Migrations Research Innovative Methods and Methodologies* Edited by Mohamed Berriane and Hein de Haas, African World Press. Pp 31-70
- Udo, R. K. (1975) 'Migrant tenant farmers of Nigeria: a geographical study of rural migrations in Nigeria'. African University Press, Lagos.
- Udo, R. K. (1993) 'Migration, Urbanization and Development'.(National Population Commission, Lagos)