The Influence of Labour Migration on The Socio-Economic Lives of the Indigenes of Ibese-Dangote Cement Host Communities in Nigeria

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Abstract- ***Labour migration is a prominent feature in the socio-economic and cultural landscape of many societies. While it offers potential benefits to both migrants and host populations, it can also generate challenges for indigenes that limit these benefits. This study examined the influence of labour migration on the socio-economic lives of indigenes in the Ibese-Dangote Cement host communities, Ogun State, Nigeria. Guided by the Migration Systems and Livelihood theories, the study employed a mixed-methods approach. Four host communities—Ibese, Araromi, Maria, and Abule-Oke—were purposively selected. A total of 351 respondents were surveyed using structured questionnaires, complemented by five in-depth interviews. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics and chi-square tests at p<0.05, while qualitative data were thematically analysed.***

Findings showed that the average age of respondents was 29.5 years; 43.6% were male and 56.3% female. Farming was the dominant occupation (about 50%), with an average monthly income of ₦30,000. Significant relationships were found between socio-demographic characteristics and socio-economic benefits derived from labour migration, particularly age (p=0.000), sex (p=0.001), education (p=0.000), marital status (p=0.032), income (p=0.000), and occupation (p=0.000). Qualitative insights revealed that education enhances the ability of indigenes to engage productively with migrants and industrial stakeholders, thereby fostering improved livelihoods and community development.

The study concludes that education is central to maximizing the benefits of labour migration and mitigating its challenges. It recommends strengthened public–private partnerships to improve access to education for indigenes of Ibese and surrounding communities, including through scholarships and free education initiatives.

Index Terms- ***Labour, Migration, Socioeconomic, Lives, Indigenes, Industrialisation***

I. INTRODUCTION

Migration is a defining feature of the economic, social, cultural, and political landscape of many countries. While international migration attracts significant scholarly and policy attention, internal migration—movements occurring within national borders—often involves far larger populations and generates profound consequences for both sending and receiving communities (Borjas, 2009; Grant, 2009). Labour migration, in particular, represents a major form of population mobility, driven primarily by wage differentials, employment opportunities, and industrial expansion (Narada & Matthias, 2010).

Globalisation has reinforced the common association of migration with cross-border movements; however, in developing countries such as Nigeria, internal migration remains especially significant. Nigeria's stark regional inequalities, rural–urban disparities, and uneven access to resources foster diverse internal migratory streams, including rural–rural, rural–urban, urban–urban, and urban–rural flows (Babatunde, 2009; Yahaya, 1999). These flows vary in composition (men, women, families, ethnic minorities) and duration (seasonal, circular, permanent), often overlapping in complex ways shaped by historical employment patterns, social networks, and industrialisation (Borjas, 2009; William, 2011).

Migration is widely recognised as a livelihood strategy for poor households. This resonates with

Todaro & Smith's (2015) economic development framework, where migration decisions are shaped by perceived costs and benefits. Although it is not a panacea for poverty, migration can improve access to income, services, and opportunities for both migrants and their communities (Priya & Sven, 2005). Classic push–pull factors, such as population pressure and resource scarcity, continue to drive migration, while industrialisation and the provision of modern amenities in rural areas increasingly stimulate urban–rural movements (Anderson, 2002). Nevertheless, migration often provokes tension in receiving areas. Host populations may perceive threats to cultural identity, social cohesion, or economic opportunities, and migration may introduce social problems when inflows are large or poorly managed (Kiffle, 2008).

Despite its importance, research on migration in Nigeria—and indeed across much of the Global South—remains disproportionately focused on international flows, especially regarding remittances and brain drain. Internal migration, though equally impactful, has attracted less systematic study. As a result, there is limited understanding of how labour migration affects the socio-economic well-being of host populations, particularly in communities directly affected by large-scale industrial projects (Priya & Sven, 2005).

The Dangote Cement plant in Ibese, Ogun State, exemplifies such a context. The establishment of this major industrial facility has attracted significant labour inflows while simultaneously influencing patterns of out-migration among indigenes. Yet, little empirical work has examined how these migratory processes shape the socio-economic lives of the host communities. Existing literature largely emphasises remittance benefits, overlooking how indigenes experience and negotiate the opportunities and challenges associated with industrial labour migration.

This study addresses that gap by investigating the influence of labour migration on the socio-economic lives of indigenes in the Ibese-Dangote Cement host communities. By adopting sociological perspectives and employing a mixed-methods approach, the study contributes to migration scholarship while generating evidence to inform policy, community development, and corporate social responsibility strategies. his study therefore seeks to examine the influence of labour migration on the socio-economic lives of indigenes of Ibeseland within the context of mining-based industrialisation

II. CONCEPTUALISATION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Labour migration generates both monetary and non-monetary benefits for migrants and host communities. These socio-economic earnings include employment, income, infrastructure development, and cultural exchanges. According to DFID (2007), the regular inflow and settlement of migrants can transform host communities through changes in economic activities, social structures, and political relations. Beyond financial remittances, migration also leads to "social remittances," such as new skills, attitudes, and ways of life that migrants transfer to communities (DFID, 2007).

At the national level, UNCTAD (2011) observes that migration contributes to economic growth by addressing labour shortages, increasing consumption, and stimulating investment. Industrialisation in rural areas, in particular, creates strong demand for labour and attracts migrants from different regions (Broussard, 2012). Receiving communities benefit through increased domestic consumption, higher demand for housing, transportation, and the expansion of local businesses, while migrants secure livelihoods that may not be available in their places of origin.

However, the effects of migration on indigenes of host communities remain debated. Some scholars argue that labour migrants can displace native workers or suppress wages in low-skill sectors (Dustmann et al., 2006; Borjas, 2004). Others find little evidence of major negative impacts, noting that migrants often complement rather than substitute native labour (Kifle, 2008; Coats, 2008). The extent of impact depends on factors such as skill levels, labour demand, and the absorptive capacity of the local economy.

For Nigeria, internal labour migration is closely linked to regional inequalities and rural–urban

disparities (Babatunde, 2009). Industrialisation projects, such as large-scale manufacturing plants, often act as magnets, drawing workers from within and outside the state. Host communities may benefit from expanded infrastructure, trade opportunities, and employment spillovers. Yet, challenges can also arise, including competition over resources, pressure on housing, cultural tensions, and environmental strain.

Studies further highlight that while industrialisation can redirect migration patterns from rural–urban to urban–rural when rural areas become attractive (Redmond, 2009), it can also generate social challenges if migration is not well managed. These include rising cost of living, social vices, and strained governance systems (Ishtiaque & Mahmud, 2011; Jahan, 2012). The net outcome for host communities therefore depends on the balance between socio-economic opportunities and the stresses brought by inflows of labour migrants.

Overall, the literature suggests that labour migration is both a driver of development and a source of social contestation. What is lacking, however, are studies that focus specifically on how internal labour migration linked to industrialisation affects the socio-economic lives of indigenes in host communities. This gap underscores the need for empirical work in contexts such as the Ibese–Dangote cement host communities

III. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

This study draws on Migration Systems Theory and the Livelihoods Approach to explain the influence of labour migration on the socio-economic lives of indigenes of Ibese-Dangote Cement host communities.

Migration Systems Theory (Mabogunje, 1970) conceptualizes migration as a system of flows and counterflows of people, goods, services, and information between places. Information feedback plays a critical role, as reports about the reception and progress of migrants at the destination influence further migration. The theory assumes that migration alters the social, cultural, economic, and institutional conditions at both origin and destination, thereby restructuring the broader developmental context in which migration occurs (De Haas, 2008). This framework is relevant to the Ibese context, where labour migration has not only attracted new residents but also reshaped the socio-economic landscape of the host communities.

The Livelihoods Approach emerged in the late 1970s through micro-research in developing countries. It emphasizes the agency of the poor, who actively devise strategies to improve their living conditions within structural constraints (De Haas, 2008). A livelihood comprises the assets, capabilities, and activities required for a means of living (Carney, 1998), with households drawing on natural, social, human, physical, and financial capital. Livelihood strategies are shaped by access to these assets, opportunities, and aspirations, which differ across individuals and households (Ellis, 1998).

The integration of these two perspectives provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how labour migration interacts with local livelihoods in Ibese. On the one hand, migration creates opportunities through transportation, trade, and increased domestic consumption, offering socio-economic benefits for many indigenes. On the other hand, migration may also introduce challenges such as congestion, insecurity, prostitution, and other antisocial behaviours, especially when employment opportunities are limited (Bryan, Chowdhury & Mobarak, 2013). Thus, the frameworks together highlight both the transformative potential and the risks associated with migration in host communities.

IV. STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in Ibese-Dangote Cement host communities, located in Yewa North Local Government Area of Ogun State, Southwest Nigeria. Ibese is an old Yoruba settlement dating back to the early 19th century and is inhabited predominantly by speakers of the Egbado dialect of Yoruba. The town lies on latitude 6°58′0″ N and longitude 3°2′0″ E (Ayedun et al., 2012).

The major occupations of the indigenes are farming and trading. The Dangote Cement Factory, which commenced production in 2011, is situated in Ibese

and has attracted a large influx of non-indigenous workers. The study area consists of Ibese and its suburbs (Maria, Araromi, Abule-Oke) as well as neighbouring communities such as Imasayi, Sawonjo, Ilaro, and Igbogila. These communities, though essentially rural, now experience significant socio-economic changes due to the presence of the cement factory and labour migration.

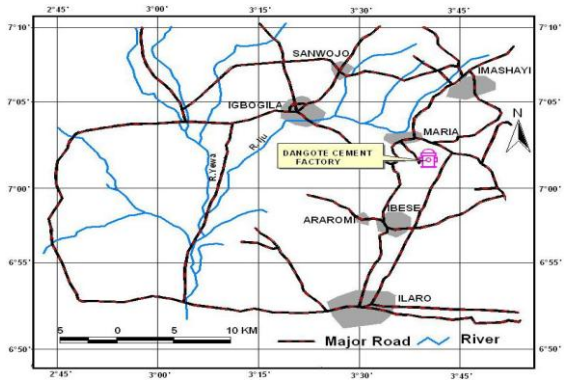

Fig 3.3.1: Map Showing the Study Location

Source: Ayedun et al (2012)

V. METHODOLOGY

This study employed a household survey and exploratory research design, combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches to ensure comprehensive coverage of the research objectives. The study population consisted of all male and female adults (18 years and above) residing in the Ibese host communities and suburbs, namely Maria, Araromi, and Abule Oke. A multistage sampling technique, involving both probability and non-probability methods, was adopted. Stratified sampling was first used to divide Ibese into four strata based on existing quarters (Ibese, Abule Oke, Maria, and Araromi), each relatively homogeneous in relation to the study problem and socioeconomic status. Within these strata, purposive sampling was then employed to select respondents who met the eligibility criteria, thereby ensuring representativeness of the sample.

Data collection combined the use of structured questionnaires and in-depth interviews (IDIs). A total of 424 copies of the questionnaire were distributed, of which 362 were retrieved. After excluding 11 invalid responses, 351 valid questionnaires were analyzed, representing a response rate of 85 percent. The IDIs were conducted to capture deeper insights from community members and to complement the survey findings, thereby addressing potential limitations of the questionnaire method.

The quantitative data were analyzed using univariate and bivariate techniques. Descriptive statistics such as tables, frequency distributions, and percentages were employed to present socio-demographic characteristics and responses to key variables. Bivariate analysis, particularly chi-square and correlation tests, was used to establish relationships between dependent and independent variables and to test the study's hypotheses. The qualitative data, on the other hand, were analyzed through content analysis, which enabled the identification of recurring themes and patterns relevant to the research objectives.

VI. ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Data were collected from 351 respondents (male and female) aged 18 years and above, with a mean age of 29.5 years. As shown in Table 1, females constituted a higher proportion (56.4%) of respondents compared to males (43.6%). Ibese town accounted for the largest number of participants, while the surrounding communities of Abule-Oke, Araromi, and Maria had comparatively fewer respondents. The age distribution indicates that the majority of respondents were below 40 years, placing them within the working-age cohort as opposed to the dependent population groups (children and the elderly).

Education emerged as a critical factor shaping the extent to which indigenes benefit from labour migration. While education enhances the ability of individuals to maximize opportunities and address challenges associated with migration and industrialisation, only 22.7% of respondents had attained education beyond secondary school. This relatively low level of educational attainment was identified as a major barrier preventing indigenes from leveraging labour migration to improve their socio-economic wellbeing. Furthermore, the lack of

specialized and technical knowledge reduces their chances of securing employment in the Dangote Cement factory, as migrants with higher qualifications are often considered preferable substitutes.

Insights from qualitative data reinforced this finding. As one community leader explained:

"The level of education in Ibeseland is very low. Up till now, we have just one secondary school. The low literacy level and exposure of our people constitute a major problem in utilising the benefits of labour migration brought by industrialisation. What they are interested in is the immediate benefits without consideration for long-term benefits and consequences." (IDI/Male/Ibese/2025)

This statement highlights the persistent challenge of low educational attainment, which not only limits indigenes' direct participation in industrial employment but also restricts their ability to strategically harness the broader socio-economic opportunities associated with labour migration.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
	Male	153	43.6
Sex	Female	198	56.4
	Total	351	100.0
	18-25 years	49	14.0
	26-30 years	47	13.4
	31-35 years	61	17.4
Age	36-40 years	86	24.5
	41 years and above	108	30.8
	Total	351	100
	Abule-Oke	65	18.5
	Araromi	55	15.7
Location	Ibese	182	51.9
	Maria	49	14.0
	Total	351	100
	Christianity	186	53.0
Religion	Islam	156	44.4
	Traditional Religion	9	2.6
	Total	351	100
	No formal education	96	27.4
	Primary education	102	29.1
	SSCE	102	29.1
Level of Education	ND/NCE	39	11.1
	HND/B.Sc	9	2.6
	Postgraduate	3	.9
	Total	351	100
	Single	109	31.1
	Married	228	65.0
Marital Status	Divorced	9	2.6
	Widow(er)	5	1.4
	Total	351	100
	₦1 – ₦10,000	117	33.3
	₦10,001 – ₦20,000	134	38.2
	₦20,001 – ₦30,000	40	11.4
Income	₦30,001 – ₦40,000	21	6.0
	₦40,001 – ₦50,000	9	2.6
	₦50,001 and above	30	8.5
	Total	351	100
	No specific job	30	8.5
	Full house wife	42	12.0
Occupation	Farming	175	49.9
	Craft artisan	65	18.5
	Civil service	9	2.6
	Trading	30	8.5
	Total	351	100

Source: Field Survey (2025)

As presented in Table 2, the majority of respondents agreed that labour migration has contributed significantly to socio-economic improvements within the host communities. The most frequently cited areas of positive impact include transportation (76.6%), house rent (50.4%), inter-town linkages (60.4%), domestic consumption (56.1%), and trade (50.7%).

Transportation emerged as one of the most visible areas of benefit. The increased movement of people and goods has created new opportunities for employment, particularly among youths who were previously unemployed. A respondent explained:

"One thing that is obvious is that some of our youths who had no specific jobs before are now engaged in some economic activities. Essentially, transport business is lucrative here in Ibese for now." (IDI/Male/Araromi/2025)

Similarly, domestic consumption and trade have expanded considerably. The influx of migrants working in the Dangote Cement factory has increased local demand for goods and services, providing traders—especially those dealing in food items and farm produce—with greater profits. A female respondent remarked:

"Our traders, particularly those selling farm produce, have recorded reasonable profits so far because the level of sales has increased more than one hundred percent. This is because the migrants are buying goods for their own personal consumption and also as gifts for friends and families whenever they are travelling home." (IDI/Female/Ibese/2025)

These findings demonstrate that while labour migration may create competition for formal employment in the cement industry, it simultaneously stimulates local economies by enhancing transportation networks, boosting consumption, and creating new trade opportunities.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents' Opinion on Socioeconomic Benefits of Labour Migration

Variable	Responses		
	Agreed	Undecided	Disagreed
New skills	82 (23.4)	51 (14.5)	218 (62.1)
New ideas	103 (29.3)	36 (10.3)	212 (60.4)
New attitude	136 (38.7)	36 (10.3)	179 (51.0)
New technology	74 (21.1)	32 (9.1)	245 (69.8)
Transportation	269 (76.6)	24 (6.8)	58 (16.5)
House rent	177 (50.4)	33 (9.4)	141 (40.2)
Inter-town linkages	212 (60.4)	39 (11.1)	100 (28.5)
Domestic Consumption	197 (56.1)	30 (8.5)	124 (35.3)
Change of occupation	104 (29.6)	21 (6.0)	226 (64.4)
Employment	112 (31.9)	11 (3.1)	228 (65.0)
Increased savings	129 (36.8)	18 (5.1)	204 (58.1)
Trade	178 (50.7)	32 (9.1)	141 (40.2)
Investment	130 (37.0)	38 (10.8)	183 (52.1)
Changed spending and consumption patterns	159 (45.3)	30 (8.5)	162 (46.2)

Source: Field Survey (2025)

Despite the socio-economic benefits, the majority of respondents disagreed that labour migration had enhanced their skills (62.1%), ideas (60.4%), attitudes (60.4%), technology (69.8%), occupational change (64.4%), employment opportunities (65%), savings (58.1%), and investments (52.1%). These findings indicate that labour migration has not significantly translated into human capital development for the indigenes.

The low level of skills in Ibeseland is directly linked to poor educational attainment. Without sufficient technical expertise, indigenes are unable to compete with migrants in the modern industrial labour market. As one respondent explained:

"The level of skills and education of indigenes of this locality is a major barrier to their chance of being employed. The skills required in modern mining set up are lacking; as such the educated migrants are considered as perfect substitutes in areas that require technical, scientific, logical and technological know-how. Whereas, they (indigenes) are considered as complements to migrants in security and other casual jobs." (KII/Male/Migrant/Ibese/2025)

This finding aligns with Waldinger's (2013) argument that when indigenes and immigrants are perfect substitutes, an inflow of immigrants tends to lower wages and employment opportunities for indigenes. Conversely, if they are complements, immigrants can stimulate demand for indigenous labour. In Ibese, however, the evidence suggests that migrants often act as substitutes in technical roles, while indigenes are confined largely to menial and casual jobs.

The persistence of unemployment among indigenes further limits opportunities for new skills, ideas, and technological advancement. While respondents identified trade, market networks, and rent/sale of assets as the primary avenues for increased economic earnings, structural barriers—such as poor education and low skills (Broussard, 2012; DFID, 2007; UNCTAD, 2011)—continue to hinder full participation in industrial opportunities.

In addition to these economic constraints, labour migration has also been associated with several social challenges. Consistent with the findings of Jahan (2012) and Nasir & Pervin (1997), respondents reported rising insecurity, crime, and anti-social activities. This study, as presented in Table 3, identified congestion, insecurity, ethnic clashes, and prostitution as the most pressing challenges in the host communities. As a community leader observed:
"The major challenges here are insecurity and prostitution. Industrialisation and labour migration in Ibese is still at its early stage. Therefore, we cannot conclude that other challenges are not at force. They are rather unfolding gradually." (IDI/Male/Community Chief/Ibese/2025)

These results suggest that while labour migration has stimulated economic activities in Ibese and its environs, it has simultaneously created structural inequalities, heightened social tensions, and limited the ability of indigenes to maximize long-term socio-economic benefits. This reflects Stark & Bloom's (1985) New Economics of Labour Migration model, which views migration as a household strategy to diversify income sources.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents' Opinion on Challenges of Migration of Labour

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Congestion	97	27.64
Insecurity	100	28.49
Prostitution	78	22.22
Ethnic Clashes	76	21.65
Total	351	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2025)

Beyond the economic constraints, respondents identified a number of social challenges arising from labour migration in Ibese and its environs. Prominent among these were prostitution, insecurity, and potential ethnic tensions. One community leader noted:

"People are embarking on immoral acts to earn a living since the available infrastructure cannot accommodate the rate at which people migrate to Ibese. In fact, both migrants and some of our women are now involved in prostitution." (IDI/Male/Community Chief/Araromi/2025)

This concern was reinforced by another respondent, who linked prostitution to violent conflict:
"There was a quarrel between two truck drivers over a prostitute about two years back which later led to a bloody clash between Yoruba and Hausa ethnic groups. Although the clash was misinterpreted as ethnic clash, it started at night following a disagreement between two unidentified men over a commercial sex worker." (IDI/Male/Traditional Ruler/Ibese/2025)

Such accounts illustrate how individual disputes, particularly those tied to commercial sex work, can escalate into broader communal conflicts.

Although large-scale slum development has not yet been experienced in Ibese, some respondents expressed concern about emerging overcrowded settlements characterized by poor housing conditions and marginalization of minority ethnic groups. As one community leader observed:

"We have started having some areas overcrowded in which the housing is typically in very bad condition and occupied by other tribes that feel discriminated and majorly of low income class." (IDI/Male/Community Chief/Ibese/2025)

The emergence of prostitution, overcrowding, and ethnic tension underscores the urgent need for preventive action by local authorities. These challenges, if unchecked, could evolve into entrenched urban problems. As highlighted by UNCHS (1986; 2003), slums and ghettos typically result from the interplay of rapid urbanisation, rural–urban migration, poverty, inadequate housing development, weak enforcement of planning standards, and lack of maintenance.

Thus, while Ibese is still in the early stages of industrialisation, the manifestation of these challenges serves as an early warning signal. Community officials must therefore develop corrective mechanisms that not only minimise current incidents but also prevent potential future crises.

Bivariate Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

The objective of this study was to examine the influence of labour migration on the socio-economic lives of the indigenes of Ibeseland. This process began in 2010 with the establishment of the Dangote Cement Factory in the community. To guide this objective, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- Ho: There is no significant relationship between socio-demographic characteristics of indigenes and the socio-economic benefits derived from labour migration.
- Hi: There is a significant relationship between socio-demographic characteristics of indigenes and the socio-economic benefits derived from labour migration.

Socio-demographic characteristics considered in the analysis include age, sex, education, marital status, income, and occupation. These variables were cross-tabulated with indicators of socio-economic benefits in order to test their relationship. Beyond explaining differences in economic benefits, these characteristics also help to reveal predispositions to the challenges associated with migration.

At a 5% level of significance (0.05), the chi-square results demonstrated statistically significant relationships between socio-demographic characteristics and economic benefits of labour migration. Specifically, the results at their respective degrees of freedom—8 (age), 2 (sex), 10 (education), 6 (marital status), 10 (income), and 10 (occupation)—all yielded P-values of .000, .001, .000, .032, .000, and .000, respectively. These values confirm that the null hypothesis is rejected across all socio-demographic factors, thereby supporting the alternative hypothesis.

The findings indicate that the socio-economic benefits of labour migration in Ibese are not evenly distributed but vary significantly by age, sex, education, marital status, income, and occupation. Education, in particular, emerged as a critical variable, acting as a distorter that shapes the magnitude of benefits accrued. This is consistent with the broader literature that underscores education as a determinant of economic participation in industrial contexts.

Age and sex were also influential. Younger respondents and women, particularly those engaged in trading agricultural produce, reported higher economic gains from migration-induced opportunities. As one community leader explained:

"Generally, females have recorded more earnings than their male counterpart. This is because labour migration results in increase in trades, particularly sales of agricultural produce. Majority of these traders are women and they travel far and near to ensure they have goods to sell. However, more males were employed in the factory than females. I cannot say precisely the degree of the contribution of such employment to increase in their incomes or earnings over what was recorded before industrialisation and labour migration." (IDI/Male/Community Chief/Ibese/2025)

This finding underscores the dual pattern of benefits: while men benefit more directly through formal employment in the cement factory, women appear to derive greater economic advantage from the expansion of informal trade networks. Overall, labour

uneven socio-economic gains, shaped largely by education, gender, and occupational background.

Table 4: Cross Tabulation of Respondents' Selected Socio-Demographic Characteristics and Economic Earnings Associated with Labour Migration

Selected Socio-Demographic Characteristics		Socioeconomic Benefits			Total	Test Result
		Agreed	Undecided	Disagreed		
AGE	18-25	33 (67.3)	3 (6.1)	13 (26.5)	49 (100.0)	df = 8 x^2 = .000 sig = 0.05
	26-30	14 (29.8)	15 (31.9)	18 (38.3)	47 (100.0)	
	31-35	28 (45.9)	12 (19,7)	21 (34.4)	61 (100.0)	
	36-40	21 (24.4)	12 (14.0)	53 (61.6)	86 (100.0)	
	41Above	36 (33.3)	9 (8.3)	63 (58.3)	108 (100.0)	
SEX	Male	84 (47.2)	24 (13.5)	70 (39.3)	178 (100.0)	df = 2 x^2= .001 sig = 0.05
	Female	48 (27.7)	27 (15.6)	98 (56.6)	173 (100.0)	
EDUCATION	No Formal Education	27 (28.1)	9 (9.4)	60 (62.5)	96 (100.0)	df = 10 x^2=.000 sig = 0.05
	Primary	21 (20.6)	12 (11.8)	69 (67.6)	102 (100.0)	
	SSCE	51 (50.0)	21 (20.6)	30 (29.4)	102 (100.0)	
	ND/NCE	24 (61.5)	6 (15.4)	9 (23.1)	39 (100.0)	
	HND/B.Sc.	6 (66.7)	3 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	9 (100.0)	
	Postgraduate	3 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (100.0)	
MARITAL STATUS	Single	49 (45.0)	9 (8.3)	51 (46.8)	109 (100)	df = 6 x^2 = .032 sig = 0.05
	Married	74 (32.5)	42 (18.4)	112 (49.1)	228 (100.0)	
	Divorced	6 (66.7)	0 (0.0)	3 (33.3)	9 (100.0)	
	Widow	3 (60.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (40.0)	5 (100.0)	
INCOME	< ₦ 10000	52 (44.4)	15 (12.8)	50 (42.7)	117 (100)	df = 10 x^2 = .000 sig = 0.05
	₦10001--₦20000	35 (26.1)	15 (11.2)	84 (62.7)	134 (100)	
	₦20001--₦30000	12 (30.0)	6 (15.0)	22 (55.0)	40 (100)	
	₦30001--₦40000	6 (28.6)	9 (42.9)	6 (28.6)	21 (100)	
	₦40001--₦50000	6 (66.7)	3 (33.3)	0 (0)	9 (100)	
	₦50001 & above	21 (70.0)	3 (10.0)	6 (20.0)	30 (100)	
OCCUPATION	Full House Wife	9 (21.4)	6 (14.3)	27 (64.3)	42 (100.0)	df = 10 x^2 = .000 sig = 0.05
	Farming	61 (34.9)	21 (12.0)	93 (53.1)	175 (100.0)	
	Craft/Artisan	23 (35.4)	18 (27.7)	24 (36.9)	65 (100.0)	
	Teaching	21 (70.0)	6 (20.0)	3 (10.0)	30 (100.0)	
	Trading	15 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	15 (50.0)	30 (100.0)	
	Civil Servant	3 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	6 (66.7)	9 (100.0)	

Source: Field Survey (2025)

Among the six socio-demographic characteristics examined, education emerged as a particularly significant factor. After controlling for other variables through an elaboration model, education was identified as a distorter variable, reversing the direction of some relationships. This indicates that education not only influences access to the benefits of labour migration but also fundamentally reshapes how such benefits are realised. This aligns with Massey et al. (1993), who emphasised the role of social structures and human capital in shaping migration outcomes.

This study revealed three key pathways in relation to the role of education:

1. Enhanced capacity and interaction: Education increases the ability to manipulate the socio-physical environment and strengthens interaction between indigenes, migrants, and industrialists. This capacity allows educated indigenes to chart strategies for improving socio-economic well-being and fostering community transformation. A respondent noted:
   `"As an educationist and visionary leader, my view is always different from the view of other community members. While I looked at the future benefits, majority look at the present benefits. I work tirelessly to ensure that this community achieves the best from the labour migration process. I returned to this community after my retirement to ensure that my people get it right and interact effectively with industrialists in order to facilitate development of our people and community." (IDI/Male/Community Chief/Ibese/2025)
2. Prioritisation of needs: Education helps individuals and community leaders to rank priorities, enabling them to pursue both immediate and long-term benefits. This ensures that community development strategies go beyond short-term compensations to sustainable gains.
3. Exposure and integration: Education facilitates broader exposure and cross-cultural interactions, which contribute to the integration and settlement of migrants. This reduces friction and fosters coexistence, while also creating new channels for shared socio-economic opportunities.

Taken together, these pathways demonstrate that education is central to optimising the benefits of labour migration. Beyond influencing individual earnings, it shapes collective strategies, strengthens negotiation power with industrialists, and ensures long-term community development.

These findings on education supports Castles et al. (2014), who argue that education enhances migrants' capacity to negotiate socioeconomic structures, thereby influencing the developmental impact of migration.

CONCLUSION

This study examined the influence of labour migration on the socio-economic lives of indigenes of Ibeseland in the context of mining-based industrialisation. Unlike the dominant rural–urban migration patterns in Nigeria, the establishment of the Dangote Cement Factory has stimulated urban–rural migration, reversing traditional flows. Such migration shows potential to reduce urban congestion while driving rural socio-economic transformation, in line with Castles et al. (2014).

Findings revealed that the benefits of labour migration are unevenly distributed, with education emerging as the most critical factor. Higher education levels enhance earnings, negotiation power, and community development, confirming Massey et al.'s (1993) emphasis on human capital and Stark and Bloom's (1985) household strategy perspective. However, low education and skills among indigenes limit employment opportunities, technology transfer, and long-term gains—reflecting Todaro and Smith's (2015) cost–benefit dynamics of migration.

By addressing this understudied form of urban–rural migration, the study bridges international migration theories with Nigeria's internal migration realities.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Educational investment: Expand scholarships, adult literacy, and vocational training through public–private partnerships.

2. Inclusive employment: Prioritise indigenes in recruitment, skill development, and access to social protection.
3. Policy attention: Recognise internal migration, particularly urban–rural flows, as a tool for balanced national development.
4. Further research: Examine migrant integration, wage disparities, and skills transfer using broader geographical coverage and longitudinal approaches.

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