Socio-economic Factors Influencing Migrant Labourers in Western Regions of Tanzania: Evidence from Kibondo District, Kigoma Region, Tanzania

Lemmy Doreen Nhende [a,b], Tumaini Gotfried Rwela [a] and Yohana James Mgale [a*]

[a] *Department of Rural Development and Regional Planning, Institute of Rural Development Planning, Dodoma, Tanzania.*
[b] *Department of Policy Planning, President Office Regional Administration and Local Government, Tanzania.*

Original Research Article

ABSTRACT

This study examines the socio-economic factors influencing migrant labourers in Kibondo District, Kigoma Region. The research focuses on exploring their interactions, conflicts, economic relationships, consumer behaviour, skill development, and the socio-economic conditions in both their places of origin and destination. The study specifically investigates male migrants from Burundi with limited education who migrate to Kibondo in search of political stability, job opportunities, and higher wages. A snowball sampling is adopted to recruit 196 respondents to

_____

Corresponding author: Email: mgaleyj@gmail.com, ymgale@irdp.ac.tz;

participate in the study. Findings show that the push-pull factors driving migration in the study area are resource endowment, societal status aspirations, job prospects, and economic opportunities in their places of origin. The study identifies various challenges faced by these migrants during their early employment stages, including late wages, health problems, verbal abuse, and wage disputes. Moreover, the research highlights the economic ties maintained by migrants with employers, neighbours, and fellow migrants while noting their limited interaction with the host community. For the post-migration, the study reveals that migrant workers experience increased economic empowerment, manage family expenses, support children's education, alleviate poverty, and acquire financial skills. However, regular savings pose a challenge. The study underscores the importance of different stakeholder support for the migrants through education and skill development programs, gender-specific support interventions, financial inclusion and literacy, social support networks, diversification of economic opportunities, and policy interventions.

1. INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of migration and its relationship with development has been a subject of extensive academic debate worldwide [1]. Migration, characterised by the movement of people across national borders in search of better job prospects and improved quality of life, has become increasingly prevalent in today's global economy [2]. This movement encompasses low-skill, low-wage workers and high-skill, high-wage workers, particularly among people with low incomes in developing countries [1].

The impact of migration extends to various aspects, including the well-being of migrants themselves, the labour markets and productivity of destination countries, and the socio-economic conditions of countries of origin [3]. Migrants often experience improved economic opportunities in destination countries, leading to higher earnings for themselves and their descendants [4]. At the same time, migration affects labour markets, productivity, innovation, demographic structure, fiscal balance, and crime rates in destination countries [3]. Furthermore, migration can have significant implications for countries of origin, resulting in the loss of human capital but also generating remittances and fostering international ties through trade, foreign direct investment, and technology transfers [5].

In the context of countries of origin, migration can contribute to their integration into global trade and investment networks. Strong networks of business-oriented emigrants can facilitate trade and investment flows between destination and origin countries [6]. Factors such as favourable public policies, political stability, conducive economic environment, and low corruption in the countries of origin can further enhance the positive effects of migration on trade and investment.

Migration can also address chronic unemployment or underemployment by reducing labour market tensions and increasing job opportunities. However, the absence of skilled emigrants can lead to productivity and innovation losses in countries of origin [7]. Concerns about the impact of migration on income, employment, and state finances have led to debates and policy restrictions in some developed countries [8]. Nevertheless, extensive empirical evidence suggests that immigration can negatively or positively impact native wages and employment by shifting the labour demand curve [3].

Migration has been a significant phenomenon within the East African Community (EAC), which consists of Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, and South Sudan [9-11]. The EAC experiences various types of migration, including refugee flows, internally displaced persons, and regular and irregular migrants [12,13]. Refugee movements account for a substantial proportion of migratory trends within the EAC, with countries like Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania hosting significant refugee populations [14].

Remittance flows within the EAC countries are also substantial, with countries like Burundi and Rwanda receiving significant remittances as a percentage of their GDP [15]. Remittances have economic implications for host and origin countries, acting as shock absorbers and promoting long-term inclusive growth [16].

Although the impact of a sudden and substantial influx of refugees on host populations is widely recognised [17], there is a lack of comprehensive research and effective communication regarding how host populations are affected. Tanzania, particularly the Kibondo district, has experienced notable effects from the inflow of refugees from Burundi and Rwanda, unlike other host countries. These effects encompass various aspects, including the labour market. International migration plays a crucial role in the development of individuals and their descendants, with far-reaching consequences on factors such as remittances, trade, host regions, labour markets, productivity, innovation, financial equity, population, and crime in both the origin and host countries [3,16,18-20]. However, many migrants engage in precarious or informal activities, while others may participate in illicit endeavours. The presence of migrants in Kibondo, regardless of their migration status, brings diverse experiences of social and economic life that contribute to the area's development [21,22]. Limited information also exists regarding the social and economic consequences of migration, particularly in the western regions of Tanzania, such as the Kigoma region, which receives a significant percentage of migrants from Burundi, Rwanda, and the Democratic Republic of Congo [14]. Insufficient data is available on the effects of migration on trade, host regions, remittances, and labour market outcomes. Therefore, this study fills the identified gaps by responding to the following questions;

   i. What is the socio-economic profile of migrants?
   ii. What are the push and pull factors that contribute to migration?
   iii. What are the patterns of economic exchanges and consumer behaviours among migrants?
   iv. How do in-migrants invest in skill development after migration?

These study questions allow for a comprehensive analysis of the socio-economic profile of migrants, the factors influencing migration, economic exchanges and consumer behaviours, and the post-migration investment in skill development by in-migrants in Kibondo District.

The study adopts two main theories: Bourdieu's theory of capital and the economic theory of the impact of refugees on the local labour market. As applied in the study, Bourdieu's theory of capital focuses on cultural, social, and economic capital. Cultural capital refers to the informal social skills, habits, linguistic styles, and tastes individuals acquire based on their economic resources [23]. Social capital pertains to individuals' social relations, while economic capital represents their financial resources. The study examines how immigrants undergo changes in their work areas and language achievements upon obtaining employment and acquiring new skills in the host society. As their economic resources increase, their tastes and habits also change, reflecting a shift in their cultural capital. Additionally, Bourdieu's theory of distinction highlights how different classes exhibit distinct lifestyles that reflect their social positions. The consumption habits of individuals are influenced by their occupational class, independent of income, and can be driven by the need for distinction or association with specific social groups [23].

The Economic theory pertains to the impact of an influx of refugees on the local labour market. The entry of refugees into a labour market creates a supply-side shock, which initially increases labour market competition and reduces wages for residents. However, the impact depends on factors such as the number and characteristics of refugees compared to the host population, as well as integration rules and access to work permits [18]. If refugees are restricted from seeking jobs in the informal sector, it can substantially impact informal sector wages and resident informal workers' income and employment. The displacement effects on resident workers can worsen if some refugee populations are overqualified for most informal jobs. Nevertheless, refugees' overall impact on the labour market performance of resident workers tends to be small, as they contribute to the demand for locally produced goods and services, stimulating the local economy [19]. The financial support received by developing countries hosting refugees further boosts the local economy through increased demand for goods and services, leading to improved wages and employment opportunities for both residents and refugees [19,24].

The discussed theories suggest that the movement of immigrants and the influx of refugees have multifaceted effects on cultural capital, consumption habits, labour market competition, wages, and economic growth in the host society. The distributional consequences and overall impact on the host population depend on various factors, including the integration
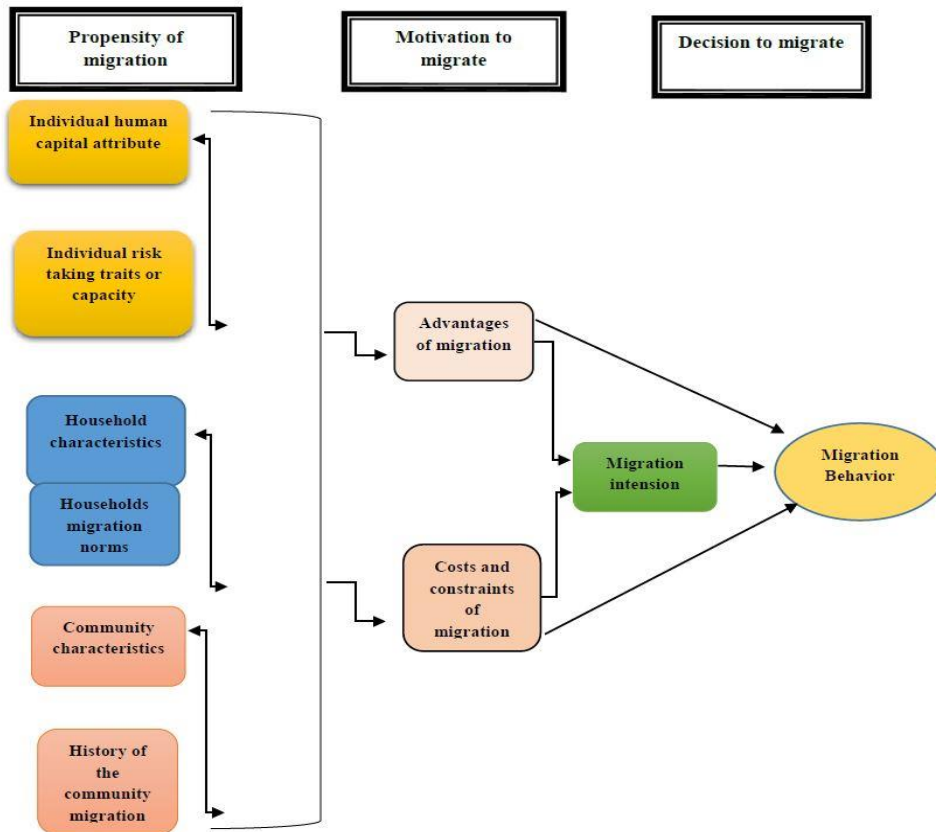
**Fig. 1. A conceptual model of migration decision-making and its socio-economic effects
Source: Modified from Simini et al. [25]'**

policies, refugees' skill sets, and consumption choices.

The study further utilises a conceptual framework to illustrate the relationship between in-migrant labourers in Kibondo district and their socio-economic effects on the community and the overall economy. This framework serves to depict the connections between various ideas and their relevance to the research study, specifically focusing on how the immigrants contribute to the socio-economic effects in Kibondo district.

The conceptual framework (Fig. 1), as modified from Simini et al. [25], provides a visual representation of the decision-making process underlying migration and its subsequent socio-economic effects. It highlights the factors influencing the migration decisions of in-migrant labourers and how these decisions impact the social and economic dynamics of the Kibondo district. Within the framework, variables such as push and pull factors, as well as individual characteristics and circumstances, contribute to

the decision-making process of immigrants. These factors could include economic opportunities, political stability, social networks, and personal aspirations. The migration decisions, in turn, lead to various socio-economic effects within the community and the broader economy.

2. METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Kibondo District due to the many immigrants residing and working there. The district is located near the borders of Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), countries that experienced political turmoil, leading to a significant influx of refugees into Tanzania.

In order to ensure comprehensive data collection, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed in a case study research design, which involved an in-depth analysis of specific cases. The researcher visited key respondents to gain detailed insights into the living conditions, socio-economic factors, and

17

cultural lives of the migrants. This approach facilitated an understanding of the migrants' sociocultural adaptation. The sampling frame consisted of in-migrants residing in the villages of Kibondo District, Kigoma region, while the sampling unit was defined as an individual migrant. Due to the lack of an exact list of participants/population of interest, snowball sampling was employed, resulting in 196 respondents participating in the study. Snowball sampling involves recruiting participants through referrals from existing participants, which enables access to hard-to-reach or stigmatised groups.

The study involved the collection of both primary and secondary data using a mixed methods approach. Primary data was collected directly from the migrants in villages through interviews and observations, while secondary data was obtained from documentary reviews such as books, journals, magazines, periodicals, and newspapers. The semi-structured interview schedule was the primary tool employed, as it allowed for flexibility and adaptation to the respondents' language limitations. Closed and open-ended questions were included in the interview schedule. Key respondents and host community members were interviewed to gather information on sociocultural adaptation, interactions, and other relevant factors. In-depth interviews were conducted with individual migrants to obtain detailed information about their life history, living conditions, and sociocultural adaptation. The collected data were analysed through descriptive statistics. The push and pull factors were subjected to both Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Kaiser's Normalisation because of their large data sets. In that case, PCA enabled the transformation of the original large variables into a smaller set of uncorrelated variables while preserving most of their variability. Meanwhile, Kaiser's normalisation was employed in PCA to determine how many principal components to retain. The analysed data was then presented in text, tables, and figures to facilitate understanding and interpretation.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 The Socio-economic Profile of Migrants

The study focused on the socio-economic factors influencing migrant labourers in Kibondo District. This includes the migrant's age, sex, education level, daily wage (both before and after migration), occupation both before and after migration, marital status, religion of the migrants, and place of origin. Tables 1 and 2 present the findings.

3.1.1 Age of the migrants

The age of migrants emerges as a crucial determinant in elucidating the social cohorts more prone to migration. Findings on age indicate that a few (3%) of in-migrants in the Kibondo district were over 55 years old, with the majority falling within the 15-63 age group. Notably, the largest segment (37.7%) falls between 21-25 years, underscoring the prevalence of youth migration. Following closely, 26-30-year-olds comprised 22.4% of migrants, while those above 45 years accounted for only 4.5%. The data reveals a decline in migration as age increases, underscoring age's role in migration decisions, particularly with younger individuals exhibiting higher migration rates, notably among those under 25 years. This pattern underscores youth's inclination towards migration to enhance financial prospects for themselves and their families, often spurred by economic hardships. This echoes findings from various studies, including a study by Johnson [26] in Thailand among Nepalese immigrants and Hughes [27] on women trafficking, all attesting to the preponderance of young migrants. Similarly, Easwaramangalath and Bhat [28] found 40% of migrants clustered between 18 and 23 years old, further corroborating the prevalence of youth migration.

3.1.2 Sex

The study probes into the gender dynamics of migration in Kibondo district, revealing a pronounced male predominance among migrants, with 97.4% identifying as male and only 2.6% female. This gender skew is primarily attributed to the nature of available job opportunities, such as agricultural, construction, and quarry work, which traditionally attract male labour. Social, economic, and cultural factors further reinforce this trend, with males often assuming the role of primary breadwinners and the labour market exhibiting a high demand for manual labour [29]. Conversely, female migration rates are notably lower, likely influenced by social, economic, and cultural considerations. The insufficient support infrastructure for migrants in Kibondo may have deterred female migration. The fact that only 2.6% of migrants

were female indicates a significant gender disparity. Female migrants tended to engage in domestic service, vending, and hospitality occupations. This gendered migration pattern aligns with findings from similar contexts, underscoring the need for gender-sensitive migration policies and support systems [30,31].

3.1.3 Educational achievement

The educational attainment of migrants and their perspectives on education's significance is analysed. Understanding migrants' education levels is crucial as they often find employment in unskilled or semi-skilled sectors. The study reveals that nearly 43% of migrants had only primary education, with a significant proportion (46%) falling within the 21 to 25 age group (Table 2). Additionally, around 25% of those with primary education were in the 15- 20 age group, indicating a lack of access to higher education among the youth. This features the necessity to generate income or combat poverty from a young age. Moreover, approximately 25% of migrants had completed vocational education, while a few (3.1%) held degrees, suggesting a disparity between educational achievement and available opportunities.

Respondents attributed this disparity to the inability of their home countries' governments to provide adequate wages and better occupations commensurate with their educational qualifications, highlighting the uneven development within East African countries. The study also revealed a significant portion of migrants (more than 12%) were illiterate, further indicating educational backwardness in these regions. Interestingly, findings from The World Bank's Global Economic Prospects Report [32] suggest that migrants' remittances are often utilised to fund the education of younger family members, demonstrating a positive impact of migration on the educational attainment of subsequent generations within migrant families [33].

Table 1. Socio-economic profile of the migrants

Category		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Males	191	97.4
	Females	5	2.6
Age in years	Below 15	2	0.9
	16 - 20	33	17.0
	21 - 25	74	37.7
	26 - 30	44	22.4
	31 - 35	19	9.5
	36 - 40	7	3.5
	41 - 45	2	1.0
	46 - 50	6	2.9
	51 - 55	1	1.6
	56 and above	6	3.0
Marital status	Single	99	50.5
	Married	97	49.5
Family type	Extended families	90	45.9
	Joint families	22	11
	Nuclear families	81	41.5
Occupation	Construction workers	67	35
	Agricultural and general labourers	57	29
	Hawkers, peddlers etc.	16	8
	Home servants	10	5
	Stone crushing and quarry workers	8	4
	Self-employed	18	9
	Shop workers	6	3
	Others	14	7

Table 2. Education and occupation of the migrants

Education	Farming	Construction	Livestock keeping	Manual workers	Others	Unemployed	Business	Total
Literate	0	7.7	0	.5	2.6	0	2	12.8
Illiterate	0	7.1	0	1.5	1.5	0	.5	10.7
Primary	1.5	16.8	0	7.7	11.2	1	4.6	42.9
Secondary	1.0	8.2	.5	7.7	3.1	0	3.6	24.0
Higher Secondary	0	3.6	0	1	2	0	0	6.6
Degree	0	.5	0	0	1.5	0	0	3.1
Total	2.6	43.9	.5	18.4	21.9	1	10.7	100

3.1.4 Marital status

The study examines the marital status of migrants, recognising its implications for social, economic, and cultural adaptation. Marital status serves as a lens to explore age at marriage, societal challenges such as divorce rates, and the independence of women [34,35]. Findings revealed that 50.5% of the migrants were single, with the remainder being married, and no cases of widowhood, separation, or divorce were reported. This absence may be attributed to the youthfulness of the migrant population, indicating that they had recently entered married life. Among the married migrants, the majority (52%) had spouses from their country of origin, while a small percentage (0.5%) had partners from Kibondo, often indicating a high level of adaptation by both migrants and the host community. Analysis of marital status, age, and religion revealed that the average age of marriage among migrants was between 26 and 30 years. Notably, a significant proportion of Muslim migrants (49.2%) married within this age range, shedding light on religious differences in marital timing. Specifically, 20.8% of Muslim married migrants aged 26 to 30, whereas only 0.8% of Christian married migrants aged 15 to 20 were observed. The findings refute those of Agha [33], which revealed that Christians had an increase in the age of marriage in Nigeria. This pattern underscores variations in marriage practices across different religious groups within the migrant population.

3.1.5 Family type of the migrants

The study examines the family types of migrants, recognising their influence on migration decisions and socio-economic dynamics. Family structures play a pivotal role in migration, with male members often migrating to enhance the family's financial well-being [36,37]. The analysis distinguished between extended, joint, and nuclear family types. Extended families, comprising the migrant, spouse, children, and parents or siblings, constituted nearly half (45.9%) of the respondents, providing security and support for migrating males. Joint families, where familial support lessened the need for all males to migrate, accounted for only 11% of migrants. Nuclear families, comprising aged parents, siblings, or spouses, constituted 41.5% of the sample, with migration typically undertaken by younger male members seeking employment opportunities and higher income.

The study also explores the relationship between family type and marital status, shedding light on psychosocial issues faced by spouses remaining at home. Findings reveal that unmarried migrants from nuclear families (30%) outnumber married migrants (12.2%), highlighting the importance of male presence in nuclear families. In contrast, the proportion of married migrants from extended families (30.6%) doubles that of unmarried migrants, suggesting a lesser reliance on male presence in extended family structures. Similarly, in joint families, the distribution of married and unmarried migrants is relatively balanced, indicating freedom and support for male migration. Notably, no respondents belonged to strict joint family setups. These findings align with existing research on the challenges faced by migrant spouses, emphasising the significance of family structure in shaping migration patterns and outcomes [38].

3.1.6 Ooccupationof the migrants in the host society

The study examines the occupations of migrants in the host society, focusing on post-migration skill investment and its implications. Occupation is a significant indicator of unemployment rates, sectoral engagement, and economic dependence in both the place of origin and destination. Understanding the migrants' pre-migration occupations facilitates smoother job adjustments in the host society [39].

According to the findings presented in Table 1, more than a third (35%) of the respondents are involved in various construction activities, primarily in unskilled roles. Agricultural and general labour is the second largest category, with 29% of workers engaged in both skilled and unskilled positions. Around 8% of the respondents work as hawkers and peddlers, selling various goods, while 5% are employed as domestic servants, including individuals of all ages and genders, with a few serving as midwives. Approximately 4% of the workers work as head loaders, primarily involved in loading and unloading stones. Before migration, most migrants held casual or low-status jobs, with half of them previously employed in agriculture. The findings align with those of Esen and Binatlı [40], who observed that most Syrian migrants in Turkey were involved in agriculture before migrating. The prevalence of agricultural work in their place of origin is mirrored in the occupation choices of migrants in Kibondo, where agriculture and casual labour dominate.

3.1.7 Daily wage of the migrant in the host society

The study examines the daily wages of migrants in the host society, intending to understand labour demand and earnings disparities compared to their places of origin. By analysing wages both before and after migration, the study reveals patterns of remittance and provides insights into the factors driving migration to Kibondo. The findings indicate that most migrants (24%) earn 5,000 TZS per day, with only a small fraction earning above 10,000 TZS per day, primarily those engaged in businesses such as money transferring and road tarring. Approximately 7% of migrants earn wages based on their work output. When comparing their current wages with their pre-migration earnings, migrants now receive an average of 4,750 TZS per day, representing a significant increase from the 1,700 TZS they earned before migrating. Findings are presented in Table 3.

Low wages in their places of origin (e.g., 2,000 TZS for 16.3% of migrants) act as push factors, propelling migrants towards Kibondo's higher-paying opportunities, in line with Lee's push-pull migration theory [41]. The study also highlights wage discrimination based on skill and gender, with female workers in the host society often earning less than their male counterparts. Incidences of wage non-payment were reported, with some migrants only receiving their wages after police intervention or facing difficulties in contacting delinquent employers. The analysis of wage rates by occupation emphasises the favourable wages earned by construction workers, with 18.9% of them earning a minimum of 5,000 TZS per day, indicating lucrative opportunities in the construction sector in Kibondo.

3.1.8 Challenges faced by migrant labourers

The results from Table 4, coupled with the statistical analysis through the Friedman Test, offer valuable insights into the challenges faced by migrants working in various sectors. The mean ranks indicate that late payment of wages is perceived as the most significant problem, with a mean rank of 3.55, followed closely by difficulties working when sick (mean rank of 6.21). These findings emphasise the urgent need for timely wage disbursement and improved access to healthcare services for migrant workers. Additionally, verbal abuse (mean rank - 4.60), physical abuse (mean rank 7.42), cutting wages (mean rank -4.87), and delaying getting wages (mean rank 4.71) are also identified as significant challenges faced by migrants. These issues point to the prevalence of exploitative practices and the need for measures to safeguard the rights and well-being of migrant labourers, including robust mechanisms for addressing wage disputes and preventing abusive behaviour in the workplace.

Table 3. Wage of the migrants in Kibondo

Wage	Frequency	Percent (%)
No wage	1	0.5
Depends on work	13	6.6
Not revealed	2	1
1,500	1	0.5
2,000	5	2.6
2,500	1	0.5
3,000	14	7.1
3,500	5	2.6
3,800	1	0.5
4,000	40	20.4
4,500	3	1.5
5,000	47	24
5,500	12	6.1
6,000	21	10.7
6,500	4	2
7,000	14	7.1
7,500	4	2
8,000	6	3.1
12,000	1	0.5
40,000	1	0.5
Total	196	100

Table 4. Challenges faced by migrants working in various sectors

Challenge	Mean Rank
Late payment of wage	3.55
Hard to work when sick	6.21
Verbal abuse	-4.60
Physical abuse	7.42
Cutting wages	-4.87
Delaying getting wage	4.71
Health problems	-4.08
Suspension	5.07
N	196
The Friedman Test value	586.310
Df	8
P value	.000

Table 5. Communalities (Push and pull factors) on the factors in the migration

Components	Initial	Extraction
To get rid of the debt	1.000	.628
To get rid of the impact of drought	1.000	.491
Lack of adequate agricultural land in the native place	1.000	.635
Lack of job opportunity	1.000	.559
Lack of preference as per my choice	1.000	.543
Poor economic conditions of family	1.000	.571
To get rid of the family problem	1.000	.510
Political instability in country of origin	1.000	.472
Lack of relatives and isolation	1.000	.576
Rural and urban amenities	1.000	.596
Better job opportunities	1.000	.554
Influence of peer group	1.000	.602
Enjoy the freedom of single family	1.000	.673
Higher labor rate	1.000	.597
Lack of alternative employment opportunity in country of origin	1.000	.621

Extraction method: principal component analysis

The Friedman Test, with a high value of 586.310 and a statistically significant p-value of .000, confirms the substantial differences in mean ranks assigned to these challenges by migrants across various sectors. This highlights the diverse range of difficulties migrant workers encounter and underscores the importance of targeted interventions and policy measures to address these pressing issues and improve the working conditions and welfare of migrants in the host society.

3.1.9 Chain migration

Chain migration, a significant aspect analysed in the study, sheds light on the migration trends and tendencies influenced by social networks. This phenomenon, which can have both positive and negative impacts on groups and individuals, occurs when migrants are prompted to move by earlier migrants, including friends, relatives, or neighbors. Typically, chain migration results in the formation of cliques comprising individuals of similar age, village, district, or familial ties [42].

The study reveals that half of the migrants had friends or relatives already residing in Kibondo, indicating the influential role of social connections, particularly friends, in migration decisions. This influence is especially pronounced among youths, who migrate in large numbers, often driven by the expansive networks of friendships that facilitate and encourage migration. Notably, the study highlights that many youths opt for migration immediately after completing their education or embarking on their job search, viewing migration as a viable means to secure income and employment opportunities. These findings are also corroborated by McAuliffe & Ruhs [43], who highlight that the

primary motivation for migration is the employment search.

3.2 The Push and pull Factors that Contribute to Migration

The study delves into the push and pull factors driving Kibondo migration, aiming to comprehend the underlying reasons for the substantial in-migration observed. Traditional migration theories distinguish between push and pull factors, wherein push factors represent negative elements compelling individuals to leave their place of origin, such as unemployment, poverty, political instability, and natural disasters, while pull factors entail the allure of destination areas, such as better living conditions, higher wages, and job opportunities. Analysing both sets of factors offers insights into the dynamics of migration decision-making.

From Table 5, it is evident that 15 components were identified, each showing a moderate relationship based on extraction values. Additionally, Table 6 illustrates that seven factors contribute significantly to migrant labourers' migration decisions in Kibondo, collectively explaining 57.51% of the variance. The factors encompass various dimensions, including resource availability, work prospects, societal status, sectoral opportunities, self-sufficiency, and economic conditions.

Further analysis in Table 7 reveals how these factors manifest in the migrant labourers'

experiences, highlighting both the influence and significance of each factor. For instance, factors like barrenness of resources, persistence of societal status, and scope of the sector exhibit high influence, while others like work-life balance and self-sufficiency demonstrate lower impact.

Statistical validation through ANOVA (Table 8) confirms the significance of these factors, with a significant difference observed in migrant labourers' perceptions. The F value of 52.13 ($p < 0.05$) indicates substantial variance among the factors, rejecting the null hypothesis.

Moreover, while the study primarily focuses on conventional push and pull factors, it also acknowledges additional motivations for migration, such as the desire for travel and novel experiences. Notably, it features the prevalence of in-migration push factors in origin countries, including low wages, limited employment opportunities, and seasonal fluctuations in the agricultural sector, which compel individuals to seek employment elsewhere.

3.3 Economic Exchanges and Consumer Behaviours

In this section, the focus is on economic exchanges and consumer behaviour among migrants. It delves into their daily spending habits, savings, economic responsibilities, and preferences regarding mobile phones, clothing, food, and household appliances. The analysis

Table 6. Total Variance explained on the factors in the migration

Component	Initial Eigenvalue			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.538	20.256	20.256	1.538	10.256	10.256
2	1.371	19.139	39.395	1.371	9.139	19.395
3	1.285	8.566	27.962	1.285	8.566	27.962
4	1.225	8.166	36.128	1.225	8.166	36.128
5	1.11	7.401	43.53	1.11	7.401	43.53
6	1.088	7.256	50.785	1.088	7.256	50.785
7	1.009	6.728	57.513	1.009	6.728	57.513
8	0.968	6.451	63.965			
9	0.949	6.326	70.291			
10	0.92	6.135	76.425			
11	0.848	5.651	82.076			
12	0.774	5.16	87.236			
13	0.721	4.807	92.044			
14	0.674	4.492	96.536			
15	0.52	3.464	100			

Extraction method: principal component analysis

sheds light on how migrants allocate their funds, particularly remittance investments. Notably, migrants significantly contribute to the economic growth of Kibondo through their expenditures. Their presence in the local economy affects various aspects, prompting an investigation into the economic implications of migration. The UNHCR report [44] shows that migration leads to economic improvements for both migrant families and host societies through remittance inflows [14]. These funds enhance migrants' purchasing power and savings, impacting economic interventions and social spending patterns.

3.3.1 Economic relations of the migrants

The study focused on analysing the economic relations of migrants in Kibondo, particularly regarding debts, wage payments, and consumption patterns. Based on findings in Table 9, most economic interactions (39.3%) occurred with shopkeepers, fellow migrants, landlords, and friends, indicating strong social ties within the migrant community. Co-workers, likely fellow migrants, accounted for around 30% of economic relations, often assisting each other with tasks and transactions. However, only a small percentage (17.9%) of migrants had economic ties with their employers, mainly in sectors like agriculture and construction, where weekly wage payments facilitated transactions. This limited relationship was attributed to the lack of close social bonds between migrants and their employers, who primarily served as wage providers.

Table 7. Rotated component matrix on the factors in the migration (N = 196)

Components	Component						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Lack of preference as permy choice	**.705**	.162	.099	.074	-.056	-.033	.016
Lack of adequate agricultural land in the native place	**-.597**	.084	.052	.517	.022	.035	-.007
To get rid of the family problem	**.475**	-.306	-.231	.255	.094	.212	.136
Lack of job opportunity	-.116	**.724**	-.003	-.018	-.028	.097	.101
Influence of peer group	.209	**.714**	-.061	.110	.031	-.084	-.159
To get rid of the debt	-.179	-.192	**.742**	.044	.008	-.045	-.071
Rural and urban amenities	.204	.130	**.724**	-.040	-.048	.079	.057
Better job opportunities	-.042	-.038	.266	**-.643**	.174	-.181	-.056
To discrimination on the ground of caste	.065	.027	.204	**.595**	.195	-.180	-.014
Higher labour rate	.083	.016	-.006	.140	**.727**	.202	-.017
To get rid of the impact of drought	.085	.089	.000	.055	**-.596**	.340	.051
Agricultural opportunities	-.335	.153	-.107	-.303	**.472**	.321	.101
Enjoy the freedom of single family	-.004	-.002	.034	-.005	.045	**.815**	-.076
Lack of alternative employment opportunity in offseason	-.009	.099	-.034	-.101	.156	-.216	**.727**
Poor economic conditionsof family	-.069	.142	-.016	-.136	.199	-.134	**-.686**
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis							
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization							
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations							

Table 8. One factor ANOVA on the factors in the migration

Mean	n	Std. Dev.	Factors in the Migration
3.15***	196	1.017	Barrenness of resources
3.19***	196	0.749	The bleakness of work perspective
2.83*	196	0.749	Work-life balance
3.33***	196	1.076	Persistence of Societal Status
3.51***	196	0.876	The scope of the sector
2.37*	196	0.876	Self-sufficiency
2.71*	196	1.309	Poor economic conditions of the family

*-Low; **-Moderate; ***-High

Anova table	Source	d	MS	F	p
Treatment	293.28	6	48.8803	52.13	0.000
Error	2,053.34	2190	0.9376	Result	
Total	2,346.62	2196		Significant	

Post hoc analysis

Tukey Simultaneous Comparison t-values (df = 2190)

		Group 6	Group 7	Group 3	Group 1	Group 2	Group 4	Group 5
		2.37	2.71	2.83	3.15	3.19	3.33	3.51
Group 6	2.37							
Group 7	2.71	4.43*						
Group 3	2.83	5.95*	1.52					
Group 1	3.15	10.05*	5.63*	4.1*				
Group 2	3.19	10.6*	6.17*	4.64*	0.54			
Group 4	3.33	12.43*	7.99*	6.47*	2.36	1.83		
Group 5	3.51	14.75*	10.32*	8.8*	4.69*	4.16*	2.33	

Critical values for experiment-wise error rate: *-Significant
0.05   2.99

Table 9. Economic relations of the migrants (N = 196)

Category	Frequency	Percent (%)
Co-workers	59	30
Employer	35	17.9
Host population	20	10.2
Shopkeepers	77	39.3
House owner	196	100

Additionally, only 10.2% of migrants engaged in economic relations with the host population, mainly as consumers or employees, with barriers such as language differences and mistrust hindering closer ties. Instead, migrants relied on each other for support, with some receiving financial aid from supervisors who maintained regular contact with them.

The study findings feature the importance for migrants to establish multiple economic relationships to foster a functional social life while highlighting the predominance of ties within the migrant community and the limited interaction with employers and the host population.

3.3.2 Economic empowerment of migrants

The economic empowerment of migrants was examined by considering their perspectives. The findings indicate that migrants reported low contribution levels to family expenses and limited decision-making autonomy in financial matters before migration. They expressed difficulties in meeting expenses related to education, household items, personal needs, saving regularly, alleviating poverty, and developing financial management skills with their previous income. However, after migration, the respondents reported higher levels of contribution to family expenses and greater

independence in financial decision-making, which is considered a positive outcome. They mentioned that their increased income allowed them to meet educational expenses for their children, purchase household items and properties, fulfil personal needs and expenses independently, alleviate poverty, and improve their financial management skills, except for regular savings.

3.3.3 Savings of the migrants

The study examined the multifaceted use of wages migrants earn in the host society, including daily expenses, debt repayment, education, healthcare, and investments. Migration for economic reasons historically led to significant improvements in the well-being of migrants, both individually and at societal and national levels. In the context of Kibondo, in-migration injected substantial funds into the local economy, subsequently bolstering economic growth in migrants' countries of origin.

Findings presented in Table 10 focused on remittances sent by migrants from Kibondo to their home countries, indicating the extent of their expenditure in the host society. The findings are presented in Table 10. Most migrants (63.58%) sent monthly remittances ranging from TZS 50,000 to 100,000, with a significant portion (36.7%) sending TZS 100,000 per month. A smaller percentage (12.93%) sent less than TZS 50,000 monthly, while 1% of migrants engaged in businesses or money transfer agencies sent over TZS 200,000 monthly.

Table 10. Remittances/transactions from kibondo to the origin country

Remittances amount (Last remittances)	Percent (%)
Never	7.62
Not Reported	5.31
10,000 – 50,000	24.08
50,000 – 100,000	39.50
100,000 – 150,000	19.73
150,000 – 200,000	3.16
200,000 and above	1.00

These remittances facilitated economic interactions among migrants and supported various transactions, from food consumption to sending money back home. A significant portion of migrants also saved or sent higher amounts, indicating increased economic earnings for their home countries. While some sent money less frequently but in larger sums, the majority sent money monthly to meet their families' needs. The findings align with that of Bikoue [45], which indicates that migrants make significant contributions to the economies of their home countries through remittances. These remittances have a positive impact by reducing poverty, stimulating local economic activity, and improving overall well-being, ultimately leading to long-term growth and development.

However, there were instances where migrants did not send money due to various reasons, such as lack of necessity or family disputes. Flikweert et al. [46] note that migrants may fail to send remittances due to legal and economic uncertainties while on the move, despite having assets and family in their origin country. Nevertheless, the remittances sent significantly improved living conditions and social status for recipients, contributing to the economic progress of migrants' home countries through the substantial outflow of funds from Kibondo.

3.3.4 Mode of saving by the migrants

The study examined various methods employed by migrants to save their wages. In today's digital era, numerous options are available for saving and transferring money, making the process more accessible [47]. The choice of saving method is crucial for economic transactions, with options including bank deposits, bank-mediated transfers, postal services, money orders, and Internet banking. While cash savings remain a possibility, they were found to be less common. This method was advantageous for agents or contractors and also enabled migrants to send larger sums later. In cases where migrants or their family members lacked bank accounts, they often relied on the accounts of co-workers, friends, or neighbours, thus forming another type of economic relationship.

Approximately 60% of migrants relied on commercial banks to save and transfer money. However, internet banking was not as widely utilised among migrants, with only 3.1% utilising this service due to a lack of awareness. Less than ten migrants (3.1%) engaged in Internet banking, often facilitated by one migrant working in a mobile shop that helped his friends access Internet Banking. Additionally, around 4.6% of migrants saved or sent money using accounts held by friends or relatives, while nearly 20% sought assistance from their employers to remit money to their countries of origin. Instances

where migrants did not save or send money or used money transfer agencies fell under the "others" category, accounting for 12.8%.

3.3.5 Daily expenses of the migrants

The study findings showed that migrants in the Kibondo district allocated their monthly expenses across various categories, as presented in Table 11. The majority of migrants allocated a significant portion of their income to food expenses, with 51.5% of workers spending an average amount of 126,713 TZS per month. This emphasises the importance of food as a fundamental necessity for migrants. Accommodation expenses represented another substantial portion of migrants' monthly budget, with 19% of workers allocating an average amount of 63,226 TZS per month. This indicates the significance of securing housing for migrants in the district.

A smaller percentage of migrants allocated funds for work-related travel expenses, with 5% of workers spending an average of 14,196 TZS monthly. This suggests that some migrants incur expenses related to commuting for employment opportunities. A minority of migrants had a budget for entertainment expenses, with 5% of workers allocating an average of 85,387 TZS per month. This highlights the importance of leisure activities for migrants' well-being, albeit a smaller portion of their budget.

Phone recharge expenses also accounted for by a portion of migrants, with 15% of workers spending an average of 31,352 TZS per month. This reflects the significance of communication for migrants, likely for staying in touch with family and friends. There were miscellaneous expenses that migrants incurred, with 4.5% of workers allocating funds for other purposes, averaging 49,164 TZS per month. These expenses varied widely and could include items such as clothing, healthcare, or personal items.

A general implication of the findings is that food and accommodation constitute the primary expenses for migrants in the Kibondo district, followed by smaller allocations for travelling, entertainment, phone recharge, and miscellaneous expenses. These findings provide valuable insights into the spending patterns and priorities of migrants in the study area, which can inform policies and programs to support their well-being and integration.

3.4 Post-Migration Investment in Skill

3.4.1 Skill acquisition by the migrant from the host society

In regards to migrants, skill acquisition occurs in two settings: their place of origin and their destination. The study investigates the locations where skills are obtained. The term "Present Place of Residence" (PPR) refers to migrants' current location. On the other hand, the term "Last Place of Residence" (LPR) refers to the migrants' native state.

Only a few (5%) migrants learned agricultural skills in Kibondo. This was primarily because agriculture was not the predominant occupation among migrants in the host society; instead, construction and business activities were more common. Construction work accounted for 55% of migrant occupations. The majority of migrants acquired construction skills while working as helpers in the field. Over time, they progressed from helper roles to becoming skilled masons, tile workers, painters, and so forth. This advancement in their work allowed migrants to increase their earnings significantly. Skill acquisition is associated with economic gain, as migrants with diverse skills tend to earn higher wages.

Cooking, as a skill, is typically associated with women in most societies [48,49]. However, in this study, male migrants reported learning to cook out of necessity rather than interest after migration. Approximately half of the migrants stated that they acquired skills beyond construction, agriculture, or industrial work from the host society. Cooking was one such skill acquired, primarily because the majority of migrants were male and had not previously been responsible for cooking in their native households. They learned to prepare both native and host-society cookeries. Additionally, some migrants engaged in business activities after migration, acquiring skills related to financial management and banking transactions.

Construction skills acquired by migrants included various tasks such as piling, masonry, bricklaying, plastering, plumbing, wiring, flooring, and painting. Most of these skills were acquired through observation and hands-on experience rather than formal training programs. Consequently, migrants demonstrated a remarkable ability to quickly adapt and learn new

skills, driven by the need to adapt to their environment and earn a living.

3.4.2 Sskillacquired by the migrant from the native state

In the study, the researcher investigated the skills migrants acquired from their places of origin. These skills proved valuable in securing employment and adapting to work in the host society. The majority (70%) of migrants possessed agricultural skills from their native states, indicating a strong reliance on agriculture in their home countries. On the other hand, only 10.2% had construction-related skills prior to migration, leading to initial challenges in the construction sector upon arrival. While a small percentage learned construction skills from their native places, over half acquired them in the host society, demonstrating the significant role of post-migration skill acquisition, particularly in

construction. Around 10% had workshop or business-related skills before migration, and half acquired new skills in Kibondo post-migration to earn income. This highlights migrants' need to acquire new skills in their new environments. The analysis indicates that migrants gained more skills from the host society than from their places of origin, underscoring the importance of skill acquisition for earning income. The skill requirements of migrants varied depending on the sectors they were involved in, and the host society played a crucial role in improving and expanding their skill sets.

3.4.3 Work of the migrant in the initial period and at present

The study examined the occupations of migrants both during the initial period of migration and at present, shedding light on changes in their employment status and the reasons behind such

Table 11. Average monthly expenses of migrants in the Kibondo district

Expenses	Number of workers	Average amount (In 1,000 TZS)	Percent (%)
Food	101	126.713	51.5
Accommodation	37	63.226	19
Travelling (for Work)	10	14.196	5
Entertainment	10	85.387	5
Phone Recharge	29	31.352	15
Other expenses	9	49.164	4.5

Table 12. Wage of the migrants

Wage rate (in TZS.)	Initial period (Per cent in brackets)	At present (Per cent in brackets)
Below 200000	56 (28.4)	3 (1.5)
200,001-400,000	87 (44.4)	67 (34.2)
400,001-600,000	40 (18.9)	86 (43.8)
600,001-800,000	-	25 (12.8)
800,001-1,000,000	-	2 (1)
Others	13 (6.6)	13 (6.6)
Total		196 (100)

Table 13. Duration of migration and improvement in work

Duration of Migration	Improvement in work (Per cent in Brackets)			Total
	Yes	No	No opinion	
Below 1.5 years	39 (48.8)	11 (13.8)	30 (37.5)	80 (100)
1.5 to 3 years	26 (76.5)	3 (8.8)	5 (14.7)	34 (100)
3 to 4.5 years	34 (91.9)	2 (5.4)	1 (2.7)	37 (100)
4.5 years and above	42 (95.5)	0 (0)	2 (4.5)	44 (100)
Others	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100)	1 (100)
Total	**141 (71.9)**	**16 (8.2)**	**39 (19.9)**	**196 (100)**

Table 14. Chi-square test results

Test used	Value	df	Asymp. Sig (2 sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30.353a	12	.002

transitions. The findings revealed shifts in occupations post-migration, indicating opportunities for migrants to acquire skills from various fields of work. Comparing the occupations of migrants over time, there was a noticeable change in their engagement in construction work, which increased from 42.9% initially to 45.4% at the time of data collection. Additionally, there was a slight increase of approximately 2% in the number of manual workers, including roles such as hotel waiters, business workers, and crusher operators. On the other hand, the migrants involved in agricultural work decreased from 23% initially to 17.3%, suggesting a lower demand for agricultural labour among migrants. The attraction of higher wages and improved working conditions in other sectors often influenced this shift. Migrants transitioning between occupations had the opportunity to gain experience from both fields, with changes sometimes driven by difficulties in adjusting to certain types of work. As migrants moved to more comfortable occupations, they were able to acquire new skills along the way.

The study also compared the wage rates of migrants during the initial phase of migration with those at the time of data collection, aiming to understand the shifts experienced by migrants post-migration. Findings showed that wage rates played a significant role in influencing migrants across all levels (Table 12). Moreover, migrants who remained in their migrant status for longer durations were more likely to encounter substantial changes in their wage levels.

An investigation of the positive and negative changes experienced by migrants following their relocation was carried out. An open-ended question was posed to respondents to elicit detailed responses, allowing exploration of economic and social aspects. Areas of improvement discussed by migrants included financial enhancement, changes in social status, and acquisition of new skills. A majority (71.9%) of respondents expressed a positive change regarding the impact of migration on their lives and work, with nearly three-fourths indicating an improvement (Table 13). On the contrary, 8.2% reported no change or improvement, and 19.9% had no opinions, possibly reflecting a lack of perceived improvement.

Further results showed that as the duration of migration increased, there was a corresponding increase in reported work improvement. For instance, more than 70% of respondents perceived improvement in their work, with a striking 95% of those belonging to the category of long-duration migrants. A chi-square test confirmed a significant relationship between the duration of migration and work improvement, with a calculated statistic of 30.353 and a significance value of .002, indicating a strong association between these variables (Table 14).

4. CONCLUSIONS

The study comprehensively investigated the socio-economic dynamics shaping the lives of migrant labourers in Kibondo district. It provided insights into various aspects of their profiles, migration motivations, economic behaviours, and skill development post-migration. For the socio-economic profile, findings showed that the majority of migrants were young males below 30 years old, predominantly with primary education and single marital status. Many belonged to extended families, providing a support network in their destination. A significant portion engaged in construction work, primarily as unskilled labourers, earning modest daily wages.

As for the Push and Pull factors, the migration decisions were influenced by factors such as resource scarcity, societal status aspirations, limited job prospects, and bleak work opportunities in their places of origin. These factors pushed migrants to seek better economic prospects and improved living conditions in Kibondo.

For the economic exchanges and consumer behaviours, migrants exhibited strong social ties within their community, primarily engaging with fellow migrants for economic interactions. Post-migration, they experienced increased economic empowerment, contributing more to family expenses and gaining greater autonomy in financial decision-making. Commercial banks were the preferred choice for saving and transferring money, with food and accommodation representing primary expenditure areas.

As for post-migration skill development, most migrants acquired construction skills during their time in Kibondo. However, agricultural skills were less common. Male migrants adapted by learning cooking skills, reflecting evolving gender roles. Agricultural skills were predominantly acquired from places of origin, while construction skills were mainly developed post-migration. The duration of migration correlated with perceived improvements in work and life, with longer-term migrants reporting more positive changes.

The study findings highlight the complex interplay of socio-economic factors influencing migrant labourers in the study area, stressing the importance of targeted interventions to support their integration, economic empowerment, and well-being. It is therefore recommended that the policymakers, civil society organisations, and other stakeholders should collaborate to support the migrant labourers in Kibondo district through education and skill development programs, gender-specific support, financial inclusion and literacy, social support networks, diversification of economic opportunities, and policy interventions.

DISCLAIMER (ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE)

Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc) and text-to-image generators have been used during writing or editing of manuscripts.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Hanson GH. Immigration and regional specialisation in ai. National Bureau of Economic Research; 2021.

2. Gallagher ME. China's workers movement & the end of the rapid-growth era. Daedalus. 2014;143(2);81-95.

3. Koczan Z, Peri G, Pinat M, Rozhkov DL. The impact of international migration on inclusive growth: A review. IMF. Working Papers. 2021;2021(088).

4. Brunow S, Nijkamp P, Poot J. The impact of international migration on economic growth in the global economy. In Handbook of the Economics of International Migration North-Holland.. 2015;1;1027-1075.

5. Rosenzweig MR. Consequences of migration for developing countries. In UN conference on international migration and development, Population Division; 2005.

6. Parsons C, Vézina PL. How migrant networks boost trade. International Trade Forum. 2018;3;10–11.

7. Grogger J, Hanson GH. Income maximisation and the selection and sorting of international migrants. Journal of Development Economics. 2021;95(1):42–57.

8. Brell C, Dustmann C, Preston I. The labor market integration of refugee migrants in high-income countries. Journal of Economic Perspectives. 2020;34(1):94–121.

9. Nurhaniyah, Nisrina, Sri Kurniawati, Meiran Panggabean, Erni Panca Kurniasih, and Nindya Lestari. Determinant of educated unemployment rate in west kalimantan: case study in border area. Journal of Economics, Management and Trade 2023;29(10):175-83. Available:https://doi.org/10.9734/jemt/2023/v29i101153.

10. Syufri S, Khairil M, Muhammad H, Amir AM. Migration and Socio-Cultural Adaptation of Bugis Ethnic Migrants in Palu City. Devotion: Journal of Research and Community Service. 2023 Jun 14;4(6):1252-60.

11. MacDonald DS. Notes on the socio-economic and cultural factors influencing the transmission of HIV in Botswana. Social Science & Medicine. 1996;42(9):1325-33.

12. Kanyangoga JB. Integrating migration with development in EAC: policy challenges and recommendations. CUTS Geneva Resource Centre: Geneva, Switzerland; 2020.

13. Secretariat EAC. East African Community Facts and Figures. Arusha; 2011.

14. Aliga AB. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) and Refugee Crisis Management in West Nile, Northern Uganda (Doctoral dissertation, Kampala International University); 2023.
15. Taylor JE, Zhu H, Gupta A, Filipski M, Valli J, Gonzalez E. Economic impact of refugee settlements in Uganda. World Food Programme Kampala. 2016;1–10.
16. Chami R, Fullenkamp C, Gapen M. Measuring workers' remittances: what should be kept in and what should be left out. International Monetary Fund, Mimeo; 2009.
17. Alix-Garcia J, Saah D. The effect of refugee inflows on host communities: Evidence from Tanzania. The World Bank Economic Review. 2020;24(1):148–170.
18. Peri G, Rury D, Wiltshire JC. The economic impact of migrants from Hurricane Maria. National Bureau of Economic Research; 2020.
19. Verme P, Schuettler K. The impact of forced displacement on host communities: A review of the empirical literature in economics. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper. 2019;8727.
20. Borjas GJ. The labor demand curve is downward sloping: Reexamining the impact of immigration on the labor market. The Quarterly Journal of Economics. 2013;118(4):1335–1374.
21. Fasani F, Frattini T, Minale L. (The struggle for) refugee integration into the labour market: Evidence from Europe. Journal of Economic Geography. 2022;22(2):351–393.
22. Ruhs M, Vargas-Silva C. The labour market effects of immigration. The Migration Observatory; 2015.
23. Laberge S, Kay J. Pierre Bourdieu's sociocultural theory and sport practice. Theory, Sport and Society. 2002;10:239-266.
24. Miller SD. Assessing the Impacts of Hosting Refugees. World Refugee Council Research Paper No. 2018;4.
25. Simini F, González MC, Maritan A, Barabási AL. A universal model for mobility and migration patterns. Nature. 2012; 484(7392):96-100.
26. Johnson D. Living on the borderline: The lived experience of young migrants and refugees growing up on the Thailand-Myanmar border (Doctoral dissertation, Trinity College Dublin); 2018.
27. Hughes DM. Best Practices to Address the Demand Side of Sex Trafficking; 2004. Available:https://www.academia.edu/download/31143262/2004huguesbestpracticestoadressdemandside.pd
28. Easwaramangalath AT, Bhat S. Review of Literature Related to Labour Migration: Types, Causes, and Impacts. International Journal of Management, Technology, and Social Sciences (IJMTS); 2022 ISSN,2581-6012.
29. Ncube A, Mkwananzi F. Gendered labour migration in South Africa: A capability approach lens. Migration at Work. 2020; 5(1), 65-90.
30. Mbiyozo AN. Gender and migration in South Africa: Talking to women migrants. ISS Southern Africa Report. 2018;(16):1-36.
31. Gottardo C, Cyment P. The global compact for migration: what could it mean for women and gender relations? Gender & Development. 2019;27(1):67-83.
32. World Bank, Global Economic Prospects Crisis, Finance, and Growth; 2010. Available:https://doi.org/10.1596/978-0-8213-8226-4
33. Agha, S. Changes in the timing of sexual initiation among young Muslim and Christian women in Nigeria. Archives of Sexual Behavior. 2009;38:899-908.
34. Rendon JJ, Xu X, Denton ML, Bartkowski JP. Religion and marriage timing: A replication and extension. Religions. 2014;5(3):834-851.
35. Ratha D, Eigen-Zucchi C, Plaza S. Migration and remittances Factbook 2016. World Bank Publications; 2016.
36. Vidal S, Perales F, Lersch PM, Brandén, M. Family migration in a cross-national perspective: The importance of institutional and cultural context. Demographic Research. 2017;36:307-338.
37. Schurer K. The role of the family in the process of migration. In Migrants, emigrants and immigrants routledge. 2022;106-142.
38. Lu Y, Zhang R, Du H. Family structure, family instability, and child psychological well-being in the context of migration: Evidence from sequence analysis in China. Child Development. 2021;92(4):e416-e438
39. Farashah A, Blomquist T, Al Ariss A, Guo, GC. Perceived employability of skilled migrants: a systematic review and future

research agenda. The International Journal of Human Resource Management. 2023;34(3):478-528.

40. Esen O, Binatlı A. (2017). The impact of Syrian refugees on the Turkish economy: Regional labour market effects. Social Sciences. 2017;6(4):129.

41. Igwedibia A, Ezeonu C. Push-Pull Factor Theories of Migration: An Analysis of Chika Unigwe's on black sisters' street. Nigerian Journal of Arts and Humanities (NJAH). 2023;3(1).

42. Williams JR. The use of online social networking sites to nurture and cultivate bonding social capital: A systematic review of the literature from 1997 to 2018. New Media & Society. 2019;21(11-12):2710-2729.

43. McAuliffe M, Ruhs M. World migration report 2018. Geneva: International Organization for Migration. 2017;1-32.

44. UNHCR. Global Report: The stories behind the numbers; 2021. Available:https://reporting.unhcr.org/global-report-2021-french

45. Bikoue SM. African Migrants and Remittances: Impact on Growth and Development of their Home Countries. Business and Economic Research. 2020;10(3):292-310.

46. Flikweert W, Bilgili Ö, Caarls K. Remittance-Sending behaviour along migration trajectories: The case of senegalese, ghanaian and congolese migrants. In Onward migration and multi-sited transnationalism: Complex trajectories, practices and ties. Cham: Springer International Publishing. 2020;77-98.

47. Sharma A, Singh SK, Kumar S, Chhabra A, Gupta S. Security of android banking mobile apps: Challenges and opportunities. In International Conference on cyber security, privacy and networking cham: Springer International Publishing. 2021;406-416.

48. Hodgson DL. Gender, justice, and the problem of culture: from customary law to human rights in Tanzania. Indiana University Press; 2017.

49. Amanor-Wilks, D. Continuity and Change: Women's Work in the Kente Economy of Bonwire, Ghana. Feminist Africa. 2023; 4(1).

Peer-review history:
The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/118515