

**ASSESSMENT OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING ECONOMIC
MIGRATION AMONG YOUTHS IN EDO STATE, NIGERIA**

**OGBEBOR BRIGHT
SSC1911720**

**DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
SOCIAL SCIENCES
FACULTY OF BENIN,
UNIVERSITY OF BENIN,
BENIN CITY**

NOVEMBER, 2024

ASSESSMENT OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING ECONOMIC
MIGRATION AMONG YOUTHS IN EDO STATE, NIGERIA


OGBEBOR BRIGHT
SSC1911720

BEING A RESEARCH PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION, FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF
BENIN, BENIN CITY. IN PARTIAL FUFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF BACHELOR OF SCIENCE
(B.Sc.) DEGREE IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

NOVEMBER, 2024

CERTIFICATION

We certify that this project was carried out by Ogbebor Bright with Matriculation number SSC1911720 in the Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Benin.



DR. E.I OKON MAH
(Project Supervisor)



DR. ALMUSTAPHA
(Ag. Head of Department)

Date 27/02/2025

Date 26/02/25



DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my heavenly father you remain the best that has ever happened to me. Also to my parent, Mr. & Mrs. Ogbobor for their love, kindness shown to me all this year, May Almighty God richly bless you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First I wish to acknowledge Almighty God for giving me grace to run the race from beginning to the end throughout my years of study in the university of Benin,

Also I want to say thank you to my project supervisor Dr. E.I. Okonmah and my beloved course adviser Mrs. P. Omamor, Thank you very much for the love and understanding through the struggling time, may God bless your home and grant your heart desires.

My thanks also goes to my lovely and very supportive family Friday Ogbemor (My father) Stella Ogbemor (my mother) and to my beloved godmother Vivian Okhwarobo, thank you so much for the moral and financial support throughout my study. And I thank God for having all of you in my life.

I also want to say thank you to my lovely Uncle Ehis Isaac, thank you for your support all through my years of study

My heartfelt gratitude goes to all my course mates and my friends thank you for the love and good times that we have shared together.

I cannot but be grateful for your encouragement from the beginning and all through the period the programme lasted.

My profound gratitude goes to all lecturers who have contributed immensely to shape my life in the course of my pursuit of tertiary education; I thank you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	-i
Certification	-11
Dedication	-iv
Acknowledgements -	-v
Abstract	-vi
Table of Contents	-vii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	3
1.3 Objectives of Study	4
1.4 Research Questions	5
1.5 Significance of the Study	7
1.6 Scope of the Study	8
1.7 Definition of Terms -	9
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Review of relevant concepts	14
2.1.1 The Concept of Migration	16
2.1.2 The Concept of Labour Migration	21
2.1.3 Types of Migration	30
2.1.4. Causes of Migration	34
2.1.5 Policies and Migration	37
2.1.6 Migration as a driver of economic growth and poverty reduction	40

2.1.7	Globalisation as a cause of migration-	43
2.1.8	Consequence of migration	45
2.1.9	Major Challenges Faced by Returnees/Deportees from other Countries-	47
2.2	Theoretical Framework	49
2.2.1	The Historic Structural approach-	51
2.2.2	Push and pull factor theory	53
2.3	Empirical Review -	54
2.2	Review of empirical literature	56
2.1.5	Social Work Rehabilitation	57
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHOD		
3.1	Introduction -	59
3.2	Research Design	60
3.3	Population of the Study	61
3.4	Sample and Sampling Technique	61
3.5	Data for the Study	61
3.6	Instrumentation	62
3.6.1	Validity of Instrument	63
3.7	Method of Data Analysis	63
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESIS TESTING		
4.2	Soc10-Demographic ANALYSIS	65

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction	71
5.2 summary of Findings	72
5.3 Policy Recommendations	73
5.4 Conclusion	75
Bibliography-	76

ABSTRACT

This research is focused on the Assessment of the factors influencing economic migration among Edo State youths. This study will examine the major factors and influence of migration. It also identified the challenges faced by Edo state deportees/returnees and the efficacy of social work intervention as well as potential ways in which social workers through them an date of social work can play a pivotal role in responding to these issues. The study through the data collected found out that diverse factors which from economic related to social factors such as household and peer pressure, including the growing impact of globalization on the Nigeria youth and strict immigration control by developed countries contribute as motivating factors and drivers of migration in Edo state. The results of the analysis shows that poverty, unemployment, influence of migrants' social networks, globalization and the problem of "get rich quick syndrome" as major factors of international migration. However, strategies and interventions, by way of an integrated approach, have been highlighted to combat it.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Migration usually occurs when there is a significant differential in comfort, between area of origin and destination (Ajaero & Onokala, 2013). Migration is the movement of people from one place to another place. This type of migration can be permanent, temporary or volunteer. People can move from one place to another place outside its country, like moving from Nigeria to Canada, like moving from Ethiopia to Libya and inside its country, like Benin City to Kaduna (Copper 2014). An economic migrant is someone who migrates from one region to another, including crossing international borders, seeking an improved standard of living, because the conditions or job opportunities in the migrant's own region are insufficient.

Permanent migration is when someone moves from one to another and has no plan to return his/her original home. Temporary migration is limited by time. This could be for seasonal job. Forced migration involves the migration having no choice while voluntary migration is done by self-need without force. There are many reasons why people migrated, including difficult personal relationships, marriages, pregnancy, and the lure of the bright lights of the city. Naturally, we do not know how many migrants were affected by personal motives such as these, but we do know that the overall pattern of migration, as opposed to all the individuals' moves, was influenced by economic concerns. People migrate from place to place for different reasons (Fadayomi, 2016). As it

is expressed by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the main reasons for migration of people from one place to another place are: economic, social, political and environmental. As this organization justified it, the economical migration is related with moving to another place to find work or peruse a particular career. Social migration is to be closer for families or friends for a better quality of life while political migration is moving to another place to escape war or political persuasion and environmental migration occurs as a result of nature disasters like earth quake (Rana, 2016).

The phenomenon of youth migration, especially of young boys and girls, is not in any way recent, as it has taken many forms in the course of history and has been in existence for several decades. However, forces of globalization has given it new and shocking dimensions to the extent that it has now become a complex multi-faceted phenomenon involving multiple stakeholders at the institutional and commercial level this has made it an issue of global concern due to its transnational scope and rapid growth in recent years, and given the facts that it has become a demand driven global business with a huge market for cheap labour and other heinous purposes (Rana, 2016). Meanwhile, an important feature of the increase in illicit practice of youth migration has been the growing involvement of criminal organizations in exploitation of the world's poorer nations. Schmeidl (2016)

Youth migration is an ugly fact of our society that is prevalent even today. Migration is a world-wide problem. Over the years, it has metamorphose into frightening growth rate, having reached its peak and without showing sign of reduction in parts of

Africa, Eastern, Europe, the Caribbean's and Latin American countries. It is crucial to note that the increase on the costs of youth migration in Nigeria is due to the undaunted efforts of the operators and profiteers of the business who are quick to cite unprecedented poverty and the near absence of the basic necessities of life as their driving force (Fadayomi 2016).

Youth Migration has brought poor reputation in the state. Our main economic problem is migration, since we began on the path of nationhood or society the main obstacle for striding boldly on this path has been the migration problem because of unemployment. As a result of this, there has been for the past few years steady drift away of young men and women into other countries. This has the chain result of our society being left under populated or underdeveloped. Secondly, Nigeria has been bedeviled by myriad of problem most of the problems can be attributed to the pervasiveness of some of the ills that hamper the attainment of the development of the society, youth migration has become widespread and now occupy a preeminent position among the ills that pervade the Nigeria society Schmeidl (2016).

The youth employment crisis pushes millions of youth towards the decision to migrate with the purpose of seeking alternatives to improve their job prospects Rana (2016). Many of them migrate to urban areas and big cities within their countries or seek new opportunities in foreign countries. According to the statistics of IOM (2009), roughly 27 million leave their countries of birth to seek employment abroad as international

migration. International migration can bring new opportunities, in terms of employment and training but youth workers, especially youth men and women and those in irregular situations face certain challenges in the migration.

1.2 Statement of the Problems

The issue of migration as a worldwide problem, frightens the growth rate of our economy, reducing lives of people in the world it has also brought poor reputation to the state. Because of unemployment youth migration has increased particularly in Edo State, they have gone in search for money which has led the state to be underdeveloped. The research is designed to view the assessment of the factors influencing economic migration among youth in Edo State. Because people had failed to recognize the effect it would bring to the state.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The ultimate goal of this study includes;

- i. To understand the driving factors of irregular migration among Edo State youth;
- ii. To examine the impacts of migration on Edo state deportees;
- iii. To identify the challenges faced by returnees/deportees from other countries
- iv. To look at the rehabilitation and settlement process of deportees from Europe.

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study.

1. What are the causes and possible solutions of migration In Edo state?

- ii. What are the impacts of migration on Edo State returnees/deportees?
- iii. What are the major challenges faced by Edo State returnees/deportees from other countries?
- iv. What are the possible social work interventions to rehabilitate deportees?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This research paper may help in the following aspects. This study tried to identify the factors influencing economic migration of youth (A case study of Edo State). As a result, it helps youths to have good awareness on the impact of migration or avoids the negative attitude towards migration and reinforces them to work in their home land. Besides, the findings will be of great importance to Management of Immigration as the study seeks to enumerate the dangers of youth migration on the economic growth of Edo State. The study will also be of great importance to the NAPTIP (national agency for prohibition of traffic in person) study as the study seek to enumerate on the dangers of illegal movement of persons outside the shores of Nigeria. The study will also be of great importance to researchers who intend to embark on study in a similar topic as the study will serve as a reference point, finally the study will also be of great importance to student, lecturers, teachers and the general public as the findings will add to existing literature.

1.6 Scope and Delimitation of the study

This study is limited to the Edo State youths and deportees from Europe.

1.7 Definition of Concepts

Migration: This refers to movement of persons across state boundaries and the stay in the host state for some minimum length of time. Major reasons for migration may include economic opportunities or political stability.

Emigration: It is the movement of people out of a country is the act of leaving a resident country or place of residence with the intent to settle elsewhere (to permanently leave a country).

Immigration: is the international movement of people to a destination country of which they are not natives or where they do not possess citizenship in order to settle as permanent residents or naturalized citizens

The net migration rate is the difference between the number of immigrants (people coming into an area) and the number of emigrants (people leaving an area) throughout the year.

Deportation: The removal of a foreign individual out of the country, mostly because his presence is deemed inconsistent with the public welfare and without any punishment being imposed or contemplated either under the laws of the country out of which he is sent or of those of the country to which he is taken.

Rehabilitation: This is the action of restoring someone to health or normal life through training and therapy. It is a process which aims to attain functioning ability. This ability means the capacity of a person to function in various social situations towards the satisfaction of his or her needs and the right to achieve maximum richness in his or her participation in society.

International Migrant: A person who changes his or her country of usual residence across the state boundaries and stay in the host state for some minimum amount of time.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter discusses existing literature relevant or related to the subject matter of discourse. The chapter begins with the conceptual framework of migration as the key variable of the study, wherein definitions, types, causes and consequences of youth migration are discussed.

2.1 Review of relevant concepts

2.1.1 The Concept of Migration

There is no universal agreement on the definition of the concept. According to Adewale (2015), migration refers to the movement of people from one geographical region to another, which may be on temporary or permanent basis. People migrate based on the prevailing conditions and the reasons for it vary from one person to another depending on the situation that brought about the decision. Migration is a selective process affecting individuals or families with certain economic, social, educational and demographic characteristics. To Todaro (2014) migration could be defined as the process whereby people move from one place to another in search for greener pastures.

According to the United Nations (2013), migration refers to people moving for various reasons to countries other than their usual residence, for a period of at least twelve months so that the country of destination effectively becomes the new country of usual residence. The UN (2016) noted that migration is generally consensual, although it

includes movement prompted by socio-economic or political circumstance. The International Organization on Migration (2014) defined migration as the movement of person or group of persons, either across international border or within a state. It is a population movement encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition or causes. Migration differs on the basis of duration, distance and organization and this makes classification into mutually exclusive categories rather difficult. This however, has made many writers to simply classify migration as either internal or external.

2.1.2 The Concept of Labour Migration

The concept of labour migration has plethora of definitions. Igbolo and Adaka (2017) noted that, this is due to confusion that arises in relation to the term "economic migrant" and "labour migrant". The term "labour migrant" seem to be more narrow and applied only to people changing their place of residence for the purpose of employment, while "economic migrant" can be applied to both narrow and broad sense. In the narrow sense, it applies to movement for the purpose of employment, while in the broad sense refers to people moving to other destinations for other types of economic activities such as investment or business (Igbolo & Adaka 2017; Abbass 2016). Labour migration is usually classified based on the duration of activities and regulations specifying conditions of admission and stay. Persons entering a country for training or educational purposes are included in some labour migration classifications since they are employment based with labour market consequences but excluded from others.

According to International Organization for Migration (2011), Labour migration is generally defined as a cross-border movement for purposes of employment in a foreign country. Thus, labour migration could be defined as movement of people from one place to another on either permanent or semi-permanent basis for the purpose of employment, investment or business.

2.1.3 Types of migration

There are various types of migration classification these are internal and international migration, voluntary and forced migration and permanent and temporary migration. Furthermore the phenomenon of migration has often been classified into various types on the basis of motivation, distance and time. Because of motivation migration depends on factors that make the migrants move.

Voluntary migration: The major reason for voluntary migration is economic. Almost all studies confirm that most of the migrants (excluding forced and sequential migration) have moved in search of better economic opportunities. Hence "migration is normally viewed as an economic phenomenon. Though noneconomic factors obviously have some bearing, most studies concur those migrants leave their area of origin primarily because of lack of economic opportunities, in the hope of finding better opportunities elsewhere" (Rana, 2016).

Voluntary migration may be temporary or permanent. One is a temporary migration either because he is unwilling to settle down permanently in the host country or because the circumstances in the host country do not permit him to be a permanent immigrant. Many

migrants to the Middle East, for example, have no inclination to settle down permanently. They would rather prefer to work there for some time and a large number of immigrants in different countries, including in the Middle East countries, who cannot extend their stay even if they would like to do so. Immigrant workers that are recruited on a contract basis will have to return once the contract period is over unless they succeed in getting another job and are permitted to extend their stay. Some countries hire labor from other countries for agriculture opportunities. Many of them may be regular migrants. Many countries admit temporary migrant labor on a systematic basis (Abbass, 2016). Throughout history, there has been movement of people across national boundaries for settling down in new places. However, the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries witnessed permanent inter-continental migration on a precedent scale (Todaro (2014).

Forced Migration: This is a type of migration occurring when people are forced by the states or some other political or military power. Forced migration is produced by power that one individual or group possess over another individuals, Example, slave trade have gone to Africa for countries, take people by force and making them live in another countries and repatriations and feeling of people due to political or religious persecution (Benda, 2014).

2.1.4. Causes of International Migration in Benin City

The causes of these dramatic change is due to the push and pull factor in Benin City the Capital City of Edo State, Nigeria and they include: (push factors) inadequate basic amenities, government neglect, inadequate 'white collar jobs', poor standard of living,

poor educational standard, high poverty lag, just to mention but a few. While pull factors are not limited to the following: improved standard of living, better amenities, better job opportunities, availability of government presence and the value of dollars against the naira. It is worthy of note that migration acts as a catalyst in the transformation process of not only in the destiny of individual migrant but also conditions of the family members left behind, both at the local communities and the wider sending region (Chukwuedozie, 2013).

Remittances and Societal Development

Development is about incremental and cumulative progress in various aspects of life: socio-cultural, moral, religious, intellectual, spiritual, political, economic and technological. It refers to progressive unfolding of the inner potentialities of a given reality. As it applies to a people, development is the integration of various activities of a people towards fulfilling the goal of better living in all its ramifications (Nzemeka & Erhagbe, 2002). By sending remittances, migrants directly participate in the development process. Remittances are used not only for the upkeep of the family but also in all developmental projects which may transcend the benefits of the immediate family.

A study by Oseni and Winter (2009), using a nationally representative dataset, showed that about 5.5% of the average household income in Nigeria is from such remittances and that households in the southern regions received more from remittances than their northern counterpart. Institute for Research and Training for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW 2008), in a study on gender, remittances and development in the Philippines

found that remittances contribute to improvement in food security of receiving households. Besides, the study also found a significant change in food consumption patterns - leading to increased consumption of quality foods and food away from home. Apart from the direct nutrition effects found by this study, some evidence of indirect effects on non-receiving households has been reported. Omorogiuwa and Imafidon (2017) indicate that poverty, absence and unequal distribution of wealth reduces participation of the citizens of Nigeria in the democratic process. Hence, remittances have aided societal development in no small measures both socially, politically and economically.

Remittances are considered an important and stable source of income for households in many countries because it is least affected by economic downturns and remains a stable source of family income and they have indeed transformed the way of life in many societies. Alfieri (2005) concluded from their study that there has been transformation from the traditional ways to a more modern system of operation as they (migrants) usually bring foreign culture and style to their home of origin. These remittances have contributed to modernization and socio-economic development in many villages through the introduction of modern equipment, such as mobile telephones, sophisticated household machines like microwave stoves, washing machines, satellite and cables television receivers, computers and other recent technological innovations (Omorogiuwa & Imafidon, 2017). Given the Central Bank of Nigeria's (CBN) report, the in-flow of remittances marginally declined in 2008, they nevertheless still played a significant role

in poverty alleviation at household level in 2009 during the economic crisis (CBN, 2007). A World Bank (2008) study found that remittance recipients are located predominantly in Nigeria's southeast and southwest regions where proceeds are used mainly in general family expenses, social security for the elderly, the disabled and orphans. Other areas of expenditure include education of relatives, repayment of loans taken to sponsor migration, business development and financing of already existing businesses, special occasions like funerals, weddings, pilgrimages and festival such as New Yam (among the Igbo in south-eastern Nigeria), Igue (among the Benin in Edo State) and Christmas and New Year celebrations. Remittances are also used in meeting family contributions to communal development projects in social and economic infrastructure. (Okodua, 2011).

Remittance and Social-Economic Development in Benin City

In synergizing the relationship between remittance and social economic development, it is worthy of note that there are indisputable welfare effects of remittances and wealth creation for citizens (Ratha, 2003; Omorogiuwa & Imafidon, 2017). First, remittances are an important source of income of many low and middle-income households in Benin City. Second, remittances provide the hard currency needed for importing scarce inputs that are not available domestically and also additional savings for economic development. For example areas like Isihor, Iguosa, Ovbiogie, Upper Sakpoba, Uteh, Ugbor, Asoro, Ogunmwenyin, Urarah, Egba, Iyorwa to mention but a few, are highly developed with good houses, business activities, schools and other house wares that were not hitherto in existence but are now conspicuously available. Ratha (2007) opines that remittances from

migrants have been seen to be crucial to the growth prospect of developing nations with potentially positive impact.

In the word of Primavera (2005) there are three (3) types of remittances: financial, food or goods and social remittances. The first refers to the money earned by migrants in region of destination, which they send to their family or friend in their places or origin. The second comes in the form of food stuffs especially for consumption or such items that can be sold or used by relations in their places of origin. Social remittances according to Levitt (1998) refer to ideas, behaviors, identities and social capital that flow from receiving to sending country communities vis versa. In all, the major essence of remittance by migrants is for development (whether physical, social or otherwise), be it in the family, society or community. Adaawen (2013) observed in a study conducted in Ghana, that 60% of the entire respondents used for the study said that the monies they remitted were used to purchase food and for the upkeep or maintenance of the household. This finding according to Adaawen (2013), support the ideas of Dietz (2004). Some studies have stated the benefit of remittance which include social transformation (Sadoh & Alenkhe, 2014), physical transformation such as erecting structures as residential buildings, hospitals etc. (Alenkhe & Longe, 2015).

According to Iheanacho and Ughaerumba (2015) migration can be traced to the existence of the first set of humans on earth. Migration has taken various patterns such as slave trade, colonization, urbanization, industrialization and globalization. Movement of persons (migrants) from one place to another has been a trend adopted by various

individuals. International Migration in Nigeria can be traced from the pre-colonial era (precisely slave trade era) to colonial era. Although the nation-state was not recognized as Nigeria as at then as it had a kingdom and empire structure. This made it difficult to be described as internal or international structure. The most important is to note that migration in Africa (Nigeria) can be traced to this era. During these eras migration was both forced and voluntary. In Nigeria, during the 1960s International Migration became the new trend and was at its increase as Nigerians and other Africans left their respective states for Europe while the South-South pathways of migration also existed, as Africans migrated to various parts of West African neighbouring states mostly for trade purposes (regional integration). According to Fayomi (2013) International Migration is mostly influenced by economic reasons which can be for employment, trade purposes, high favourable standard of living and fair weather conditions for agriculture among other reasons.

Tacoli and Okali (2001) also explained international migration to be a feature of globalization as the world is interconnected and interdependent on each other. This reveals that international migration is the movement across international borders or nation-states. The literature went further in confirming the statement earlier made that international migration can positively contribute to sustainable development of nation states. International Migration is the movement of individuals from one international boundary to another. Individuals who move from one place to another are known as Migrants. International Migration involves two set of individuals, these are the irregular

migrants and regular migrants. WHO (2007) also reveals that movement of individuals (migrants) from one boundary to another has been on its increase. This international migration activity can be engaged nationally and regionally. International migration can be permanent or temporary. CREAM (2011) validates the statement that international migration can trigger creativity, innovation, trade, entrepreneurship among others development

Push and pull factors of migration

Pull factors: Migrations are drawn increasingly to countries by the following factors; Developed countries, or industrialized city areas within countries, draw labor from countries or areas where incomes are lower. International transport has never been easier to access information. Falling birth rates in developed countries contribute to labor shortages and skills gaps. Extra people are required when there is rapid economic expansion. People are drawn to stable democracies where human rights and religious freedoms are more likely to be respected. Many people in other parts of the world speak English. Youth people move in order to get better jobs or improve their qualifications, including their language skills (Dovlo, 2016).

Push factors: Negative factors at home add to the reasons why people feel compelled to move. Lack of prospects for career advancement, poverty and low income, high unemployment rates, persecution and poor human rights, internal conflict and war, natural disasters, climate change and famine are the main push factors. Other push factors include primitive conditions, natural disasters, poor medical care, as well as slavery and

political fear. Push factors come in many forms. Sometimes these factors leave people with no choice but to leave their country of origin. Below are three examples of push factors that drive people to emigrate from their home countries Todaro (2014).

Lack of jobs/ poverty; economic factors provide the main motivation behind migration. In fact, according to the International Labor Organization, approximately half of the total population of current international migrants, or about 100 million migrant workers, have left home to find better job and lifestyle opportunities for their families abroad (International Labor Office of the Director-General, 2008). In some countries jobs simply do not exist for a great deal of the population. In other instances, the income gap between sending and receiving countries is great enough to warrant a move. Civil strife /war/ political and religious persecution; some migrants are impelled to cross national borders by war or persecution at home. These immigrants may be considered refugees or asylum seekers in receiving countries. According to the next put forth by the convention, a refugee is "someone who is unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion" (Fadayomi, 2016).

Socio-political Factors

Social push factors can include ethnic, religious, racial, and cultural persecution. Warfare, or the threat of conflict, is also a major push factor. In the Australian context, most asylum seekers arriving by boat in the last decade have come from Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq and Sri Lanka. All of these countries, apart from Iran, have undergone extremely

destabilising conflicts in recent years. On the other hand, while it is free of violent conflict, Iran has one of the worst human rights records in the world leading many of its citizens to seek asylum outside of its borders (United Nations, 2013). The politicisation of religious and ethnic identities has the potential to cause significant levels of conflict within states. Empirical evidence suggests that states undergoing a political transition from authoritarian rule to democracy are at greater risk of instability and internal conflict. Often these states lack the ability to properly respond to social instability. Several states within the Indian Ocean Region (IOR), including Burma, have recently begun to democratise while failing to simultaneously develop a shared national identity capable of tying together the various groups within their borders. In socially diverse states the potential for conflict may be greater than in more homogenous or inclusive societies. The future level of migration from these countries is wholly dependent upon the longevity and severity of any conflict that could arise from social grievances (United Nations, 2013). Individuals migrating due to social or political conditions are more likely to do so as humanitarian migrants. This will have an impact upon where they settle as some countries have more liberal approaches to humanitarian migrants than others. In the first instance, these individuals are likely to move to the nearest safe country that accepts asylum seekers. This does not, however, prevent them from undertaking a second migration to a country that provides a broader range of legal rights to asylum seekers and refugees (United Nations, 2016).

Economic Factors

Economic factors relate to the labour standards of a country, its unemployment situation and the overall health of its economy. If economic conditions are not favourable and appear to be at risk of declining further, a greater number of individuals will probably emigrate to one with a better economy. Often this will result in people moving from rural to urban areas while remaining within the confines of their state borders. As the low- and middle-income countries of today continue to develop and the high-income countries experience slower economic growth, migration from the former could decline (Dovlo, 2016).

Economic migrants are drawn towards international migration because of the prospect of higher wages, better employment opportunities and, often, a desire to escape the domestic social and political situation of their home country. These migrants are most likely to come from middle-income countries where the population is becoming increasingly well educated. Salaries and wages, however, are likely to remain relatively low compared to those of individuals with a similar educational background in other, higher-income countries. This disparity has the potential to lead to some highly-skilled individuals from developing countries migrating to more developed countries. This form of migration is known as south-north migration and has historically been the main form of economic migration.

In south-north migration, individuals from developing countries moved to more developed countries for work and sent remittances back to their country of origin. Over the past decade, however, south-south migration has become increasingly common. In 2013, south-south migration accounted for 36 per cent of all international migration while south-north movements accounted for 35 per cent. According to the Migration Policy Institute, migration between developing countries is built upon proximity, identity networks, income differentials and seasonal migration. For these reasons, 80 per cent of south-south migration occurs between states with contiguous borders where common cultural identities are likely to be found.⁴ The increasing prevalence of south-south economic migration is likely to continue as the barriers to migration are lower than south-north migration (Harzig, 2017). Migrants from the south are generally less skilled and lower-educated than their counterparts from the north, making it difficult for them to migrate to more developed countries. Additionally, since migration occurs over smaller geographical distances it is potentially less disruptive to migrants and communities (United Nations (2016)).

Technological advancement, both in communications and transport, in addition to the liberalisation of labour markets, has the potential to increase the rate of circular migration. This form of migration occurs when individuals migrate between an origin and a destination on several separate occasions. Generally, economic forces motivate individuals to move to countries where employment prospects are better before returning to their country of origin. Studies have shown that circular migration can have positive

development outcomes. Most importantly, circular migrants are more likely to send larger remittances back to their country of origin than those who permanently settle within their destination country. Furthermore, issues relating to brain drain and a hollowing out of the labour force are largely averted. Problems of exploitation still remain, suggesting that efforts need to be made to ensure that standardised regulations are adopted to protect the rights of circular migrants.

Economic migrants have a greater degree of choice in determining their destination than humanitarian migrants. Many asylum seekers will flee to the nearest safe country that will accept them whereas economic migrants will move to countries that either require their skills or have better conditions than their country of origin. Pull factors within the destination country are therefore more likely to influence the decision making process of economic migrants. (Harzig, 2017)

Ecological Factors: Climate Disruption Exacerbates Other Forces

Of the ecological factors that push individuals to migrate, climate change is, arguably, the most serious. Over the next decade, climate change has the potential to intensify the impacts of the social, political and economic push factors described earlier in this paper. Even if individuals affected by climate change move only short distances this has the potential to alter social, political and economic dynamics. The possibility of social issues arising increases when tribal, ethnic and religious groups that were historically separate are forced to intermingle due to traditional lands no longer being able to support human

settlement. Individuals engaged in agriculture, for example, could be forced to find alternative forms of employment as their land is no longer capable of producing or sustaining viable quantities of goods. Food and water prices are likely to increase in parts of the region due to greater scarcity of these resources. These burdens place additional strain upon the capacity of the state to ensure welfare for all and, in some cases, maintain its stability (United Nations, 2016).

The observable impacts of climate change are likely to become more apparent over the course of the next decade. States must utilise this time to prepare for the increased migratory flows that will be a consequence of the inevitable disruption that will occur over the next century. Climate change will have an impact upon water resources, agriculture, food security, public health and, in some instances, threaten the very existence of some states. The impacts of climate change will be most apparent in developing countries which lack the wherewithal to adequately address, or adapt to, the changing environment.

Food and water security are expected to become more salient issues over the coming decades. The most recent Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change report suggests that climate change will have its largest impact upon food security by the middle of this century. Regions that can no longer sustain agriculture are likely to experience rural to urban migration or, in some cases, increased levels of international emigration. Another factor that can worsen food insecurity is water security. Increasing water insecurity in

parts of the IOR, especially, has the potential to influence international migration (Copper, 2014).

Individuals who are severely impacted by changing ecological conditions may choose to migrate from their home state in search of more favourable environmental conditions elsewhere. Those who choose to emigrate due to more frequent or more destructive natural disasters may identify as climate refugees and seek asylum in other countries less affected by climatic extremes. Climate refugees are defined as 'people who have to leave their habitats immediately or in the near future, because of sudden or gradual alterations in their natural environment related to at least one of three impacts of climate change: sea-level rise, extreme weather events, and drought and water scarcity.' This definition, however, has no standing in international refugee law and organisations, including the United Nations, prefer to use the term environmental migrant. Fearing that it is now too late to take action to prevent climate change the international community is preparing measures for adaptation. Environmental migration is one such adaptation measure that must be taken into greater consideration by the international community (McDowell, 2015).

2.1.5 Policies and Migration

Policy makers perceive population movements as a threat to stability, or a challenge to established lifestyles. Rural-urban migration, and the consequent urbanization, is regularly portrayed as undesirable. Pinto, formerly at the Economic Commission for

Latin America, wrote in 2004 that "any Latin American of my generation has seen with his own eyes the transformation of cities which two or three decades ago were hospitable and attractive, and which today are laboring under the well-known evils of metropolitan congestion and deterioration." The Chinese revolutionary model, according to Fei (Roberts, 2017) "with Chinese characteristics ... ensures that our peasants will never repeat the experience of those farmers who during the early stage of capitalism flooded into the cities after going bankrupt." Though extreme controls have been abolished, China still fears its 'floating population'. Similarly, Ethiopia's current government has not given up the hope to immobilize the population (McDowell 2015). But also in other countries, migration is not always welcomed. The Purulia District Plan in West Bengal in India saw migration as a 'menace' (Rogaly, 2017), and many more examples of this can no doubt be found. In Rwanda also negative images of migrants in cities continue to prevail where urban infrastructure, and social and political order start to buckle under the strain of massive rural influx, urban planners are worried because of the increased demands migrants place on health service, water, electricity, and public transport. Migrants are blamed, for causing, the rise in crime rates and also an upsurge in HIV/AIDS as a result of prostitution.

2.1.6 Migration as a driver of economic growth and poverty reduction

There seems to be little doubt that migration can reduce poverty and stimulate economic growth. While the evidence is most clear in situations where economies are growing rapidly as in Asia, other contexts present a more mixed picture with both push and pull

factors operating, creating less accumulative types of migration as seen in African countries with stagnant economics. For example Afsar (2013) argues that migration has reduced poverty directly and indirectly in Bangladesh as remittances have expanded the area under cultivation and rural labor markets by making land available for tenancy. Similarly two studies in Thailand by Guest (2008) show that remittances are an important supplement to household income and have a multiplier effect on the economy with many major items of expenditure such as construction materials and labor being obtained locally. A study conducted in the Mekong delta area also illustrates the positive multiplier effects of migration and the important role that it has played in the development of the entire Mekong Delta region (ADB, 2013). There the development of infrastructure raised the productivity of agriculture which created a demand for migrant labor and the remittances sent by them helped people staying behind. Anh (2015) draws similar conclusions based on data from Bangladesh, China, Vietnam and Philippines. Anh (2015) further notes that migration is a driver of growth and an important route out of poverty with significant positive impacts on people's livelihoods. The author concludes that attempts to control mobility will be counterproductive.

Migration as a livelihood strategy

The linkage between migration and its contribution to livelihoods can be best conceptualized using the sustainable livelihoods framework (SLF). The livelihoods framework is a tool to improve our understanding of livelihoods, particularly the livelihoods of the poor. It was developed over a period of several months by the

sustainable Rural Livelihoods Advisory Committee, building on earlier work by the Institute of Development Studies. It's one way of "organising" the complex issues surrounding poverty. It's not the only way, but it needs to be modified, adapted, made appropriate to local circumstances, made appropriate to local priorities (DFID, 2001). This framework recognizes five categories of assets which form the basis of the lives of rural people namely natural, physical, financial, human and social capitals. These are used to sustain livelihood activities for the household. The model also assesses the Vulnerability Context of livelihoods. This refers to shocks, trends and seasonality with their potential impact on people's livelihoods, while policies, institutions and processes on the other side comprise the context of the political and institutional factors and forces in government and the private and the civil sectors that affect livelihoods (DFID, 2016).

Skeldon (2017) observe that to ask why people migrate is to assume that movement is anomalous and that sedentary life is the norm. Yet it is rare for anyone to spend his/her entire life without ever venturing out of their village or ward and the most serious punishment that most societies impose on their members is to restrict movement through imprisonment. For Skeldon (2017) a more logical question to ask in this situation is "Why do people not migrate?" However, because of the volumes and impact that migration has, scholars have not been deterred from investigating the causes of migration by such arguments.

2.1,7 Globalisation as a cause of migration

Globalisation has been accused of being both the trigger for and facilitator of migration and especially labour migration. A useful analysis of this is provided by Suarez-Orozco and Suarez-Orozco (2015) who attempt to establish a clear relation between migration and globalisation. They present the following as ways in which globalisation interacts with migration:

- Globalisation affects the development of economies differently producing success stories in some, and disasters in others, hence creating conditions for migration by accentuating the migration gradient
- The new information and communication technology, which is at the heart of the current state of globalisation, tends to stimulate migration by encouraging new cultural expectations, tastes, consumptions and practices whose satisfaction is usually only found elsewhere.
- The availability and affordability of mass transportation is another characteristic of globalisation. This avails people with a variety of options for migration.
- Deeply globalised countries have built their economies around the assumption of the availability of the "foreign" worker who is willing to do dull, dirty and dangerous work.
- Labour tends to allow trans-national capital flows which are a major characteristic of globalisation and thus stimulate migration.

the fact that globalisation bestows success on some countries and disaster on others is well documented (Shivji, 2012) and has been alluded to above. Countries in the South and especially those in Africa, have tried to take advantage of the process of globalisation but have been left to bear the brunt of the negative effects of globalisation, which include the destruction of local communities and local livelihoods, a weakened state that is unable to meet the social needs of its citizens, capital flight, loss of skilled manpower, polarisation due to a widening income gap in the population, cultural confusion, ecological degradation and environmental disasters (Shivji, 2012:104). The success stories in countries located mainly in the North on the other hand, tell of gains in economic growth, human advancement indices and in public awareness of human rights and democracy Sibanda, 2015. By increasing the disparities that exist in living and working conditions between countries, a greatly steepened migration gradient is created resulting in a potential for huge migration flows.

New information and communication technology (ICT) is at the heart of globalisation and is seen by some experts as the defining feature of the current economic system (Shivji, 2012). The ICTs have shaped the values, tastes and consumption patterns of millions of people worldwide. In Africa (and among the critical thinkers) globalisation has been accused of cultural imperialism by spreading Eurocentric social and economic values through the use of satellite broadcasts and internet and mobile phones (Shivji, 2012). After exposure to these foreign values, African youths develop foreign tastes and consumption patterns and usually seek fulfilment by migrating to regions where these

ewly acquired tastes can be satisfied (Mlumo, 2012). It is through the same ITCs that migrants can now easily access information about destination countries regarding their rules of entry, residence and differentials in income and opportunities (Weiner, 2015). Globalisation has introduced an affordable and fast means of transport and so availed people who want to migrate with several safe options of travel. Referring to the ease of travel in the contemporary phase of globalisation Martin and Taylor (2011) talk of a "transport revolution" in which the cost of travel has decreased tremendously and the convenience increased geometrically. Weiner (2015) also note that there has been a steady decline in the cost of transport with the evolution of globalisation since the mid-1800s.

Dull, dirty and dangerous work in many countries is reserved for migrants. This type of work is on the main monotonous and mechanical and is done under the least favourable conditions and migrant workers are usually the only workers prepared to do this work as their primary concern is to merely enter the labour market and such jobs often offer them a foot in the door (Harzig., 2009). Suarez-Orozco and Suarez-Orozco (2015) explain that migrant workers are usually perceived as more reliable, flexible, punctual and willing to work over time, and the recruiting agencies find them apparently easier to recruit and deliver to employers. In truth the migrant worker is usually easier to manipulate and exploit than the native worker because the migrant might not have the union protection that native workers enjoy. Trimikliniotis, Gordon and Zondo (2008) have argued that migrant workers are found in large numbers in certain sectors of South Africa's labour

because they are easier to exploit than native workers who have various unions and political partiesguarding against exploitation.

capital and especially finance tends to flow rapidly around the globalised world, and the technology exists to make this possible. Labour as part of that capital must also move with the other forms of capital. However, this can only be done within certain restrictions. The fact that the movement of labour is not as free as that of other forms of capital is well documented (Suarez-Orozco 2015) It is the skilled component of labour that is usually allowed to be mobile. Serious restrictions are placed on the migration of the unskilled component of labour through the immigration policies of countries and these policies "only encourage certain types of migrants based on employability, financial means, language means and cultural capital in general" (Mooney & Evans, 2007). It is therefore an erroneous assumption to think that all capital is equally free to move around the world.

2.1.8 Major Challenges Faced by Returnees/Deportees from other Countries

Psychosocial Effects of Deportation on the Individual

In addition to the trauma, violence or abuse experienced prior to migration or during detention, many immigrants who are deported return to extremely dangerous and often turbulent environments in their countries of origin. Some even face torture, abuse, rape, or murder. Researchers at the Global Migration Project developed a database recording people who had been deported and then faced death or other harms (Stillman, 2018). The

researchers contacted more than two hundred local legal-aid organizations, domestic violence shelters, immigrants' rights-groups nationwide, as well as migrant shelters, humanitarian operations, law offices, and mortuaries across Central America, and also interviewed several families (Stillman, 2018). Their database includes numerous cases where deportations resulted in harm, including kidnapping, torture, rape, and murder (Stillman, 2018). This is especially important to consider given 79% of families screened in family detention centers have a "credible fear" of persecution if they returned to the countries from which they migrated (US Citizenship and Immigration Services, 2016).

Psychosocial Effects of Deportation on Family Members

Nearly 10% of US families with children have at least one member without citizenship, and 5.9 million US citizen children have at least one caregiver who does not have authorization to reside in the United States (Mathema, 2017; Romero, 2003). Therefore, deportation policies and procedures affect many U.S. citizens. Several studies provide evidence that the forcible separation of a family is associated with negative psychosocial effects for children and other family members (Capps, 2015; Chaudhary, 2010; Dreby, 2012; Hagan, 2011; National Council of La Raza, 2007). Indeed, we would expect the effects to be severe for these families since separation is not by choice and often occurs suddenly and unexpectedly, with little preparation or planning (Brabeck, 2012; Dreby, 2012). In this section, we discuss effects on children and the family unit.

the effects of sudden and forcible separation of a parent due to deportation on children are considerable. In a study of 190 children in 85 immigrant families across six US cities or towns spanning from the west coast to the south, Chaudhary and colleagues (2010) concluded that children faced serious challenges due to deportation of a parent, including economic hardship, housing instability, food insecurity, and separation from parents. Children experienced behavioral changes in eating and sleeping habits, and emotional changes such as increased crying, anxiety, anger, aggression, withdrawal, and a heightened sense of fear. These outcomes were still present six months later. In another study of 91 parents and 110 children in 80 households in Ohio and New Jersey, results were similar (Dreby, 2012). A third study conducted in three cities after immigration raids also showed consistent results, with children feeling abandoned, isolated, fearful, traumatized, and depressed (Capps, Castaneda, Chaudry, & Santos, 2007). In fact, in a comprehensive review of the literature that ranged from 2009-2013, Capps and colleagues (2015) discerned that children experienced psychological trauma, material hardship, residential instability, academic withdrawal, and family dissolution after the deportation of a family member. Children who were present at the moment a parent was detained tended to have greater emotional, cognitive, and behavioral effects (Chaudhary et al., 2010). Furthermore, after a deportation, older children often needed to take on jobs to help support the family, which impacted school performance, persistence, and retention.

the family unit is also greatly impacted by deportation. The majority of those deported are men (TRAC Immigration, 2014). When this person is a father, frequently mothers become single parents, often with no or little income, and sometimes facing large legal bills (Dreby, 2012). Indeed, a study of immigration enforcement in six US locations between 2006 and 2009 found that families lost 40 to 90% of their income, or an average of 70%, within six months of a parent's immigration-related arrest, detention, or deportation (Capps et al., 2016). Given this context, mothers often work long hours, frequently at more than one job, which results in reduced contact with their children. Older children often become primary caregivers to younger siblings due to lack of affordable child care options. Moreover, parents fear losing custody of their children because of their new circumstances or threats made by immigration officials (Brabeck, 2012; Dreby, 2012). Furthermore, deported parents find it difficult to find work that would enable them to help support their families who are still in the US, which is demoralizing. This new circumstance, coupled with the trauma and stigma of the deportation, may make it difficult to maintain contact with children. A diminished emotional connection, combined with attachment-related issues brought on by a sudden separation, can effectively sever father-child and husband-wife relationships (Dreby, 2012; Hagan, 2010; Zayas & Bradley, 2014). Because of these dynamics, it is often mothers who bear the largest burdens after a deportation. Even if the family is reunited, effects of the forced separation on all family members often remain (Brabeck, 2012; Dreby, 2012; Hagan, 2010). The effects of potential parental deportation on U.S. citizen

children are arguably complex; however, in one study, children who accompanied their deported parents back to Mexico described profound adjustment difficulties, including a sense of loss regarding their future and the resources available to them (Guibas & Zayas, 2017).

These impacts extend beyond the nuclear family to grandparents and other relatives. Three of four Latinx grandparents co-parent with their grandchild's parent(s) (Fuller-Thompson & Minkler, 2007). Moreover, more than 4.4 million children live in grandparent-headed households, thousands of whom are US citizen grandchildren of unauthorized grandparents. With the number of grandchildren being raised by grandparents on the rise and higher than it has ever been in this country, grandparent deportation is of great concern. Zug (2009) estimates that thousands of grandparents who are primary caregivers to US citizen grandchildren are at risk for deportation. Grandparent-headed households already face more challenges than parent-headed households, including higher rates of poverty and stressful life events with fewer resources (Fuller-Thompson & Minkler, 2007). Although grandparent caregivers experience these challenges, their grandchildren do much better than those placed into foster care, and grandparent caregiving is associated with more positive grandchild psychological wellbeing and healthy development across the lifespan (Copen, 2006). When grandparents face deportation, their grandchildren may not only lack a primary caregiver (if their grandparent is co-parenting), but may lose their only caregiver and be placed in foster care, putting them at risk for multiple placements and poorer outcomes.

the effects on children and other family members when another family member is deported are exacerbated by limited mental health services. Furthermore, when they are available, there are still barriers to accessing resources (Capps, 2015). These barriers range from a lack of therapists who are able to provide culturally-informed services, to a lack of insurance coverage, to unfamiliarity with therapy and mistrust of local services due to the deportation that has occurred (Brabeck & Xu, 2010; Hagan, 2011).

psychosocial Effects of Deportation on Communities

When someone is deported in the broader community, research indicates that others in that community become fearful and mistrustful of public institutions, reducing adult and child attendance and participation in churches, schools, health clinics, cultural activities, and other vital social services designed with public health in mind (Capps, 2011; Hagan, 2010, 2011; Vargas, 2015). For example, a national study of mothers found that an increase in risk of deportation is associated with a decrease in Medicaid use, which has negative consequences for children's health and wellbeing in the short- and long-term (Vargas, 2015). Moreover, immigrants reduce their participation in the life of the community, including reducing visits to parks, libraries, restaurants, and other community events (Hagan, 2011). This lack of social integration likely has significant negative effects on immigrants and their communities. Indeed, Social integration promotes a sense of wellbeing and purpose in individuals' lives and is associated with lower risk of overall cancer and mortality, lower rates of cardiovascular disease, less

J. "unctional decline and distress, and lower psychological distress and suicide risk (Ber • kman Glass, Brissette, & S ccmn, 2000; Dalgnd & Thapa, 2007; Ungar, 2009).

When deportations occur, fearfulness and mistrust extends to public safety officials. Specifically, trust has broken down between Latinx communities - particularly Latinx immigrant communities - and local law enforcement. The breakdown is acute when local officials are involved in immigration actions through 287(g) agreements or other policies (Hagan et al., 2010, 2011; Theodore, 2013). These agreements expect local law enforcement to act as federal immigration agents, which makes entire immigrant communities mistrustful of local authorities, which has implications for community safety. Specifically, families report being unwilling to call police for any reason after a deportation (Dreby, 2012; Sladkova, Mangado, & Quinteros, 2012). Indeed, results from a telephone survey in four cities indicate that unwillingness to call the police is strongest for those who are unauthorized, with 70% surveyed reporting that they would not call police even if they were victims of crimes (compared to 44% of Latinx people who were documented immigrants or US citizens; Theodore, 2013). In other studies, families and children reported fear of all police due to their role in deportation and forced family separation (Brabeck et al., 2012; Dreby, 2012). The proliferation of ICE activity has also disrupted the notion of "safety" that once characterized neighborhood schools (Crawford, 2017) and other city/municipal resources, such as hospitals (Martinez, 2015), that were safeguarded from federal immigration enforcement. In fact, one survey of primary care and emergency care providers found that 48% reported that ICE activity negatively

impacted patient access^S, further attesting to how I E activity should be considered a social determinant to health (Bocker, Chu, Arsenault, & Marlin, 2012).

In addition to affecting public life, individual wellbeing for others in the community where the deportation occurred is also affected. The threat of deportation could come *from* many different places, including simply hearing about the deportation of another person in the broader community, the news, or the internet. For example, 18 immigrant adults from Guatemala and Honduras who were living in Massachusetts and Rhode Island were interviewed one year after an immigration raid in the region (Brabeck, 2012). These adults reported that they were emotionally affected by deportations and threat of deportations in the broader community. They discussed sadness, fatigue, feeling hopeless, anxious, fearful, mistrustful, worried, and hypervigilant. They also experienced nightmares and weight fluctuations (Brabeck, 2012). In fact, the majority of those interviewed (67%) described fears that occurred on a daily basis. The constant anxiety and psychological stress associated with fear of deportation for oneself, family members, or others in the community is also related to cardiovascular risk factors (Martinez, 2017; Torres, 2018). For example, a study in California with 545 Mexican-origin women found a significant link between fear of deportation and cardiovascular risk factors, such as greater body mass index, greater risk of obesity, larger waist circumference, and higher pulse pressure (Torres, 2018).

parents also report negative effects for their children. In a study where 132 Latinx immigrant adults living in the northern or eastern US were surveyed two years after an immigration raid, those who had a greater level of deportation vulnerability (i.e., were unauthorized and had been detained or deported in the past, or had a family member who had been deported) noted more negative outcomes for their children, such as poorer school performance and emotional well-being for fear of deportation (Braback & Xu, 2010). These results are consistent with the aforementioned study with immigrants from Guatemala and Honduras. Many of these parents (44%) discussed the threat of deportation of a family member being related to their children's poorer academic grades, depression and anxiety symptoms, and behavioral distress.

It is not only parents who have noted negative effects for children after community raids. Indeed, children's fear and shame have been documented in ethnographic research (Dreby, 2012). Often, community narratives around deportation are vague and abstract, potentially leading children to think that anyone who is an immigrant can be easily deported. Indeed, of the 110 children interviewed in this study, 29 were unauthorized but almost all 110 talked about the possibility of deportation for themselves or a family member (Dreby, 2012). These fears of deportation transcended legal status, and if the child knew someone who had been deported or not. For many, this fear was connected to shame and secrecy; children were ashamed to be or to have family members who were immigrants due to social stigma and fear of deportation. These outcomes, widespread for the children interviewed regardless of contact with the Department of Homeland Security

deportation processes, were "devoting for children's identity and sense of self," as well as their overall wellbeing (Draby, 2012),

2.1.9 Intervention to Address Migration

Migration is a complex issue which requires and demands steadfast commitments for all stakeholders and actors in the migration processes and solutions. Nation-states, regional and international organizations, and the global communities play a critical role in searching and finding a successful rational, legal, political, economic, and ethical outcomes in migration approaches. These approaches and solutions are not conclusive nor claim absolute recourse as to what migration entails and demands but just a theoretical supposition in achieving a win-win outcome in dealing with the migration issue.

The migration crisis is a crisis every nation and state currently grapple with or potentially would struggle with in the future. Migration does not exempt or spare any country of it happening in reality Ambroso (2012). Eventually, migration catches up with them unknowingly and unconsciously, but before they know it, it is already too late as migration already reaches its crisis proportions.

Migration demands an honest and unwavering commitment to countries involved in the migration crisis, from the countries as the point of origin to the countries as the point of destination. Entering and coming into terms with bilateral agreements or if more than two countries are involved, engaging in a multilateral agreements and if there are several

tries are affected, forging and ink in' . . .
cot1fl g on international agreements which regulates the
enient of people, rescue proccct
r,10" ure^s, safety embankments, and human rights
tion and all other matters link . . .
protec with migration. There are a growing clamor and
se for bilateral, multilateral and . . .
respon ' international agreements on migration to avert the
nse sea tragedies, which migrant fu
jt11tle re gees are the victims and some countries
carrying the brunt of the blame while exonerating other countries which have a greater
moral obligation to fulfill in saving the lives of innocent people. Migration is a collective
responsibility and an international responsibility not only of few countries which migrant
refugees happen to choose as the safe haven by accidental circumstances. Interstate
agreements are needed to guarantee rescue at sea and safe disembarkation, as well as
arrangements for reception and screening. States that practice interception at sea need to
be held accountable for the protection of migrant's rights and organizations should be
wary of participating in or lending their imprimatur to ad hoc measures which undermine
state responsibility (Kumin, 2014)

It is necessary that the line of coordination, communication, and cooperative functions of
sending states and receiving states remains open, transparent, and accountable without
occurrences of negligence, ignorance, and predilection to their duty and obligation to
save and rescue the lives of people in peril at the sea. Every passenger needs to be
screened and accounted for without prejudice and discrimination.

This places a great and enormous responsibility on resettlement countries to strengthen its commitment and resolve to help refugees who are reaching their soil with a yearning for better life. The successful outcomes of these migration agreements rests on the extent and degree of engagement and commitment that the receiving state or host state are willing to participate and how willing they are to take a tangible response and swift actions in addressing the migration crisis. Ambrosio (2012) emphasized the cogent role that resettlement countries perform in combating the migration crisis when he pointed out that: Resettlement to a third country is dependent on commitments made by resettlement countries to offer refugees this solution. Unfortunately, most European resettlement countries, which have relatively speedy resettlement procedures, did not substantially increase their resettlement quotas to cater for this emergency beyond what was previously planned, in spite of a UNHCR-led Global Resettlement Solidarity Initiative and a crisis that was unfolding on the shores of the Mediterranean.

Increasing the refugees' quota therefore can help resettlement countries greater flexibility and greater mobility for migrant refugees. However, putting tighter and increase restrictions on refugee quota, and even worst closing its sea borders, restrict and limit refugee access and mobility and leads to more death among migrant refugees while at sea. A scenario which Long and Crisp (2010) saw in advance. Meanwhile, however, states continue to impede the movement of both refugees and migrants across international borders. Increasing concern with border securitisation, the impact of global economic recession and rising domestic xenophobia have created a political cauldron of

. tolerance in both the North and the South. Asylum and migration space is shrinking; states perceive no immediate political advantages in allowing refugees' greater freedom of movement Crisp (2010).

It is important then that the sending state and the receiving state agree and concur as to what extent and size of refugees the sending state is actually sending and as to what extent and size of refugees the receiving state can actually house and accommodate. More importantly, the point of origin or the sending state needs to closely track and monitor the occurrences and movements of migration within its territory. It should check and regulate the illegal and clandestine operations and activities that syndicates and human traffickers perpetrate on innocent people who are hoping and dreaming to start a new lease of life in another place and time.

Migration happens primarily because of multifarious factors related to political, economic, social, and cultural handicaps and impediments. Through a myriad of developmental models and frameworks to decrease migration opportunities such as political reforms, bilateral and regional treaties and agreements, promotion of foreign direct investments, and official development assistance granted by one country are regarded to reduce emigration pressures (Martin, Martin & Weil, 2006). Political reform and political restructuring are integral parts in the elimination of migration opportunities. A nation or a state which embodies the ideals and aspiration of the people, protects their life, liberty, and property and promote the common good of the people such,

Joyment, health, education, security and n ety will solicit popular confidence and ular legitimacy. This makes ti le people Hu <1 Y on forego the chance of migration. A vernment that is willing to mct. go icoy ll change and Iron!iform to better the **lives** and portunities of its populace (in terms of . . . Job crealJon, adequate food and water supply, ess to medicines and hospitals, guarantee of basic rights and liberties, andensurea life and secure life) ll takes their peo 1 st ay put in their home soil and take out migration as part of their options.

2.1.10 Social Work Rehabilitation

The United States of America's National Association of Social Workers (NASW) Code of Ethics states that social workers must pursue Social change, particularly with and on behalf of vulnerable and oppressed individuals and groups of people. Deportees need many things to overcome the first few and very important challenges thrown on their paths on arrival in Nigeria for them to be able to survive the harsh terrain. It is not enough to merely release such persons to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or other relevant bodies after touching down in the country and also not the best way to help deportees overcome their pains (Olowu & Nwanna, 2018).

There is also the need to help deportees recognize possibilities in their environments that they otherwise may not see. Whilst, social work skills and processes are essential in any effort to drive the reintegration discussion, planning and intervention for any viable change to the situation faced by deported migrants are also important. It is not a mere gainsay that the major role of social work is to equip clients or targeted vulnerable group

with skills and coping mechanisms for living conditions and life experiences. In such, social work practitioners must be involved at the different institutions. With the help of other professional services that will contribute to their well-being (Schuster & Majidi, 2013).

Patricia (1988) in his ecological systems perspective identifies six distinct professional roles that will allow social workers to work effectively with five basic client systems such as the individual, the family, the small group, the organization, and the community. In these six professional roles, social workers serve as conferees, enablers, brokers, mediators, advocates and guardians. These six roles are:

1. As conferees, social workers serve as the primary sources of assistance to the deportees in problem solving. Their role may include gathering important documentation, writing detailed reports that can support their client case, and serving as a primary contact to law enforcement officials.
2. The enabler role focuses on actions taken when social workers structure, arrange, and manipulate events, interactions and environmental variables to facilitate and enhance system functioning. Thus, the practitioner may assist deportees to recognize and take advantage of their own strengths and powers of resilience even within a seemingly incapacitating milieu. The goal of social work practitioners within this context might be to help dissuade the fears, guide the deported migrant finding resources and how to utilize them in modifying their situations.

J. The broker role is action-oriented. When they provide goods and services or control the quality of workers connect the dots to valuable resources (2016). Social workers also work with newly arrived deportees to help them adjust to their new surroundings. This placement assistance, finding appropriate accommodation, supporting clients through social services referrals and much more. Social workers can alleviate some of the challenges of deportees by providing specialized counseling (Limestone College Social Work, 2016). Specialized counseling will help the deported migrants to recover and move on with their lives. Social workers will reorientate the deportees with our societal values and make them understand that there is indeed no place like home. Children who are deported alongside their parents or guardians must be immediately taken care of and provided with everything that would make them escape the impact of the experience. Social workers can also provide counseling for family members.

4. As mediators, social workers try to reconcile opposing or disparate points of views and to bring the contestants together in united action.
5. Social workers as advocates, secure services or resources on behalf of the deportees in the face of identified resistance or develop resources or services in cases where they are inadequate or non-existent. Advocacy role of social workers will help this group of people by enhancing their individual and collective wellbeing and helping

hell in the areas of social justice and human rights. Social workers may also become involved in advocacy related issues that impact this population. They help by designing and coordinating community support programmes, advocating for strong services and doing research that can inform and influence policy changes.

6. As guardians, social workers participate in a social control function or they take protective actions when deportees competency levels are deemed inadequate. Social workers may need to check deportees for any serious health issues and then their data collected for security, welfare and sundry purposes. These six roles are found to be very important in reintegrating deportees into their social systems. Importantly, social workers should apply the principles of acceptance and confidentiality particularly for deported women and young girls from Italy.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Scholars have sought to understand the causes, effects and influence of migration for a long time and in the process generated a wide spectrum of theories. However, these theories are unfortunately compartmentalised into several disciplines that enjoy very little interaction (Brettell, 2014). The disciplines that study migration are amongst others anthropology, history, demography, economics, geography, law, political science and sociology. Some of the more salient of the theories from the different disciplines are reviewed in this section.

2.1 The Historic Structural Approach

The historic structural approach is used on the neo-Marxist theory known as the world systems theory which was credited to Immanuel Wallerstein in 1974 (Wallerstein in 2014). Mooney and Evans (2017) explained that the contemporary world economic system is capitalist and is characterised by an unfair division of labour that produces unequal exchange relations between different geographical regions of the world. The World economic system is divided into three main geographical areas: The core, the semi-periphery and the periphery. The core is composed of economically and culturally dominant and industrialised countries that buy raw materials from the other countries (the semi-periphery and periphery countries) at low prices and then sell back finished products to the same countries at higher prices (Mooney & Evans, 2017). The semi-periphery is a group of countries that are exploited by the core but they in turn exploit the countries of the periphery in the same way that they themselves are exploited by the core.

The economic prosperity of countries in the core and semi-periphery is therefore achieved at the expense of those in the periphery.

The world systems perspective is a useful framework for a global approach to understanding the economics of migration (Ogbu, 2014). The historic structural approach is a macro approach that seeks to understand migration through the world systems perspective and postulates that migration is induced by the penetration of capital and investment into the periphery. These investments dislocate peripheral communities and

international migration towards the core (Ogbu, 2014). Investment in poorer regions disrupts local livelihoods and squeezes out indigenous corporations in preference for multinational ones, and also develops cost centres in the native population that can only be satisfied elsewhere. In this way it induces migration (Ogbu, 2014). The unequal terms of trade between the core and the periphery creates push factors in the periphery and pull factors in the centre which induces people from the periphery to migrate towards the core in order to try and improve the quality of their lives.

Critics of the historical structural approach accuse it of being too macro in approach and of ignoring the personal in the same way that the world systems theory does. In theory they say the individual is reduced to a passive respondent with no decision-making potential yet it is the individual that makes the conscious decision to emigrate (Brettell, 2008)

2.2.2 Push and pull factor theory

The push and pull factor theory is a neoclassic economic theory with modernisation theory undertones which migration theorists usually apply in an attempt to understand the decisions of both internal and international migrants. The neoclassic economic theory emphasises the economic factor in migration as it views migration as an economic phenomenon in which migrants weigh the cost and returns of current and future employment opportunities (Nkamleu & Fox, 2016).

In its simplest form, the push and pull factor theory postulates that less developed economies with their low salaries and poor standards of living push away workers, whilst

wages and better standards of living in the more developed regions pull them in (Weinberger, 2017). The migration of people from a region with low demands for labour and low wages to one with a high demand for labour and high wages is supposed to eventually equalise the wages and living conditions between the sending and receiving regions and hence such migration is beneficial to both the sending and receiving regions (Weinberger, 2015). When workers migrate out of any given region this reduces the labour supply in the local labour market and increases its value resulting in higher wages, therefore the out-migration of workers from a region is viewed as a beneficial thing for those left behind as it results in an increase in local wages. The push and pull factor theory has been criticised for being too simplistic and not taking all the factors that migrants consider when they migrate by only concentrating on the economics. It has, therefore, been modified to include a number of added pull and push factors.

Push factors (also referred to as supply factors) are the hostile conditions within source countries or regions that compel professionals and skilled workers to emigrate and seek employment elsewhere (Dovlo, 2016) The push factors identified in literature include: low salaries, job scarcity, crime and conflict, political repression, poor educational system, poor conditions of service, lack of progression within a career, lack of necessary technology and resources and limited chances of self-advancement (El-Khawas, 2014). Dovlo, (2016) identifies the roots of the push factors in the quest of an individual to protect self and family from sustained physical danger and the need to escape drastic and chronic declines in economic opportunities.

by people are deceived through
 prostitution. On the other hand, it is used for the purpose of exploitation and
 typically purchases services to circumvent immigration restrictions without necessarily

victim of deception or exploitation (Ong & Monginocchi, 2010).

Furthermore, the increase in irregular migration has clearly shown that borders are now

hard to control (Umoh, 2017). This is so because there are many ways the legal

immigration control can be circumvented with the help of migrants adopting often clandestine means to

legalize their stay.

According to Loschmann, Kuschmierz and Siegel (2017) An Individual can enter a country irregularly through four major means which are:

- i. entering a country without proper authority (that is, through the process of clandestine entry or with falsified documents;
- ii. entering with official approval but decide to stay beyond the length of approval;
- iii. abuse of the asylum system and
- iv. entering into a country with the assistance of smugglers and traffickers.

Considerably, most African migrants en route the Mediterranean adopt the third and fourth means. While they enter through the help of smugglers or traffickers, they use the asylum system as a foothold to legalize their stay.

In other words, of more importance in this paper is to understand the motivating factors or what UN (2017) called "the drivers" of migration. Evidence from the literature suggests that the motivations or reasons to engage in irregular migration are driven by

e factors and it is not trnccobl
 dI
 significant Driver of irregular migrnt'
 siS¹¹¹
 le engage in irregular migration
 peoP
 .ntion procedure which in turn en
 1111gr
 g crates Irrat1ona\ and risky Migration behaviors.
 ver, risky or life threatening inf
 (-{owe
 ormat1on does not seem to discourage migrant
 .15•1ons to migrate because anticipat d
 deC
 e opportunity, better life and secure future abroad
 • ues to outweigh the risks (To
 conun
 wnsend & Oomen, 2015). While prospective **migrate**
 payd deaf ear to risky information, m_ot of h_t e trusted information comes from so cial
 networks of peer and house hold members (that is, ally andconfidantes) (Costantino,
 2014).

The different drivers of migration may be categorize as: predisposing factors-which is
 influence by the social environment; proximate factors which implying direct influence
 on migration decisions and precipitating factors, which facilitate mobility. The evidence
 for how these different levels of decision interacts and that exactly serves as a "tipping
 point" for people to migrate remains v scarce (Mbaye,2014). Since the motivation to
 migrate cannot be explain by a single driver, so many scholars have attributed the drive to
 economic factor, poverty, social network, political instability/civil conflicts natural
 disasters and weather instabilities and policy (Oluyemi, 2015).

However, these drivers vary from continents to continents and from Nations to nation.

There are some drivers that are peculiar to some nations

ple economic opportunities. d
an poverty has been identify as one of the ma3or
at force people to migrate wheth
er through \ega\or \rregu\ar means in most part
rld especially the third world
nations. Again, po\itica\ instabi\ity, cw,\ con ,ct
insurgency represent a maJ-or mot'ivat'ion to migrate in some parts of North Af'n ca
as Li·bya and Northern Nigeria. H owever, these factors are not the mot'ivat'ion f'or
·gration in GhanaandSoulhern Nigeria. Also, natural disasters and weather Instabi\ities
as earth quakes, floods, volcanic eruptions, and hurricanes Represent the ma)or
tivation migrate in Asia and this is not a driver in Nigeria at a\ as many of the
ced persons as result of the Boko Haram, Herdsmen crisis and natural disasters like
ngend up in internally Displaced persons camp scattered around the country

CHAPTER II, F,

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This segment of the study deals with a description of the method employed in undertaking the study, which includes the research design, population and sampling technique, the research instruments, operationalization of variables, and the method of data analysis. All these sub-points are considered as follows:

3.1 Research Design

Survey research design will be used in this study. The survey research design is an efficient way of collecting information from a large number of respondents and the ability to use statistical techniques to determine statistical significance (Denscombe, 2003).

This research strategy is considered necessary because of its ability to view comprehensively and in detail the major questions raised in the study. We considered this method appropriate as it is useful for the study of non-observable events such as opinions, attitudes preferences or dispositions (Soyombo, 2002; Fubara & Mguni, 1995).

The design will be adopted because the study involves the use of a representative sample from the population and the drawing of conclusion based on the analysis of available data.

population of the Study

3.2

Population is the entire set or relevant portion of the population, of which we are interested. For the purpose of the study (Oaikhenun & Udegbumm, 2004). Since this study involves youth in Edo State, the population of this study is defined as all youth in Edo State.

3.3 sample Size and sampling techniques

In research, the probability sampling method was adopted. The probability sampling technique employed for this study is the simple random sampling technique through which questionnaires were administered to the randomly selected respondents. A sample of 100 respondents was randomly selected.

3.4 Research Instrument

The study will adopt questionnaire as the main instrument of data collection. The questionnaire consists of two sections, section A and section B. Section A contains Bio-data information of the respondents. While section B comprises of questions which the respondents are allowed to choose from, the options are as follows: SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SA = Strongly disagree. This is however accompanied with a covering letter of introduction to the various respondents.

3.5 Validity and Reliability of the Research Instrument

The validity of research instrument refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it was designed to measure. There are different types of validity. However, this researcher in a bid to ascertain the validity of his instrument presented the said instrument to his supervisor, and two other social workers; their comments, suggestions and criticisms

used to modify the initial research instrument. The research instrument in question was objected to test-retest reliability.

Method of Data Collection

Questionnaires were distributed by the researcher personally to the respondents. After administering the questionnaires to them, the researcher guided the respondents with regards to filling the questionnaires and they were advised to answer the questions honestly. The respondents were also informed that their responses would be treated with utmost confidentiality. All questionnaires that were distributed were filled and collected back for the purpose of analysis.

Method of Data Analysis

The statistical method used to analyse the data is the descriptive statistics; which consists of frequency count, simple percentage method, mean and standard deviation.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND

DATA ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS TESTING

4.0 Introduction

The researcher discussed relevant issues and established a credible empirical framework that is the focus of the study. We present the following results obtained from utilizing the various methodological investigations stated in this chapter. A total of 100 questionnaires were administered out of which 73 were returned by male respondents and 27 by female respondents. Hence, the researcher was able to retrieve all the instruments used and this represents 100% participation of the respondents based on the distributed questionnaire. Hence, the data analysis was conducted using simple percentage (%) statistical techniques to test the frequency of the personal data of the respondents and the frequencies of their responses to the research questions. This was to ensure simplicity and clarity of the responses.

4.1.2 Data on Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Sex

Sex distribution of the respondents				
	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Male	73	73.0	73.0	73.0
Female	27	27.0	27.0	27.0
	100	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Field work, 2024

From the table 4.1 above, the result shows the sex of the respondents. The result therefore revealed that there were more males than females, as female accounted for 27% of the population while males accounted for 73% of the population.

Table 4.1.3: Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
18-27	33	33.0	33.0	33.0
28-37	37	37.0	37.0	70.0
38-47	21	21.0	21.0	91.0
48 and above	9	9.0	9.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Fieldwork, 2024

From the table 4.1.3 above, the result shows the age of the respondents. The result therefore revealed that respondents who were 18-27 years accounted for 33% of the population, respondents who were 28-37 years accounted for 37% of the population, respondents who were 38-47 years accounted to 21% while 48 years and above accounted for 9% of the population. This shows that the respondent who were between 28-37 years were more of the population.

Table 4.1.4: Distribution of Respondents by Religion

Religion Status of the respondents				
	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Christianity	91	91.0	91.0	91.0
Islam	8	8.0	8.0	99.0
Others	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field work, 2024

From the table 4.1.4 above, the result shows the religion of the respondents. 91% of the respondents were Christians, while 5% of the respondents belonged to Islam and 1% to other religion.

Table 4.1.5: Distribution of Respondents by Educational Level

Levels of education of the respondents				
	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Primary School	23	23.0	23.0	23.0
Secondary School	49	49.0	49.0	72.0
NCE/OND	17	17.0	17.0	89.0
Bachelors/HND	10	10.0	10.0	99.0
Post-graduate	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Fieldwork, 2024

Table 4.1.5 shows the respondents who have primary school leaving certificate as their highest educational attainment, these respondents constitute 23.0% (24 respondents) of the total size. Respondents who finished secondary school constituted 49% (41 respondents). The table also shows that 17% of the respondents have NCE/OND certificates, 10% have a Bachelors/HND and 1.0% of the respondents have PHD as their highest Educational attainment. This indicates that a greater percentage of migrant do not have a degree, hence engaged in migration due to lack of employment.

Table 4.1.6: Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

Marital Status of the respondents				
	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Single	53	53.0	53.0	53.0
Married	47	47.0	47.0	100.0
	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field work, 2024

From the table 4.1.6 above, the result shows the sex of the respondents. The result therefore revealed that there were more single than married, as married accounted for 47% of the population while singles accounted for 53% of the population.

4.2 SECTION B: Major Research Issues

Section B will be analyzed using the research questions of the study in drawing the various tables and interpreting the responses gotten from field.

RESEARCH QUESTION ONE:

Table 4.2.1 Factors of respondents by item

<i>SIN</i>	ITEM	NUMBER	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	DECISION
1	Low salaries in Edo State is a major factor that promote migration	100	2.96	0.98	Agreed
2	Lack of proper education in Edo State is a major factor of promote migration	100	3.02	1.02	Agreed
3	Poor economic opportunities in Edo state is a major factor that promote migration	100	2.85	1.08	Agreed
4	Social migrant network or peer pressure is a strong influence on migration	100	2.54	1.26	Agreed
	Grand mean	100	2.84	1.09	

SPSS Computation

Table 4.2.1 shows that an aggregate mean of 2.84 was obtained for all the five items, which is above the criterion mean of 2.5. From this analysis, the mean value is greater than the test value, which indicates that the respondents accepted that low salaries, lack of proper education, poor economic promote economic migration. This findings supports

that of Todaro (2014). Lack of Jobs/ poverty; economic factors provide the main motivation behind migration. In that context, according to the International Labor Organization, approximately half of the total population of current international migrants, or about 100 million migrant workers, have left home to find better job and lifestyle opportunities for their families abroad (International Labor Office of the Director-General, 2008).

The result also corresponds to the findings of (Dovlo, 2016) where he stated that If economic conditions are not favourable and appear to be at risk of declining further, a greater number of individuals will probably emigrate to one with a better economy. Often this will result in people moving from rural to urban areas while remaining within the confines of their state borders. As the low- and middle-income countries of today continue to develop and the high-income countries experience slower economic growth, migration from the former could decline

RESEARCH QUESTION TWO:

Table 4.2.2 Impact of Youth Migration on the Image on Edo State

S/N	ITEM	NUMBER	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	DECISION
1	Migration has strong effects on governance and legal protection, employment and Social protection, health services, education and skills development.	100	3.42	0.65	Accepted
2	Migration has a profound effect on economic development of the state, which could be negative .e.g. braindrain	100	3.18	0.82	Accepted
3	Migrants mostly engage in illegal activities due to their undocumented status	100	3.20	0.85	Accepted

Migration exposes migrants to different health risk factors and they face challenges os regards receiving healthcare	100	3.21	0.88	Accepted
Grand mcun	100	3.22	0.84	Accepted

Table 4.2.2 shows a grand mean of 3.22 was obtained for the four items and a standard deviation of 0.84, with a criterion value of 2.5. From this analysis, the grand mean value is greater than the criterion value which agrees that youth migration have negative image on Edo State. This findings support that of (Dovlo, 2016) As the low- and middle-income countries of today continue to develop and the high-income countries experience slower economic growth, migration from the former could decline.

RESEARCH QUESTION THREE:

Table 4.2.3: Challenges Faced By Edo State Deportees/Returnees From Europe

SIN	ITEM	NUMBER	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	DECISION
1	Deportees face the challenges of adjusting to a new way of life when are moved back to their birth countries.	100	2.04	0.90	Accepted
2	Deportees/returnees find it hard to secure employment	100	2.72	0.68	Accepted
3	There are economic challenges mainly because most deportees return without any finances	100	1.92	0.81	Accepted
4	Deportees are stigmatized and discriminated against based on their status	100	3.00	0.66	Accepted
	Grand mean	100	2.72	0.66	Accepted

SPSS Computation

Tobie 4,^{2.3} shows grand mean of 2.72 was obtained for the four items and a standard deviation of 0.66, with a criterion value of 2.5. From this analysis, the grand mean value is greater than the criterion value which agrees that deportees/returnees face different kind of challenges when they return from Europe. This is in accordance with (UN, 2007) There is also the possibility of transmission of diseases through contacts between migrants and the resident population. For instance, the return to Nigeria of girls who were involved in prostitution in Europe might lead to transmission of sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS

RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR:

Table 4.2.4: Social Work Intervention on the Rehabilitation of Deportees from Europe

SIN	ITEM	NUMBER	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	DECISION
1	Social workers provide assistance to the deportees in problem solving	100	2.89	1.07	Accepted
2	Social workers structure, arrange, and manipulate events, interactions, and environmental variables to facilitate and enhance system functioning.	100	3.15	1.07	Accepted
3	Social workers participate in a social control function or they take protective actions when deportees competency levels are deemed inadequate.	100	3.02	1.15	Accepted
4	Social workers secure services or resources on behalf of the deportees in the face of identified resistance or develop resources or services in cases where they are inadequate or non-existent.	100	3.31	0.94	Accepted
	Grand mean	100	3.09	1.06	Accepted

SPSS Computation

table 4.2.4 shows a grand mean of 3.09 was obtained for the four items and a standard deviation of 1.06, with a criterion value of 2.5. From this analysis, the grand mean value is greater than the criterion value which agrees that social work has an intervention programme for rehabilitation of deportees from Europe.

Finally, it was also discovered from this research analysis that social workers' intervention reduces the use of substances among adolescents. This study agrees with Kurnpfer & Hansen (2014) that social workers' interventions are designed to reduce risk factors for early substance use at the individual level, school, family, and community. This is also supported by NASW (2016) which confirmed that social workers' interventions play vital roles in assisting individuals, families, schools, workplaces, and communities to address addictions.

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 summary

This research work focused on the assessment of the factors influencing economic migration among Edo State youths. The study examined the major factors and negative effect of migration on Edo State Economy. It also identified the challenges faced by Edo State youth and the efficacy of social work intervention as well as potential ways in which social worker through the mandate of social work can play a role in responding to the issues.

5.2 Conclusion

The study through the data collected found out the diverse factors which from economic related to social factors such as household and peer pressure, including the growing impact of globalization on the Edo State youth and strict immigration control by developed countries contribute as motivating factors and drivers of migration in Edo State. The results of the analysis shows that Poverty, unemployment, poor economic, low salaries, lack of proper education and peer pressure as major factor influencing of migration.

The study concludes that impact of migration have effect on economic development, in the sense that migrants mostly engage in illegal activities and they often returned because they mostly return without continue with these illegal activities when deposited any finances.

3 Recommendations

Considering the above conclusions, the researcher has forwarded the following recommendations.

1. There should be a sanction on migration by the government official on the condition of mass adult migration. Because, migration consumes the young and productive capabilities of full adults.
2. There is a need to educate parents that Europe is not a paradise, that the desert is hot, and the sea is not a river to cross.
3. There is a need to promote a greater public awareness of the risk and dangers of irregular migration and that migration is not the only way to make something out of lives.
4. The government should make provision for counseling centers and create more employment of social workers in the country to promote the awareness of the negative impact of migration.
5. With regard to the minimizing solutions, the government should teach its citizens on the impact of migration, it should have to create a behavioral change through awareness creation programs, there should be good work opportunities for the adults that satisfy their hunger for economy, it should support financially those who have nothing and send them by legal forms. Moreover, the people should also say no to migration.

APPENDIX

DEPA QUESTIONNAIRE FACULTY OF SOCIAL WORK, SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF BENIN BENIN CITY

I am a final year (500) level student of the above named institution. I am conducting a research on "Assessment of the Factors Influencing Economic Migration Among Edo State Youths" in fulfillment of the requirements for the award of a Bachelor of Social Work Degree (BSW).

Please be free to respond as your company will be ensured and your response will be strictly confidential. I wish to indicate that the purpose of this greatly to the success of this study.

Instruction: Please tick (V) in the appropriate box applicable to your responses.

SECTION A: Demographic Data

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age group: 18-27 , 28-37 , 38-47 , 48 and above
3. Religion: Christianity Muslim Traditional
4. Education: Primary school , Secondary School , NCE/OND , Bachelors/I-IND , Post-Graduate , Others (Please specify):
5. Marital status: Single , Married , Divorced , Widowed , Separated

SECTION B:

Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D)

FACTORS THAT PROMOTE MIGRATION

SIN	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD
6	Low salaries in Edo State is a major factor that promote migration				
7	Lack of proper education in Edo State is a major factor of promote migration				
8	Poor economic opportunities in Edo state is a major factor that promote migration				
9	Social migrant network or peer pressure is a strong influence on migration				

IMPACT OF YOUTH MIGRATION ON THE IMAGE ON EDO STATE

10	Migration has strong effects on governance and legal protection, employment and Social protection, health services, education and skills development.				
11	Migration has a profound effect on economic development of the state, which could be negative .e.g. braindrain				
12	Migrants mostly engage in illegal activities due to their undocumented status				
13	Migration exposes migrants to different health risk factors and they face challenges as regards receiving healthcare				

ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN THE PROBLEM OF UNEMPLOYMENT

SIN	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD
14	Deportees face the challenges of adjusting to a new way of life when are moved back to their birth countries.				
15	Deportees/returnees find it hard to secure employment				
16	There are economic challenges mainly				

	because most deportees return with their finances				
◆	Deportees are stigmatized and discriminated against based on their status				

social WORK INTERVENTION ON THE REHABILITATION OF DEPORTEES FROM EUROPE

<i>SIN</i>	ITEMS	SA	A	ID	IS	D
◆	Social workers provide assistance to the deportees in problem solving					
19	Social workers structure, arrange, and manipulate events, interactions, and environmental variables to facilitate and enhance system functioning.					
◆	Social workers participate in a social control function or they take protective actions when deportees competency levels are deemed inadequate.					
21	Social workers secure services or resources on behalf of the deportees in the face of identified resistance or develop resources or services in cases where they are inadequate or non-existent.					
22	Social workers connect the deportees to valuable resources which may include providing job placement assistance, finding appropriate accommodation, and supporting clients through social services referrals.					

McDowell, and De Haan, A. (2015). Rural-Urban Migration and Poverty. The Case of
n ta ' IDSB ulletm, Yol.28 No.2, pp. 35-47.

Mlama, P. 2012. Local perspectives on globalisation: The cultural domain. In E. Jansen,
J.I. fiwapachu and J. Semboja (eds.) *Local perspectives on globalisation: The
A rican case*. Dar es Salaam: MkukinaNyota

Mooney, A. and Evans, B. (eds.) 2017. *Globalization: The key concepts*. New York:
Routledge.

Nkamleu, G.B. and Fox, L. 2016. *Taking stock of research on regional migration in Sub
Saharan Africa*. Munich: Personal RePEC Archive. Available at:
<http://mpr.ub.unimuechen.de/15112> [Accessed: 11 April 2017]

Oseni, G. & Winters, P. (2009): Rural nonfarm activities and agricultural crop production
in Nigeria. *Agricultural Economics*, 40(2), 189-201.

Omorogiuwa, T.B.E & Imafidon, K. A. (2017). Socio-economic security and democratic
participation in Nigeria. *International Journal of Education, Learning and
Development*, 5(9), 58-55.

Omorogiuwa, T.B. & Egharevba, O. J. (2018). Impacts of international migration on
social economic development: implication for social work practice, Conference
Proceeding of International Conference of the Department of Social Work,
University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Okodua, H. (2011). Migrant workers remittances and output growth in Sub-Saharan
African Countries. Ph.D Dissertation, Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State,
Nigeria.

Ogbu, S.O. 2014. The democracy movement and globalisation: Nigeria in perspective. In:
J. S. Odama, and E. A. Aiyedun (eds.) *Globalisation and Third World Economy:
Impact and challenges in the 21st Century*. Lagos: Malthouse Press. Pp.30-41.

Gopper D (2014) *Urban Refuges: Ethiopian and Eritrean in Cairo*: American University
in Cairo press.

Rann (2016) Essential of ecology and environmental science. (Sthedn) PHL learning private limited, Ecology.

Roberts, KD (201?) 'China's "Tidal Wave" of Migrant Labour: What Can We Learn From Mexican Undocumented Migration to the United States?' *International Migration Review*, Vol.31, No.2, pp. 249-93.

Rogaly, B (2017), "Workers on the Move: Seasonal Migration and Changing Social Relations in Rural India", *Gender and Development*, 6 (1), 21-29

Scluneid IS (2016) Conflict and Forced Migration: A Quantitative review, 1964-1995. Berghahn Books, oxford, Newyork pp. 62-94

Shivji, I. G. (2012). Globalisation and popular resistance. In E. Jansen, J. Mwapachu and J. Semboja (eds) *Local perspectives on globalisation: The African case*. Dar es Salaam: MkukmaNyota. Pp.101-118.

Sibanda, A. and Zuberi, T. 2015. Age at first birth. In T. Zuberi, A. Sibanda, and E. Udjo (eds.) *The demography of South Africa*. New York: M. E. Sharpe. Pp. 65-89.

Skeldon, R. 2017. *Migration and development: A global perspective*. Essex: Longman.

Suarez-Orozco, M. and Suarez-Orozco, C. 2015. Globalisation: Immigration and Education : Recent United States trends. In M.S. Sorondo, E. Malinvand, and P. Lena (eds.) *Globalisation and Education: Proceedings of Joint Working Group*. The Pontifical Academy of Science. 16-17 November 2015 Casino Pio IV. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, Pp. 94-126.

Fadayomi T.O. 2016. Rural Development and Migration in Nigeria: *Impact of the Eastern Zone of Bauchi State Agricultural Development Project*. Ibadan, Nigeria: Nigeria Institute of Socio-economic Research.

Fayomi, O. O. (2013). *The diasporas and Nigeria-Ghana relations (1979-2010)*. Unpublished PhD thesis Covenant University, Ota Nigeria Available <http://eprints.covenantuniversity.edu.ng/1457/> Retrieved 16/05/2018

Kerlinger (2015) The migration experiences in Africa Stockholm. Nordiska Africa institute.

Ratha, D. (2007). Leveraging remittances for development, in Hollifield, J. F., Orrenius, P.M. and Osang, T. (eds.). *Migration, trade and development. proceedings from the 2006 conference on migration, trade, and development*. Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas, Dallas Texas, pp. 173-185.

- Ala (2016) *Essential of ecology and environmental science*. (5th ed) PH Learning private limited, Ecology and environmental science. (5th ed) PH Learning
- Heidl S. (2016) *Conflict and Migration: A Quantitative review*. 1964-1995. Berghahn Books, New York pp. 62-94.
- Fodaro, D.M. (2014). A Model of Labour Migration And Urban Unemployment in Less Developed Countries. *American Economic Review*. 59(1):139-146. United Nations
- United Nations. (2013). *International Migration Report 2013* United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division. 2013/6.
- Racoli, C. & Okali, D. (2001). *The links between migration, globalization and sustainable development*. International Institute for Environment and Development World Summit on Sustainable Development. Retrieved from <https://wedocs.unep.org/rest/bitstreams/134292/retrieve>
- Trimiklis, N., Gordon, S. and Zondo, B. 2008. Globalisation and migrant labour in a "Rainbow Nation": A fortress South Africa? *Third World Quarterly*, 29(7): 1323-1339.
- Tullao, T.S. and Rivera, J.P.R. 2008. The Impact of temporary labor migration on the demand for education: Implications on human resource development in Philippines. In: *EADN Working Paper Number 37, 2008*. EADN. Available at www.eadn.org/tullao_phil.pdf (Accessed: 10 August 2010)
- United Nations - UN (2016). *Patterns of Urban and Rural Population Growth*, New York: United Nations Department of International and Social Affairs.
- United Nations, 'International Migration 2013: Migrants by Origin and Destination'
- Wallerstein, I. 2014. *The modern world system: Capitalist agriculture and the origins of the European World-economy in the sixteenth century*. London, University of California Press.
- Weiner, M. 2015. *The global migration crisis: Challenges to states and to human rights*. New York: Harper Collins.