**SEXUALITY IN INDIGENOUS MIGRATION WITHIN URBAN SPRAWL IN NIGERIA: IMPLICATIONS FOR INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT**

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**CHAPTER SYNOPSIS**

Migration and other forms of mobility though informed by variety of social, economic or political motives, the emotional, affective and sexual liaisons attachments and expectations could also be powerful. The study examined the impact of sexual activities among migrants on sustainable industrial development in Nigeria. Data for this study were extracted from 2009 World Bank dataset on household migration and remittances in sub-Saharan Africa. A two-level analytical procedure (univariate and multivariate analyses) was employed. Univariate focuses on demographic profile of the migrants while the multivariate analysis was devoted to the testing of hypotheses formulated. The gender dichotomy shows more male (62.74%) migrated than female (37.26%) and 44% of them are within age group 25-34 years. It revealed that 28.31% of the migrants worked or owned cottage firms while 71.69% belong to other category of employment. Sexual indicator shows that almost 60% of the migrants are either singles, live alone without spouses or cohabiting. This practice of sexual mixing and the kind of interdependence observed could aggravate risky sexual behaviour and incidence of sexual transmitted infections. The study concluded that high risk of HIV/AIDS among the current and prospective working population exacerbates the burden of sicknesses/diseases at different levels in the short run and decreases the chance for industrial development in the long run. The study, therefore, recommended intensive sexual counselling for all migrants both at the rural and urban areas to instil responsible sexual behaviour before and during transitioning and after reaching their destinations.

**Introduction**

The rationality in labour transfer from the rural sector to the urban sector dates back to time immemorial most especially due to the fact that urban wage is an embodiment of rural wages and additional premiums (Lewis, 1954). For sometime now the welfare-enhancing opportunities of this syndrome cannot be satisfied as illustrated by several studies (Anderson & Smith, 2001; Easterly, 2003; Mai & King, 2009; Ranis, 2004; Todaro, 2009). However, sexual sacrifices or opportunities among migrants which are associated with high risk sexual outcomes such as premarital sex, cohabitation, unprotected sex, HIV/AIDS and other debilities, with loss of potential for productivity, have not been satisfactorily exhausted in existing research. Migration is a cross-cutting phenomenon that is informed by a variety of socioeconomic or political motives. The emotional and sexual liaisons and outcomes cannot be overemphasised (Mai & King, 2009). Today, virtually all the developing world is characterised by increasing migration, proliferation of sexual demeanours and low productivity (Ambert, Jassey, & Thomas, 2007; Bam, Thapa, Newman, Bhatt & Bhatta, 2013; Edberg, Cleary & Vyas, 2010; Nkasa-Kyeremateng & Attua, 2013; Pinyosinwat, 2009; Sudhinaraset, Mmari, Go & Blum, 2012; Verma, 2010). Empirical evidence and policy initiatives have shown that social issues around population control, reproductive and sexual health and rights are of prime importance or a veritable means of tackling global and local problems in sustainable development (Crush, Williams & Peberdy, 2005; International Organisation for Migration (IOM), 2005; Mosca, Rijks, & Schultz, 2013). While it is necessary to examine how the issues of sexual and reproductive health and rights impact on different segments of the economy, it is more exigent to verify the impact of sexual behaviour among migrants and its import on the engine of economic productivity (i.e. the industrial sector).

The growth in poverty both at the rural and urban levels, orchestrated by massive unemployment, has pushed more people out of households in search of means of livelihoods. Migration possesses two-edged effects both at the sending (origin) and the receiving places (destination). At the origin, workforce is reduced culminating in reduction in total output. At the place of destination, surplus labour, cheap wages or low capital income is inevitable and until much of the surplus is absorbed, further growth in industry is unachievable. Succinctly put, the interrelationships between migration, sexuality and industrial development has not been widely explored. The spread of epidemic cannot be separated from human mobility, likewise deficient industrial development among other things is one of the consequences of human debility. Thus, this chapter examined the impact of sexual issues among migrants on industrial development at both places of origin and destination.

**Objectives of the Study**

The study examined the impact of sexual behaviour among the migrants on industrial development in Nigeria. This is planned to be achieved by providing answers to the questions: Does migration influence the spread of STIs and does it play a part in the development of small and medium enterprises?

**Literature Review**

The concern for sustainable industrial development is justified as it constitutes the intersection of economic, social and environmental sustainability. Strategies towards poverty reduction and environmental sustainability have been driven across most spectra. However, in the wake of the ongoing discussions on a Post-2015 development framework, it is recognised that issues concerning social development and sustainability should be given considerable attention due to overarching impact social issues have on development. Social issues around population control as well as reproductive and sexual health and rights are also of prime importance in sustainable development. Besides, with the characterisation of fragile states and conflict-prone areas, political and economic situations lead to increasing migration across borders (de Haan, 2000; de Haas, 2008). Further on this, the Rio+20 UN Conference on Sustainable Development mooted laudable proposals for executing sustainable development goals (Goals Open Working Group on Sustainable Development Goals [OWGSDG], 2014; International Dialogue on Population and Sustainable Development [IDPSD], 2012;)

It has been noted that as population swells, its concentration as well as its migration impacts on the demand on water, energy, food and environmental resources. Also, the proliferation of a young population comes with its peculiarities, placing pressure on development resources of various governments as well as global institutions (IDPSD, 2012). These concerns surround the need to pay requisite attention to issues that border on the sexual and reproductive rights of all, especially the most vulnerable women (Pemunta, 2011) and young people (McMichael, 2008). This has informed some of the items on the Millennium Development Goals as well as further discussions on the post-2015 development agenda. Empirical evidence and policy initiatives are replete on how sexual and reproductive health and rights are perceived as a veritable means of tackling global and local problems in sustainable way (Mosca, Rijks & Schultz, 2013). Thus it is crucial to examine how the issues of sexual and reproductive health and rights impact on different sectors including the industrial sector of the economy- which is the engine of economic productivity.

Studies indicate that most of the projected growth in world population will be accounted for mostly by the growth in developing countries (and mostly by their poor) - which are generally countries with the highest rates of natural increase in the world. The intense pressure posed by demographic changes impacts on local and global development resources. It also leaves governance authorities with the duty to provide adequately for the growing population, promote equality of opportunity, and employ measures to mitigate inequality of income and welfare as well as access to social services (UN-Habitat, 2010). The reality of poverty, rural-urban migration of youths and older men, depletes agricultural productivity, leading to feminisation of agriculture, insecurity of food and nutrition insecurities (IDPSD, 2012).

According to Johnson (2006, pp. 63), issues surrounding the integration of new migrants into a community such as those faced by refugees include equity of access to healthcare services; as well as “ability of health and social care services to respond to the specific needs of the relevant minority groups”. Further reiterating the notion of integration for new migrants, Johnson stressed the longer-term issue of parity of health outcomes and life expectancy or disease experience. He also opined that poor health has several implications for the well-being of recent migrants and their future engagements in the society within which they are engaged. Much as is evident in the wake of discussions on a post-2015 development agenda, the linkages in issues concerning education, health, employment youth, population dynamics, have been shown to be grossly interrelated. Further to this, core areas of focus central to sustainable development goals include the rights and responsibilities of adolescents, sexual and reproduction health and rights (OWGSDG, 2014).

There are some studies that link migrant status and the proliferation of HIV/AIDS in areas of high prevalence, also noting the long-term effect on industrial productivity and social welfare in the regions (See Ambert, Jassey, & Thomas, 2007; Bam, Thapa, Newman, Bhatt, & Bhatta, 2013; Edberg, Cleary, & Vyas, 2010; Nkasa-Kyeremateng & Attua, 2013; Pinyosinwat, 2009; Segal & Mayadas, 2005; Verma, 2010). Notably, Crush (n.d.) examined the rates of HIV infection in migrants and non-migrant populations with a view to accentuating the risk factors associated with HIV as well as observed transmission mechanisms in rural areas of Southern Africa. Findings from the study show a higher risk of infection among migrant men and their female partners. The study, however, discovered a research gap in the sexual orientation and dynamics of women in rural South Africa. Also, in a study of the EU/EEA regions, ECDC (2013) established evidence of post-migration HIV incidence in the region. It was concluded that since many migrants may travel to and fro between their place of primary residence and place of origin, it is tedious to pinpoint the actual location of infection. The inadequacy of published data on HIV surveillance among migrants has hitherto limited empirical research in this field, even in advanced European regions. This purports a worse data availability scenario for developing countries.

Increasing global integration has heightened the extent of internal as well as international migration, thus raising issues about migrant welfare. For all migrants as well as individuals migrating from conflict-prone regions to neighbouring countries as refugees, it has been established that improvements in access to healthcare impacts positively on the life expectancy, productivity and quality of life (McLaughlin, 2009). In developing countries especially, access to health insurance, equitable and accessible healthcare are risk factors to migrants (McLaughlin, 2009). McLaughlin also discussed findings that indicate interconnections of migration, health and sustainable industrial development as a process with far-reaching underlying factors whose intensities differ across geographical boundaries. According to McLaughlin (2009), refugees’ and other transnational migrants’ health is influenced by their previous health conditions, living spaces, working conditions, access to healthcare, language barrier, access to social services, among other things. As stated in GLIA and UNHCR (2004, pp.13), “mobility often creates physical and sociocultural separation between a mobile person, his family and his community. Moreover, the moral codes and norms that govern a person’s conduct may be undermined when he is away from home.” The study also linked alcohol use with risky sexual behaviour.

Mehrjerdi, Hosseinzadeh, Mansoori and Deylamizadeh (2013) found high risk sexual behaviour among Afghan refugees in Iran related to factors such as lack of access to condom, low-level of knowledge about safe sex and long-time dependence on drug use. Birukila, et al., (2013) using a New Zealand survey, examined HIV-related risk factors among black African migrants and refugees. Also, the study identified low condom use, relating with more than one sexual partner, lack of voluntary testing for HIV, and previous STI diagnosis. The lowering of life expectancy shortens productive life and deters future contribution to industrial productivity and economic growth. Parrado, Flippen and McQuiston (2004) link migration, risky sexual behaviour and risk of HIV infection, noting that migrant men staying apart from their families were more likely to use the services of commercial sex workers, the more time spent in new location and as their hourly wages increased. Verma, Saggurti, Singh and Swain (2010) also considered the relationship between regular use of alcohol and sexual risk in migrant populations living within proximate areas in 14 districts of high HIV prevalence in India. The study found a significant association between incoherent condom use during paid and unpaid sex and the practice of alcohol use among female sexual workers and their clients.

van Veen et al. (2009), using cross-sectional data, studied the pattern of transmission of HIV and sexually transmitted infections among a large migrant group in Netherlands, taking into consideration their demographic and sexual characteristics and their sexual mixing with different ethnic groups. The finding of the study indicates a large extent of disassortative sexual risk behaviour among migrant groups. In the conflict-prone regions and the neigbouring countries in sub-Saharan Africa, close attention is been given to efforts towards improving behaviours within refugee communities – which are mostly at risk of exposure to HIV infection. Woodward et al. (2011) however identified limited research on refugee communities and urban sprawl, their health outcomes and effect on sustainable development. Woodward et al. also found that peer education served to improve knowledge exposure and practices in Guinea using logistic regression odds ratio for a cross-sectional survey of refugee camps.

Internal migration from rural places of low economic opportunities to urban places of higher economic opportunities has led to the development of urban sprawls and shantytowns. Moreover, heightened occurrences of conflict, wars and civil disturbances in some countries have led to increases in the number of new forced migrants and refugees (TAMPEP, 2006). Noting the perception that migration encourages proliferation of communicable infections, migrants are seen as the ‘bridge population’ linking high and low prevalence groups (Kamla & Majumder, 2009). Also, they are generally seen as objects of economic deprivation, political and social discrimination as well of environmental degradation (de Haan, 2000). Given the concern for sustainable health outcomes and the prevalence of HIV infection in India, Kamla and Majumder, (2009) empirically investigated linkages between migration, alcohol consumption and risk sexual behaviour in India. Migrant workers were found among vulnerable occupations such as truck driving and hospitality (hotel) business and are prone to sexually transmitted infections. Bam, Thapa, Newman, Bhatt and Bhatta (2013) identify poor socioeconomic status, caste-related discrimination and lack of employment opportunities as factors inducing migration in India (see also Dahal, Pokharel & Birendra, 2013). The review of literature reveals the need for more studies in sub-Saharan Africa on the interconnections among migration, risky sexual behaviour and HIV/AIDs acquisition. This study is therefore apt in seeking measures to improve HIV prevention, life expectancies among migrant communities, and ultimately sustainable industrial development outcomes.

**Data and Methods**

There are relatively a dearth of data and literature on indigenous migration and health matters especially the issue related to HIV/AIDS. The extracted data used in this study were collected by the World Bank in 2009 as part of migration and remittances, household surveys in sub-Saharan African Project (World Bank, 2009). The study examined the impact of sexual activities among migrants on sustainable industrial development in sub-Sahara Africa using Nigeria as a case study. The target population were internal migrants both men and women. The migrants were distributed into under 15, 15-24, 25-34 up to 55 and above. A two-level analytical procedure (univariate and multivariate analyses) was employed. Univariate focuses on demographic profile of the population studied while the multivariate analysis was devoted to the testing of hypotheses formulated. Two models were formulated to test (1) the influence of migrants’ socio-demographic variables on the incidence of STIs and (2) the influence of migration on participation in small and medium enterprises. The models follow similar patterns and denoted as:

$Ln \left\{\frac{Y\_{2}}{\left(1-Y\_{2}\right)}\right\}=β\_{0}+ β\_{1}X\_{1}+ β\_{2}X\_{2}…β\_{k}X\_{n}……………(i) $

Where,

$ β\_{0}, β\_{1}…β\_{k}$ are the unknown parameters of the model estimated by likelihood techniques in SPSS and $Ln \{\frac{Y\_{2}}{(1-Y\_{2})}\}$ is the outcome variable. It represents the log-odds of participating in informal sector. A change in the value of any X will indicate the likelihood of change in $Ln \{\frac{Y\_{2}}{(1-Y\_{2})}\}$ given that other Xs are constant.

**Results and Discussion**

**Background Information on the Internal Migrants**

Table 1 show the characteristics of the internal migrants as covered in the data. About 44 % of the migrants were within the age group of 25-34 years. Other age groups by their magnitude reflect that 27.9%, 15.08%, 6.0% and 4.68% falls within age groups 15-24, 35-44; those that were less than 15 and 45-54 years respectively. The age group with the least number of people was 55+. The result also shows that higher number of people migrate at their prime age of life specifically age 25-34 years than any other age group. Therefore, people within this age group had high propensity to move to areas where they can maximise their potential in terms of gainful employment or at least be absorbed into the labour force. Among the respondents, 51.19% reported that they are single, while 40.89% and 6.71% were married and engaged (already have a suitor) respectively.

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| **Table 1. Background Information on the Internal Migrants** |
| **Variables** | **Frequency** | **Percent** | **Variables** | **Frequency** | **Percent** |
| **Age Group** |  |  | **Current Occupation**  |  |  |
| Under 15 | 109 | 6.00 | Others | 937 | 82.34 |
| 15-24 years | 507 | 27.90 | Informal Sector | 201 | 17.66 |
| 25-34 years | 790 | 43.48 | **Place of Residence** |  |  |
| 35-44 years | 274 | 15.08 | Urban | 786 | 41.11 |
| 45-54 years | 85 | 4.68 | Rural | 1126 | 58.89 |
| 55 and above | 52 | 2.86 |  |  |  |
| **Gender** |  |  | **Work Situation at Origin** |  |
| Male | 1192 | 62.74 | Others | 1533 | 83.86 |
| Female | 708 | 37.26 | Informal Sector | 295 | 16.14 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| **Marital Status** |  |  | **Current Work Situation** |  |  |
| Single  | 969 | 51.19 | Cottage industry (SME) | 519  | 28.31 |
| Engaged to be married | 127 | 6.71 | Others | 1314 | 71.69 |
| Married | 774 | 40.89 | **Education (Origin)** |  |  |
| Others | 23 | 1.22 | Primary Education | 494 | 26.76 |
| **Living Situation at Current Residence** |  |  | Secondary and Technical schools | 848 | 45.94 |
| Alone | 646 | 34.42 | Tertiary Education | 449 | 24.32 |
| Spouse | 628 | 33.46 | Others | 55 | 2.98 |
| Others | 603 | 32.13 | **Reason for migrating** |  |  |
| **Region** |  |  | Education | 559 | 29.42 |
| North | 321 | 16.79 | Search for work | 524 | 27.58 |
| South East | 410 | 21.44 | Job transfer/ opportunity | 342 | 18.00 |
| South South | 647 | 33.84 | Marriage arrangement | 321 | 16.89 |
| South West | 262 | 13.70 | Other family reasons | 86 | 4.53 |
| Lagos | 272 | 14.23 | Others | 68 | 3.58 |
| **Source**: Authors’ Computation, 2014 |

The current employment status was categorised in terms of nature of work namely: (1) unemployed (2) engagement in cottage industry and (3) other types of employment. The variable was later recoded as (1) engaged in cottage industry and (0) other form of employment. This is to ascertain the proportion that participated in industry, the codes that was later used in the binary regression analysis. The result showed that almost 30% of the migrants (28.31%) worked or owned cottage firms while 71.69% belonged to other category of employment. The result also indicated that about 34.42% reported that they lived alone in their current place of residence, while 33.46% and 32.13% lived with their spouses and others relations (Table 1). The reasons for migrations varied from respondent to respondents. While 29.42% of the respondents claimed they migrated due to educational reasons, 27.58%, 18.0% and 16.89% migrated in search of job, job transfer and marriage respectively. Very few migrated for other family purposes and some other reasons which accounted for 4.53% and 3.58% (see Table 1).

Regional variations show that the highest number of migrants (33.84%) was from the South-South political zone of the country compared to other zones. Lagos was treated as a single region due to proportionate larger migrants from the area. South-East, South Western and the North accounted for 21.44%, 13.7% and 16.79% respectively. The result of the analysis also indicated that the rural-urban dichotomy is in ratio of 59:41. This implies that almost 60% of migrants are from rural areas of the country while only 41% usually move from urban areas (Table 1). This finding agrees with other discoveries in the literature that patterns of migration in developing countries are usually from rural to urban areas (Adepoju, 2004; Fadayomi, 1998). The result established that more males migrated than the female folks (62.74% - males and 37.26%- females) as indicated in Table 1. The highest educational qualification owned by most of the migrants was secondary and technical school qualifications (45.94%), followed by primary school certificates (26.76%) and close to it was Tertiary education (24.32%).

**Sexuality among migrants**

That migrants are more susceptible to sexual risk is not new as evident by several literature sources. Similarly, that the concomitant effects of the risk can affect level of economic participation especially in industry calls for concern. Unfortunately, till now, data on migrant sexual activities and industrial development are not available especially with regards to indigenous migrants. Where seemingly available, the data are too weak and analytical models too limited to provide clear insights into the relationship. Thus, researchers have not been clear or conclusive in this area. Thus, the finding from the World Bank used for the study is intermediated with literature and authors’ conjectures. However, specific economic activities or occupation have been linked to increase in sexually transmitted infections among migrants (Crush, Williams & Peberdy, 2005; Dahal, Pokharel & Birendra, 2013; Parrado, Flippen & McQuiston, 2004; van Veen *et al,* 2009). In the actual context of migration, the migrant vacates his/her place of origin transiting to the place of destination. Where the migrant is married, the spouse is not only left behind but with some levels of economic burdens. In the course of striving for livelihood, the spouse could be exposed to certain sexual overtures among the community members. Also, taking into cognizance that poverty is a potential bait for sexual exploitation in developing countries, the absence of the breadwinner automatically increases the load on the family members thereby opening them up to precarious conditions and making them more vulnerable to unsafe sexual behaviour (Crush, Williams & Peberdy, 2005).

Specifically, irrespective of the marital status of the migrant, migration induces sexual mixing among migrants and the immediate acquaintances in the place of destination (mostly in the urban centres). The result of sexual mixing culminates in sexual relationship. The result from the data analysis shows that only 40.9% of the migrants were currently married and living with their spouses (Table 1). It also revealed that larger proportion of the migrants were either single (51.19%), engaged to be married in later period (6.71%) or ever married but not currently with their spouses (1.22%) as shown in Table 1. Migrant men who stay apart from their families are more likely to use the services of commercial sex workers, the more time they spend in the new location (Parrado, Flippen & McQuiston, 2004; Puri & Busza, 2004). This could also be aggravated if their hourly wages increase. In the case of singles, the kind of freedom or interdependence they are exposed to could aggravate the extent of risky sexual behaviour among them. Risky sexual behaviour and risk of sexual transmitted infections (STIs) are more pronounced among the younger age population (mostly singles) irrespective of the place of residence. The risk could also be more in the urban areas where they could be possibly exposed to sexual issues fuelled by the proliferation of unguarded social media devices (Amoo, Adetoro & Olawole-Isaac, 2013). Overall, 76.55% of the total sampled population were singles or not living with their spouses as indicated in Table 1. Most often, the unemployed or underemployed migrants (product of surplus labourer) in the cities who could not be engaged or gainfully-engaged do not return to their origins but remain in the cities adopting available strategy for sustenance including sexual sacrifices.

**Binary logistic illustrating the likelihood of migrants involving in cottage firms**

The binary logistic regression result shows that adults are more likely to migrate than children. Persons within age groups 25-34 and 35-44 have higher propensity (p-value = 0.007 and 0.000) to move and they are more likely to be found in the informal industries than those below age 15. The odds ratio ranges between 30.5% and 42% as shown in Table 2. This age group is popularly referred to as the productive age, prime age or active age group in the labour force. Many individuals in this group would rather prefer engaging in informal sector, establish their own business rather remain unemployed or unabsorbed in the formal sector. However, it is important to note that migration of persons within age 45 and above may not necessarily be to take advantage of economic opportunities; the movement might be as a result of preparation for retirement where most older people prefer to go back to rural areas to spend the remaining parts of their life, away from the noise and busy life in the urban centres. Furthermore, married migrants are more likely to settle in the informal sector, if they are unable to settle on time in the formal sector. The result revealed that married migrants are 1.89 times (p-value = 0.010) more likely to be found in the informal sector than single migrants (Table 2). Female migrants are 0.65 times (P-value= 0.009) less likely to be in the informal sector compared to their counterparts who are males (Table 2). This is in line with the fact that more men migrate than females, so there is high possibility that male migrants will get involved in the informal sector much more than the female.

More people who originated from the rural areas are 1.67 times more likely to be found in the cottage firms compared to those who originated from urban areas (P-value = 0.003) as indicated in Table 2. This established empirical findings that migrants from rural areas most times lack the skills required for jobs in the urban areas and one best way of earning a living is to get absorbed in the informal sector. Migrants from South East region and Lagos state are 4.32 and 3.56 times more likely to be in the informal sector than migrants from the North (Table 2).

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| **Table 2. Binary logistic illustrating the likelihood of migrants involving in cottage firms** |
| **Selected Variables** | **Odds Ratio** | **S.E.** | **P- value** |
| **Age Group** |  |  |  |
| Under 15 | RC |  |  |
| 15-24 | 16.51 | 17.066 | 0.007 |
| 25-34 | 30.45 | 31.648 | 0.001 |
| 35-44 | 42.05 | 44.191 | 0.000 |
| 45-54 | 27.92 | 30.017 | 0.002 |
| 55+ | 29.75 | 32.762 | 0.002 |
| **Marital Status** |  |  |  |
| Single  | RC |  |  |
| Engaged | 1.15 | 0.336 | 0.622 |
| Married | 1.89 | 0.464 | 0.010 |
| Others | 1.08 | 0.819 | 0.917 |
| **Gender** |  |  |  |
| Male | RC |  |  |
| Female | 0.65 | 0.109 | 0.009 |
| **Place of Residence** |  |  |  |
| Urban | RC |  |  |
| Rural | 1.67 | 0.292 | 0.003 |
| **Reason For Leaving Origin** |  |  |  |
| Education | RC |  |  |
| Search for work | 5.17 | 1.135 | 0.000 |
| Job transfer/ opportunity | 4.91 | 1.215 | 0.000 |
| Marriage arrangement | 4.59 | 1.350 | 0.000 |
| Other family reasons | 5.56 | 2.054 | 0.000 |
| Others | 6.03 | 2.149 | 0.000 |
| **Region** |  |  |  |
| North | RC |  |  |
| South East | 4.32 | 1.074 | 0.000 |
| South-South | 1.08 | 0.244 | 0.725 |
| South West | 1.00 | 0.306 | 0.989 |
| Lagos | 3.56 | 0.945 | 0.000 |
| **Living Situation at Current Residence** |  |  |  |
| Alone | RC |  |  |
| Spouse | 0.90 | 0.208 | 0.661 |
| Others | 0.85 | 0.151 | 0.344 |
| **Education (Origin)** |  |  |  |
| Primary Education | RC |  |  |
| Secondary and Technical schools | 0.95 | 0.154 | 0.747 |
| Tertiary Education | 0.13 | 0.029 | 0.000 |
| Others | 3.18 | 1.282 | 0.004 |
| Constant | 0.00 | 0.003 | 0.000 |
| **Source**: Authors’ Computation, 2014. |

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The perception that young people migrate in search of job was confirmed by this study but that blue-collar jobs were available for them could not be substantiated owing to the proportion of unemployed and those in cottage industries. The greater interdependence migrants enjoy especially the younger group could enhance initiation of sexual behaviour, consensual or coercive sexual relationships and more sexual partners (as the case may be). The emerging negative emotional or sexual health outcomes can serve as catalysts for increased risk of HIV/AIDS. However, the study could not statistically establish the link between the risk of HIV/AIDS and industrial development due to paucity of data on the subject matter. The summation on the issue is contingent upon the result of the analysis on the former. It is believed that high risk of HIV/AIDS among the current and prospective working population decreases the chance for industrial development in the long run. In the short run, it exacerbates the burden of sicknesses/diseases at the individual, family and community levels. The study therefore recommends intensive sexual counselling for all migrants both at the rural and urban areas to instil responsible sexual behaviour before and during transit and after reaching their destinations.

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