FINAL RESEARCH PROJECT

SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AFFECTING NON-MIGRATION IN THE NORTH WEST AND SOUTH WEST REGION

VISHI ANOLD VEHLOWN

MBA STUDENT RESEARCH
TEXILA AMERICAN UNIVERSITY

Table of Contents

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the study

Human migration involves the movement of people from one place to another with intentions of settling, permanently or temporarily, at a new location. The movement often occurs over long distances and from one country to another as well as internally (within the same country). Migration is basically for improvement in welfare and mainly depend on pull factors from the destination. However, forced migration, that is, forced movement or an involuntary, evacuation or relocation of persons, which does not depend on the people desire to migrate, is now a major problem in the world both internally and internationally. Force migration can be as a result of conflict or environmental hazards.

The management of international and regional governance of forced migration is one of the major complex global problems of our time. The complexity increases in the context of Africa due to the multiple forms and trends of internal displacement, and its plentiful argumentative impacts on various aspect of life and economic activities. The large number of forced migrants and their grim life situation as well as makes it even more problematic. In Africa, forced migration takes varied forms and trends. Apart from forced migrants due to conflicts, there are spontaneous migrations of peasant farmers as a result of drought and seasonal traditional migrations of Agro-pastoralists communities in search of water and grazing lands (Maru, 2o11).

There has recently been an increase of interest in the likely impact of conflict on population movements. Despite the lack of precise figures, on the number of people displaced by conflict, there is no doubt that some areas of the world are less

habitable due to conflict. The number of conflicts has remained stagnating with a very high conflict migration. Most of this conflict areas are African countries, making Africa the most fragile compared to other parts of the world (Center for Systemic Peace, 2014). Conflict therefore forces people to migrate locally as IDP's or international as refugees.

As opposed to refugees who are people displaced from one country to the other and have crossed internationally recognized state borders, internally displaced persons (IDPs) are defined by the 1998 UN Guiding Principles and the 2009 Kampala Convention as,

"Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border," (Kampala Convention, 2009, Art 1(k)).

Therefore, IDPs being within their sovereign state, are under the responsibility of their state of origin. It is therefore quite important that each state with IDPs should take the necessary measures for the wellbeing and hopefully, the subsequent return of IDPs, if possible, or assist in their settlement and integration in a new area (Kampala Convention, 2009, Art 5(4)). States therefore have the full responsibility of taking measures to protect and assist IDP's within its territory, the Kampala Convention also stipulates that, states have the obligation to cooperate with each other and to respect the mandates of the African Union, the United Nations Organization and the role of international humanitarian organizations, so as to provide assistance to the internally displaced persons (Kampala Convention, Art 5(1, 2, 3). We can therefore understand from the above-mentioned articles of the

Kampala Convention that there is a clear obligation for states to facilitate and ease the inter-relation between its organs and non-state stakeholders in providing protection and assistance to internally displaced persons and for other states to provide assistance to refugees.

While some empirical evidence for the relationship between conflict and migration remains inconclusive (Lozano-Gracia, Piras, Ibáñez, & Hewings, 2012), (Schon, 2019) (Segal, 2021), it is in fact the case that policy-makers, public institutions, and scholars often argue that conflict is expected to lead to migration. Despite the growing idea of conflict leading to migration, it is however not in all cases that people facing conflict do migrate. The inconclusiveness of the literature about the effect of conflict on migration is due to the fact that, most of this works focusses of already migrated population. It is therefore important to focus of the left back population in order to investigate their non-migration decision.

Similarly, to climate induced migration, some of these individuals may be considered "trapped" population because they lack the means to relocate or "stayers" because they have the means to relocate but do not move because of family ties, place attachment among other socio-economic factors (Black & Collyer, 2014). "Trapped" population and "stayers" are the two main extreme groups of non-migrants. Non migration is often treated as neither a default state when migrants are not feasibly "strapped" nor "stayers".

Recent literature claims that more affluent people, who can bear more of the expenses and challenges of migration, also migrate for better economic opportunities. Conflict-migration as well climate migration literature explains that people migrate for better livelihood options like, sustained food supply, to diversify the risk of losing their lives among others (Lozano-Gracia, Piras, Ibáñez,

& Hewings, 2012) (Schon, 2019) (Segal, 2021). As earlier mentioned above, not everyone in conflict zones do migrate, therefore there is both a push factor (sustained food supply, to diversify the risk of losing their lives among others) from the conflict zone and a pull factor (family ties, place attachment and other socio-economic factors) in conflict zones, making conflict induced migration a very context-specific process. Despite the numerous literatures on conflict induced migration, there is yet no conclusion on the subjectivity and effect of social, economic as well as environmental factors on conflict induced migration around the world.

Problem statement

Traditional migration models are based on "pull" theories and predict that the main driver of migration is income differentials between the point of origin and the destination (deprivation approach). People with low income always have a higher tendency to migrate (Harris & Todaro, 1970) (Massey, et al., 1993) as they seek to improve their standard of living. This theory seems not to take into consideration the push factors of migration like environmental changes and conflict. There is therefore no conclusive evidence to support this as their other incentive for migration as migration does not necessarily lead to relatively higher wage returns (Flippen, 2013). Advocates of "push" theories of migration argue that the propensity to migrate is not necessarily highest among the poorest communities; it is in fact highest in communities with the highest social inequality (Stark & Yitzhaki, 1988) (Stark, 1984) (Stark & Taylor, 1991). In the context of conflict-related migration just like climate related migration, household-level approaches appear to be more pertinent. Migration is identified as a risk diversification strategy for households and therefore a push factor. Stress from conflict is

considered as a constraint for the household to engage in migration, since its limiting household resources

Empirically, in the context of sub-Saharan Africa in particular, numerous pathways exist to explain people's inherent motive to migrate from one place to another and multiple factors may be at play simultaneously. While researchers are in agreement that migration may be driven by both "push factors" in the origin such as social inequality and poverty, and "pull factors" in the destination such as better economic opportunities and social safety, the migration literature has not yet come to a compromise on the whether the push nor the pull factor has a greater influence on migration decision or non-migration decision or they reinforce each other as well as their subjectivity around the world as regard to conflict induced migration is concerned.

Cameroon, is one of the countries that is currently facing a high level of fragility and migration due to conflict with mass displacement of persons due to the "Boko Haram" insurgency in the North and due to the crisis in the North West and South West regions, which is our main focus in this academic work. Even though a great number of people have migrated internally and internationally, it can be seen that many people have not been able to migrate despite the increasing tension of the crises.

Despite the prevalence of these conflicts, many people still find it difficult to migrate. It is therefore not clear if the non-migration decision along this area is due to whether they are "trapped" or "stayers". It is for this reason that this study therefore concentrates on the environmental non-migration decision in the North West and South West region of Cameroon.

Research question

Main Research questions

What are the socio-economic and demographic factors affecting non-migration in the North West and South West Region?

Specific Research question

What is the role of income in the non-migration decision in the North West and South West Regions of Cameroon?

What is the role of family ties in the non-migration decision in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon?

What is the psychological effect of non-migration decision in the North West and South West Region of Cameroon?

Objectives

General objectives

To examine the socio-economic and demographic factors affecting non-migration in the North West and South West Region?

non-migration decision in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon.

Specific objectives

To investigate the role of income in the non-migration decision in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon.

To investigate the role of family ties in the non-migration decision in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon.

Explore the psychological effect of non-migration decision in the North West and South West Region of Cameroon.

Research hypothesis

H1: Income positively affect non-migration decision

H2: Family positively affect non-migration decision

H3: psychological effet affect non-migration décision

Significance of the study

The significance of this study can be appreciated from two levels: This study contributes to the body of knowledge regarding conflict migration literature. As concerns the theoretical significance, the study will add an insight to the understanding the determinants of the factors that mitigate for and against migration decision. It will contribute to the already existent literature on the topic in developing countries and particularly Cameroon where prior studies are almost lacking.

As for the practical significance, the study will help inform policy makers as well as NGOs of the factors that account for non-migration decisions so as provide the best assistance when possible and when need be.

Scope and limitation of the study

From the case study of the research, the researcher decided to limit the case study the English-speaking regions of Cameroon. Though the result can be applicable to the northern region of Cameroon, the researcher decided to choose English speaking regions of Cameroon. This is so because there are so the two regions are facing the same crises and since non migration decisions are context specific.

The limitation of this study is that, it results may not be generalized to making conclusions for other parts of the world since migration decisions is context specific as earlier announced.

Organisation of the work

The remainder of this study provides the literature background, the methodology used to investigate the relationships, the results of the investigation, and concluding and remarks. Chapter two discusses the prior literature related to this study. Chapter three describes the methodology employed for the study. Chapter four explains the results of the data analysis. Chapter five summarizes the results as well as discussion and provides suggestions and direction for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual framework

2.1.1 Migration

Since the mankind creation, humanity has always been on the move. People move in quest of work or economic opportunities like higher wages as well as business opportunities, to study, to join their family. Others move to escape conflict so as to reduce the risk of losing their lives, terrorism, persecution as well as because of human rights violations. On the other hand, others move in response to the confrontational effects of natural disasters, climate change among other environmental factors. This movement is usually termed migration though it is not all types of movement that is incorporated into the term migration.

Migration is the movement of people from one place to another with the intentions of settling, temporarily or permanently, at the new place. The movement usually occur over long distances and from one country to another, but there also exist internal migration (within a single country). The definition of 'migration' varies between countries, for example, the government of Bangladesh define migration as a movement of people who change their place of residence, for reasons other than marriage, for a period of six months or more. Therefore, movement within a district is not considered as migration (BBS, 2012). But it is obvious that people may move within same district for employment, so that their family can stay in their place of origin (Etzold & Bishawjit, 2016). Some household members may migrate to support the remaining members in their place of origin through the sending of remittances (Stark & Bloom, 1985). On the

contrary, modern socio-economic literature claims that more affluent people, who can endure the expenses and challenges of migration, also migrate for better economic opportunities. Environmental migration literature explains that people migrate for better livelihood options not only because of extreme political events (conflict) and environmental events, but also gradual onset events that disrupt their livelihood options. Thus, there is series of reasons why people migrate; political and environmental push and economic pull factors, making migration a very context-specific process (Black et al., 2011; Call et al., 2017; Chen & Mueller, 2018; Hunter & Norton, 2015; Piguet, 2018).

Voluntary and forced migration

Based on situation or reasons to migrate, migration is divided into two categories: *voluntary migration* and *forced migration*. The distinction between *involuntary* (political conflict or natural disaster) and *voluntary migration* (economic or labor migration) is difficult to be made subjective. Voluntary migration is centered on the initiative and the unrestricted will of the person to migrate which is influenced by a combination of factors: economic, political and social: either in the migrants` country of origin ("push factors") or in the destination country (attraction factors or "pull factors"). Forced migration refers to the movements of people from one place to the other (refugees and internally displaced people usually due to conflict as well as natural or environmental disasters, chemical or nuclear disasters, famine, or development projects (Colson, 2003). These different causes of migration leave people with one choice, to move to a new environment. Migrants leave their beloved homes to seek a life in camps, spontaneous settlement, and countries of asylum.

In these studies, migration is a complex decision and is associated to many economic, social, environmental and security aspects (IOM, 2018); it includes a multitude of movements (internal or international, local or regional), situations (forced or voluntary) and backgrounds (temporary or permanent). Therefore, migration provides millions of people around the world with remarkable opportunities to either improve their lives ('migration as adaptation', Black et al., 2011; Hunter et al., 2015) or to face further livelihood challenges ('failure of migration', Gemenne & Blocher, 2017). Conversely, some people choose to stay in their place of origin and not migrate, despite the risks encountered their place of origin. Their reasons for staying are also rooted in their livelihood conditions, and the decision to stay depends on aspirations and capabilities (Carling, 2002; Mallick & Schanze, 2020). People who aspire to migrate but lack the means or capitals or resources to migrate are often referred to as a 'trapped' population. Similarly, those who aspire to stay but cannot (are forced to migrate due to the fact that they are exposed to conflict, environmental risk among others, are often referred to as 'forced migrants. Besides, there are people who voluntarily 'stay' or 'migrate', the reasons for such voluntary non-migration decisions are less understood and is less important to policy adjustment programs than non-voluntary migrants.

Notably, when voluntary, both migration and non-migration can be understood as as deliberate behavioral choices, rather than non-migration which is merely being the opposite of migration (Massey et al., 1998). In this context, non-migration results from the fact that, the benefits of staying outweigh the benefits of migration, as the factors that make a person choose to migrate also determine non-migration decisions (Mallick & Schanze, 2020). Obviously, the main reasons for migration or non-migration primarily depend on livelihood conditions. This

implies a general hypothesis that unstable livelihood conditions influence people to migrate, and sustainable livelihood conditions encourage non-migration (Chambers & Conway, 1992, p. 296; Serrat, 2017). Here, livelihood conditions result from the ownership, accessibility and availability of resources and capitals (natural, social, economic, political and human resources) (Farrington et al., 1999; Serrat, 2017). Thus, it is important to investigate the condition of these capitals individually to understand the livelihood conditions. This is the key to the sustainable livelihood approach (Benson & Twigg, 2007, pp. 1–184; Chambers & Conway, 1992, p. 296; FAO, 2009; Farrington et al., 1999; Krantz, 2001; Serrat, 2017).

Despite the growing idea of conflict leading to migration, it is however not in all cases that people facing conflict risk (conflict and or climate change) do migrate like the case of the north west and south west regions of Cameroon coast. Such group who does not migrate despite the increasing conflict risk are generally termed "conflict non-migrants" likewise those who do not migrate despite the increasing environmental risk could also be termed "environmental non-migrants". Some of these individuals may be considered "trapped" population because they lack the means to relocate or "stayers" because they have the means to relocate but do not move because of family ties, place attachment among other socio-economic factors (Black & Collyer, 2014). "Trapped" population and "stayers" are the two main extreme groups of non-migrants (political or environmental non- migrants. Non-migrants are therefore those groups of individuals that despite the exposure to risk, do not moved away from this risky area. This may be due to place attachment, employment opportunities, natural endowment of resources, fear of not having better opportunities elsewhere as well as lack of means to relocate from the risk zone. Despite the numerous empirical literatures on migration, understanding the subjectivity of non-migrants into "trapped population" and "stayers" is empirically

challenging. Non migration is often treated as neither a default state when migrants are not feasibly "strapped" nor "stayers". Estimates predicting the mass movement of people due to environmental changes have therefore been criticized.

Conflict

Conflict is the argument or disagreement about something important. If two people or groups are in conflict, they have had a serious disagreement or argument and have not yet reached agreement. Conflict is an activity which takes place when conscious beings (people or groups) wish to carry out mutually inconsistent acts activity concerning their wants, needs or obligations. Conflict is an escalation of a disagreement, which is its common prerequisite, and is characterized by the existence of conflict behavior including physical fight, in which the beings are actively trying to damage one another (Nicholson, 1992). Therefore, Conflict is also physical which involves a physical fight between different groups. Conflict is a clash of interest between two or more people or groups of people. The origin of conflict may differ but it is usually a part of every society. In other words, it exists in all societies. Basis of conflict may be personal, class, racial, political, caste, as well as international. Conflict in groups usually follow a specific course. Routine group interaction is mainly disrupted by an initial conflict, often caused by differences or opposition of opinion, disagreements between members, or scarcity of resources. At this point, the group is no longer united, and may split into coalitions. This period of conflict escalation in some cases gives way to a conflict resolution stage, after which the group can eventually return to routine group interaction. All definitions of conflict include the opposition of interests and the process and conflict can only be stopped by trying to stop the opposing view or views. Conflict may also be limited to one individual or a society (the intrapersonal

conflict or intragroup conflict) and not necessarily more than one person or groups or societies (intergroup), who is conflicted within himself (Afzalur, 2011).

Type of conflict

According to (Sidorenkov, Borokhovski, & Kovalenko, 2018) *intragroup conflict is* conflict within one person or and the group they are a part of. On the other hand, *interpersonal conflict* is conflict between two or more people. More specifically, conflict can be classified into the following types

Content conflict occurs when individuals disagree among themselves about how to deal with a certain issue. This can be a good thing as it has the potential to stimulate discuss as well as increase motivation (Jowett & Lavallee, 2007).

Relationship conflict occurs when individuals disagree about one another. This relational conflict decreases loyalty, commitment, satisfaction as well as performance and causes individuals to be negative, irritable and suspicious (Jowett & Lavallee, 2007). This stems from interpersonal incompatibilities. It is an awareness of frictions caused by annoyance, irritations and frustrations. Relationship conflict is comparable to affective and cognitive conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

Process conflict refers to disagreement over the group's approach to the task, its methods, and its group process. They note that although process conflict and relationship conflict are harmful, task conflict is found to be beneficial since it encourages diversity of opinions, therefore care should always be taken so it does not develop into a process or relationship conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

Task conflict is related to disagreements on opinion and viewpoints about a particular task in a group setting. It is associated with two interrelated and

beneficial effects. The first is group decision quality. Task conflict encourages greater cognitive understanding of the issue being discussed. This leads to better decision making for the groups that use task conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). The second is affective acceptance of group decisions. Task conflict can lead to increased satisfaction with the group decision and a desire to stay in the group (Järvisalo & Saris, 1975).

Affective conflict is an emotional conflict developed from interpersonal disputes and incompatibilities. It often produces distrust, suspicion as well as hostility. Therefore, it can be seen as a negative kind of conflict and as an obstacle to those who experience it and is described as "dysfunctional" (Amason & Sapienza, 1997)

Cognitive conflict occurs during tasks and comes from a difference in judgment and perspective. It improves decision making and allows for the freer exchange of information between group members. Cognitive conflict is seen as a positive tension that promotes good group work (Amason & Sapienza, 1997).

Phases of conflict

A conflict has five phases.

1. **Prelude to conflict:** It involves all the factors which possibly leads to conflict among individuals or groups. Lack of coordination, differences in interests, dissimilarity in cultural, educational as well as religion background all are instrumental in leading to conflict.

2. **Triggering Event:** No conflict can arise on its own without any causal event. There has to be an event which triggers the conflict. Two individuals for example never got along very well with themselves. They were from different cultural backgrounds, a very strong factor for possibility of a

conflict. One person was in the mid of a presentation when the other stood up and criticized him for the lack of relevant content in his presentation, thus triggering the conflict between them.

3. **Initiation Phase:** Initiation phase is actually the phase when the conflict has already begun. Heated arguments, verbal disagreements, abuses among others, are all warning alarms which indicate that the fight of conflict is already on.

4. **Differentiation Phase:** It is the phase when the individuals voice out their differences against each other. The reasons for the conflict are raised in the differentiation phase.

5. **Resolution Phase:** A Conflict leads to nowhere. Individuals must try to compromise to some extent and resolve the conflict soon. The resolution phase explores the various options to resolve the conflict.

2.1.2 Conflict induced displacement in Cameroon

Displacement is known globally as a huge problem and a consequence of many of the world's calamities such as climate change, war, poverty among others. People around the globe are obliged to abandon their homes and seek refuge in new places, "*often at the price of serious threats to their rights and welfare*" (Crisp, 2012, p. 1). Displacement linked with conflict in Cameroon could be traced back in 2014, with the Boko Haram insurgency in the Far North region (IDMC, 2019). The continuous attacks by Boko haram on inhabitants of the Far North region of Cameroon, has continuously led to high insecurity and eventual displacement of people in this region of the country. However, in 2016, there was an outbreak of

mass protest in the two English speaking regions of the country, which escalated to an armed conflict in 2018. This armed conflict, which is our area of focus in this research, has resulted to many becoming refugees in neighboring countries like Nigeria among others, far and near, and some displaced internally in varied cities of the country, and to some relatively calm and have stayed in cities in the conflict-ridden regions, like Buea, Limbe and Bamenda town, introducing a challenge for the Cameroonian government in relation to housing, feeding and health.

The involuntary movement of people from the English part of Cameroon into some of the French speaking cities, also creates some level of insecurity in the French cities as the population increases above normal with some being homeless and unable to meet their basic needs. This could most often make the youths to be more vulnerable to criminal activities. This is seen by some people as the reason why many people in the English-speaking parts of the country are homeless and dwelling in bushes and in devastating, inhumane conditions. People displaced as a result of conflicts often lose family members, endure family separation, lose their possessions and equally experience depression and trauma. They are equally limited to their access to public services because they lose vital documents as a result of the said conflict. It should however be noted that vulnerable groups suffer more in conflicts, with sexual abuse and rape of women often seen as a tool of war. There are however great consequences faced by persons displaced due to conflicts, amongst which are: discrimination in aid provision, forceful relocation, sexual and gender-based violence, recruitment of children into fighting forces.

Types of Migration:

Migration is of the following types:

(i) Immigration and Emigration:

When people from one country move permanently to another country, for example, if people from Cameroon move to America, then for America, it is termed as Immigration, whereas for Cameroon it is termed as Emigration.

(ii) In-migration and Out-migration:

In-migration means migration occurring within an area only, while out-migration means migration out of the area. Both types of migration are called internal migration occurring within the country. Migration from Cameroon to Nigeria is in-migration for Nigeria, while it is out- migration for Cameroon.

(iii) Gross and Net Migration:

During any time period, the total number of persons coming in the country and the total number of people going out of the country for residing is called gross migration. The difference between the total number of persons coming to reside in a country and going out of the country for residing during any time period is termed as net migration.

(iv) Internal Migration and External Migration:

Internal migration means the movement of people in different states and regions within a country from one place to another. On the other hand, external or international migration refers to the movement of people from one country to another for permanent settlement.

Theoretical Literature

Decisions about migration are shaped by economic, social, and cultural factors. Migration models reinforce these determinants. They also may describe the effects of migration at its origin and destination as well as the interactions between those

effects. Most formal migration models focus on economic determinants: opportunities and constraints on income at migrant origins (limited capital and technology, scarcity of employment, imperfect market environments), income opportunities at migrant destinations (demand for migrant labor in urban centers), and migration costs (travel costs, networks of contacts at prospective migrant destinations, border policies).

Gravity Model

The gravity model of international trade is a model in international economics that in its traditional form, explains bilateral trade flows based on the economic sizes and distance between two countries. Research has shown that there is irresistible evidence that trade tends to fall with distance" (Carrère, Mrázová, & Neary, 2020).The model was first introduced in economics world by (Isard, 1954).

One of the most important contributions of geography in the field of migration analysis is with respect to the relationship between distance and migration. Gravity model, based on Newton's law of gravitation, goes one step further and states that the volume of migration between any two interacting centers is the function of not only distance between them but also their population size.

In other words, migration is directly proportional to the product of their population size and inversely proportional to the square of the distance separating them. The model was initially proposed by the exponents of social physics in the nineteenth century, and was later revived in the middle of the twentieth century.

The gravity model estimates the pattern of international trade. While the model's basic form consists of factors that have more to do with geography and spatiality,

the gravity model has been used to test hypotheses rooted in purer economic theories of trade as well. One such theory predicts that trade will be based on relative factor abundances.

Ravenstein's (as well as Newton's) influence is clear in gravity models, which posit that migration between place i and place j, Mij, is a positive function of repulsive forces at i (Ri) and attractive forces at j (Aj) and is inversely related to the "friction" or distance between i and j (Dij):

Mij= f(Ri, Aj)/g(D)

In practice, most formulations of the gravity model simply assume that migration between i and j is directly proportional to the product of the two places' populations and inversely proportional to the intervening distance (Mij = Pij/D). Stouffer (1940) extended gravity models by introducing the notion of intervening opportunities: Migration over a given distance is held to be directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of possible alternative migration destinations between i and j. In this approach the nature of particular places may be more important than distance in determining where migrants go.

These aggregate models, particularly gravity models, had the advantage of being simple to estimate, but they offered no insight into who migrated and who did not; how changes in policies, markets, and trade affected migration; or the social process of migration. Distance and population alone were not sufficient to explain migration behavior. Lee (1966) hypothesized that both the destination and the origin have characteristics that attract or repel migrants and that perceptions of these characteristics differ between migrants. The complexity of migration models has increased as research has evolved to address these and other questions.

Gravity model later attracted severe criticism. Doubts have been raised regarding the validity of population size as a potential force for attraction. Use of simple linear distance, rather than distance measured in terms of transport routes and facilities, frequency of movement and cost of transport, is another weak point of the model. Further, the model treats all the migrants as one homogeneous group, and fails to explain the age and sex selectivity of migration.

It has, therefore, been suggested that the model is too simple to account for a complex phenomenon like migration. According to P.J. Taylor, the model is based on a crude analogy with Newton's law of gravitation having no theoretical bases in social sciences (quoted in Chandna, 2002:255). Subsequently, the model has been modified for maximum applicability to the study of various forms of flow patterns. These modifications relate to the introduction of some weights to the population size and use of distance in social and economic, rather than geometric, terms. Stouffer introduced one such modification in 1940.

In applied work, the gravity model is often extended by including variables to account for language relationships, tariffs, contiguity, access to sea, colonial history, and exchange rate regimes. Yet the estimation of structural gravity, based on Anderson and van Wincoop (2003), requires the inclusion of importer and exporter fixed effects, thus limiting the gravity analysis to bilateral trade costs (Baldwin and Taglioni 2007). Aside from OLS and PPML, other methods for gravity estimation include Gamma Pseudo-maximum Likelihood and the "tetrads" method of Head, Mayer, and Ries (2010). The latter involves first transforming the dependent variable in order to cancel out any country-specific factors. This provides another way of focusing only on bilateral trade costs (Head, 2010).

Stouffer's Theory of Mobility:

S.A. Stouffer, an American sociologist, introduced a modification to the gravity model. Stouffer formulated his model in 1940, and claimed that there is no necessary relationship between mobility and distance (Stouffer, 1940). Instead, the observed decline in the volume of migration is due to an increase in the number of intervening opportunities with increasing distance. Stouffer's model suggests that the number of migrants from an origin to a destination is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that destination, and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities between the origin and the destination.

Stouffer's formulation can be mathematically expressed as follows:

$Y=(Vx/x)k$

where Y is the expected number of migrants, Vx is the number of opportunities at the destination, x is the number of intervening opportunities, and k is a constant. Stouffer modified his theory of migration and intervening opportunities in the mid-1950s and added the concept of competing migrants in his model. His modified theory of mobility was published in 1960. The revised model proposes that during a given time interval, the number of migrants from city 1 to city 2 is the direct function of the number of opportunities in city 2, and an inverse function of the number of opportunities intervening between city 1 and city 2, and the number of other migrants for the opportunities in city 2. Thus, the revised formulation would read as under (Galle & Taeuber, 1966)

$$Y=(X_1/X_B X_C)k$$

where Y is the number of migrants moving from city 1 to city 2, Xi is the number of opportunities in city 2, X_B is the number of opportunities intervening between

city 1 and city 2, Xc is the number of migrants competing for opportunities in city 2, and k is a constant.

It may be realized here that the volume of migration from one city to another is the function of as much the attraction of one city as the repulsion from the other. Hence, another component as a measure of disadvantages that push people from city 1 is introduced in the numerator. The final formulation may be expressed as under:

$$Y = (X_0 X^a 1 / X^b_B X^c_C) k$$

where Xo is the number of out-migrants from city 1; a, b and c are parameters to be determined empirically; and other notations are as before.

In Stouffer's model the measure of 'disadvantages or 'push' factors in city 1 (X_0) is defined as the total out-migrants from the city. Likewise, the measure of number of opportunities in city 2 (X_1) is defined as the total in-migrants in city 2, whereas the measure of intervening opportunities between city 1 and city 2 (X_2) is defined as the total number of in-migrants in a circle centered mid-way between city 1 and city 2, and having a diameter equal to the distance between the two cities. And, finally, the measure of competing migrants (X_c) is defined as the total number of out-migrants from a circle centered on city 2 with the distance between the two cities as its radius.

Lee's Theory: Theory of intervening opportunities

Everett Lee proposed another comprehensive theory of migration in 1966. Theory of intervening opportunities attempts to describe the likelihood of migration. Its hypothesis is that this likelihood is influenced most by the opportunities to settle at the destination, less by distance or population pressure at the starting point.

Stouffer's law of intervening opportunities states, *"The number of persons going a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities."* (Stouffer, 1940)

Stouffer theorizes that the amount of <u>migration</u> over a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at the place of destination, and inversely proportional to the number of opportunities between the place of departure and the place of destination. These intervening opportunities may persuade a migrant to settle in a place in the route rather than proceeding to the originally planned destination. Stouffer argued that the volume of migration had less to do with distance and population totals than with the opportunities in each location (Stouffer, 1940).

He begins his formulations with factors, which lead to spatial mobility of population in any area.

These factors are:

(i) Factors associated with the place of origin,

(ii) Factors associated with the place of destination,

(iii) Intervening obstacles, and

(iv) Personal factors.

According to Lee, each place possesses a set of positive and negative factors. While positive factors are the circumstances that act to hold people within it, or attract people from other areas, negative factors tend to repel them (Lee, 1975:191). In addition to these, there are factors, which remain neutral, and to

which people are essentially indifferent. While some of these factors affect most of the people in the area, others tend to have differential effects. Migration in any area is the net result of the interplay between these factors.

Lee suggests that individuals involved in migration have near perfect assessment of factors in the place of origin due to their long association. However, the same is not necessarily true for that of the area of destination. There is always some element of ignorance and uncertainty with regard to reception of migrants in the new area (Lee, 1975:192).

Another important point is that the perceived difference between the areas of origin and destination is related to the stage of the lifecycle of an individual. A long association of an individual with a place may result in an over-evaluation of positive factors and under-evaluation of negative factors in the area of origin. At the same time, the perceived difficulties may lead to an inaccurate evaluation of positive and negative factors in the area of destination.

The final decision to move does not depend merely upon the balance of positive and negative factors at the places of origin and destination. The balance in favor of the move must be enough to overcome the natural inertia and intervening obstacles. Distance separating the places of origin and destination has been more frequently referred to in this context by authors, but according to Lee, distance while omnipresent, is by no means the most important factor (Lee, 1975:193). Furthermore, the effect of these intervening obstacles varies from individual to individual.

Apart from the factors associated with places of origin and destination, and the intervening obstacles, there are many personal factors, which promote or retard migration in any area. Some of these are more or less constant throughout the life

span of an individual, while others tend to vary in effect with the stages in life cycle. It may be noted that the real situation prevailing at the places of origin and destination are not as important in affecting migration as individual's perception of these factors. The process of perception depends, to a large extent, on the personal factors like awareness, intelligence, contacts and the cultural milieu of the individual.

The decision to migrate is the net result of the interplay among all these factors. Lee pointed out that the decision to migrate is, however, never completely rational. Also, important to note here is the fact that not all persons who migrate do so on their own decision. Children and wives move with the family where their decisions are not necessarily involved. After outlining the factors at origin and destination, and the intervening obstacles and personal factors, Lee moves on to formulate a set of hypotheses concerning the volume of migration, streams and counter-streams, and the characteristics of migrants.

With regard to the volume of migration, Lee proposed the following set of hypotheses:

1. The volume of migration within a given territory varies with the degree of diversity of the areas included in that territory.

2. The volume of migration varies with the diversity of the people in that territory.

3. The volume of migration is related to the difficulty of surmounting the intervening obstacles. In other words, the more is the intervening obstacles the less is the volume of migration.

4. The volume of migration varies with the fluctuation in the economy.

5. Unless severe checks are imposed, both volume and rate of migration tend to increase over time.

6. The rate and volume of migration vary with the state of progress in a county or area.

Likewise, with respect to the development of streams and counter-streams of migration, Lee suggested the following six hypotheses:

1. Migration tends to take place largely within well-defined streams.

2. For every major migration stream a counter stream develops,

3. The efficiency of a stream (measured in terms of a ratio between stream and counter-stream, or the net redistribution of population effected by opposite flows) is high if negative factors at the place of origin were more prominent in the development of stream.

4. The efficiency of a stream and counter stream tends to be low if the origin and destination are similar.

5. The efficiency of migration stream will be high if the intervening obstacles are great.

6. The efficiency of migration stream varies with the economic conditions. In other words, it is high in the time of prosperity and vice versa.

And finally, Lee outlined the following hypotheses relating to the characteristics of the migrants:

1. Migration is selective in nature. Due to differences in personal factors, the conditions at the places of origin and destination, and intervening obstacles are

responded differently by different individuals. The selectivity could be both positive and negative. It is positive when there is selection of migrants of high quality, and negative when the selection is of low quality.

2. Migrants responding to positive factors at destination tend to be positively selected.

3. Migrants responding to negative factors at origin tend to be negatively selected.

4. Taking all migrants together, selection tends to be bimodal.

5. Degree of positive selection increases with the difficulty of intervening obstacles.

6. The heightened propensity to migrate at certain stages of life cycle is important in the selection of migration.

7. The characteristics of migrants tend to be intermediate between the characteristics of populations at the places of origin and the place of destination.

Neoclassical theory of migration

Labor migration, as an important fact of economic and social life, could not stay behind attention of scientists and researchers. One of the first serious theoretical foundations of the labor movement should recall to the Neoclassical theory of migration. The basis of this concept, the formation at the forefront of international differences in wage levels. The founder of the theory is J. Hicks and his work "Theory of wages"[4]. He's one of the first scientists who has considered migration as a rational decision of the individual, who is able on the basis of full and accurate information assess their prospects in the most accurate way. Problems of unemployment and cost of moving was not taken into consideration.

In theory, they migrate where they expect greatest returns over a specific period of time. In short, migration decisions according to this theory are taken by the individual and stem from differences in labor markets. Costs of migration include also social and emotional costs. This theory states that migration flows and patterns can't be explained solely at the level of individual workers and their economic incentives, but that wider social entities must be considered as well. One such social entity is the household.

This was the earliest theoretical framework developed to explain labor migration. It sees migration as the result of geographical differences between labor supply and labor demand. These differences can exist at the international level or at the internal (or national) level.

International migration is caused by the differences in wage levels between countries and labor markets. If wage differences were eliminated, labor migration would stop according to this theory. This theory suggests that the bulk of labor migration moves from capital-poor/labor force-rich countries to capital-rich/labor force-poor countries, while by contrast capital moves in the opposite direction, expecting a higher return on investment made in capital-poor countries.

This theory also suggests that high-skilled workers move from capital-rich to capital-poor countries to reap higher returns on their skills.

Labor markets are the main mechanisms that influence international migration. Other markets have little role. Thus, governments can regulate migration through labor market policies (e.g., through wage increases in sending countries). This variety of neoclassical economics theory refines the arguments at the macro level by suggesting that international labor migration is caused by differences in wage

and employment rates and that migrants EXPECT their wages to be higher in the destination country.

This theory argues that potential migrants estimate the costs and benefits of moving to alternative locations. In theory, they migrate where they expect greatest returns over a specific period of time. The human capital of each migrant may increase her/his probability of employment in the destination country as well as her/his expected earnings, and therefore affects the probability of each individual to move. So, this theory not only includes wage differentials in the analysis but also individual features that determine employment and wages, as well as general social conditions and technologies that lower the cost of migration. All these elements can raise the probability of a person migrating.

Migration is anticipated to continue to occur until expected earnings (wages plus probability of employment) have been equalized internationally. In short, migration decisions according to this theory are taken by the individual and stem from differences in labor markets. Costs of migration include also social and emotional costs. Governments can influence immigration primarily through policies that affect expected earnings in origin and destination countries.

The new economics of migration theory has a different point of departure compared to neoclassical economics and challenges both the micro and the macro approaches outlined above. According to this theory the decision to migrate is not made by isolated individual actors: it is the result of a collective decision to maximize income and employment opportunities and to minimize risks. Developed countries minimize risks through welfare state and insurance systems. So, for example, if a crop fails, there are crop insurance markets. There is also access to futures markets to obtain guaranteed prices for selling agricultural products. If

someone is injured or loses their job, there are unemployment benefits. If someone seeks to improve their business, there are credit institutions and capital markets that provide loans.

In developing countries all these risks have to be faced by the household. Hence, migration is a strategy to diversify risks. The main incentive to migrate is not only to raise income but also to diversify risks. International migration may occur alongside increases in local employment and production. It does not have to stop when wage differentials disappear. This theory also introduces the notion of relative deprivation: migration can alter income distribution within a community and therefore lead to more people deciding to migrate.

Governments can influence migration not only through labor market policies but also through policies on the other markets identified above (insurance, credit, etc.). Moreover, government policies in sending countries that raise the mean income of the population but leave behind the poorer households may increase the probability of migration.

Displaced Livelihood

People are continually being displaced forcefully around the globe, with some of the displaced staying in Camps but seek to do everything possible to create a supportive system to themselves and their families with the very minute or no assistance from humanitarian organizations or governments and citizens of the host country or area. It is true that displaced persons personally try to regain or regenerate a "livelihood", but equally need to be assisted in such efforts by the governments of host countries, some philanthropic activities and humanitarian organizations. This part of our work looks at "displaced livelihoods" as it gives a clear distinction between the livelihood pursuit of persons forcefully displaced and

those of migrants(such as voluntary migration for reasons such as studies, work) or from poor or discriminated migrants (Jacobsen, 2014, p. 1). People forcefully displaced often face some difficulties as per pursuing a livelihood while in their new area of settlement and so getting help from the governments of the host country per say could go a long way helping the displaced psychologically.

Jacobson concurs with Chambers and Conway's 1992 definition of livelihood as being "*the means of gaining a living, including livelihood capabilities, tangible assets, such as stores and resources, and intangible assets such as claims and access*" (Jacobsen, 2014, p. 2). Individuals that have been forcefully displaced either within the same country (internally displaced persons) and those forced to cross internationally recognized boundaries (refugees), must be able to access their livelihood assets even though it is often difficult for most of them to make use of their human capital such as skills and experience acquired in their place of habitual residence as they often face discrimination at their place of work in their new settlement (Jacobsen, 2014, p. 2). Relating to the internally displaced persons in Cameroon, they constantly face discrimination in their new area of settlement. The discrimination in this case is mostly due to language issues since the IDPs are from the English-speaking part of the country and have been forced to seek refuge in French speaking regions of the country where most persons there find it hard expressing themselves in English. This discrimination constitutes a mechanism of exclusion, which is very vital in understanding the livelihood experience of forced migrants (Jacobsen, 2014).

According to Jacobson (2014), there are three basic factors that influence the abilities of people forcefully displaced to regain their livelihood. To begin with, the joint aspects of loss, trauma and impoverishment have a significant impact on the displaced persons. These migrants forced to leave their homes most often in

precipitation, abandon all they have labored for all their lives as they resettle in typically new areas with varied life settings, thus becoming traumatizing for them as they need to start from a point of almost nothing to regain their livelihoods (Jacobsen, 2014). It should however be noted that people often move so fast when displaced forcefully, thus leaving behind their assets. Their assets could be farmlands, houses, documents like birth certificates, national ID card and passport. We perceive the internally displaced persons in Cameroon as a perfect example of persons displaced forcefully as a result of a conflict. They had to flee leaving behind their farms, jobs, houses and business and seek refuge in non-violent French speaking cities in the French speaking regions of the country where they seek refuge while trying to re-establish a livelihood either individually or by help of some humanitarian organizations, private donors or the government. Talking about loss, it is associated with economic and non-economic assets.

Loss in economic assets is seen to relate to instances where migrants in their new location face certain challenges to their livelihoods and integration (Jacobsen, 2014). Such challenges could include freedom restriction policies in a case where states impose strict restrictions on migrants owning businesses, properties or deciding where to stay in their new location. Displacement however also comes with the loss of non-economic assets, such as the loss of cultural space or social status. It is also common for forced migrants to have suffered different types of traumas, for example the loss of family members, and other types of mental, physical or emotional trauma (Jacobsen, 2014).

The ongoing conflict in Cameroon has resulted in many families losing their loved ones with children inclusive, which still remain in their minds causing psychological trauma to some especially the elderly who lost their children who were their support system for survival. Another connection with the crisis in

Cameroon, in line with physical loss, is the burning down of houses, schools, churches, farmlands, which has left many homeless. Many people have been forced to reside in bushes within the conflict zones since their houses were burnt down to ashes. Jacobson (2014), stands with the fact that the ability of the forcefully displaced in regaining a livelihood is negatively influenced by the aspects of documentation and legal status. There is equally a long waiting period which could sometimes yield no fruits. This long period of waiting which most times ends negatively, often kills the morals or motivation of some displaced persons.

The terminology livelihood could also refer to the means that secure and support one's existence. We therefore make use of this term in our thesis as per the practices and structures essential, used by the government, humanitarian organizations and private donors in supporting the daily life of the internally displaced persons in Cameroon. The pursuit of livelihood by IDPs however is often affected by varied factors and new settings in their host countries, as is the case with IDPs in Cameroon. These factors could be physical or emotional. The physical factors however could be seen as those factors that have not been part of the IDPs former life, such as responses from the state and non-state actors either in the form of policies, practices and regulations, the resources of the host community, individual and family livelihood assets (Pokharel, 2010). Talking about emotional factors, "internal constraints" and "strengths", psychological situations(such as fear) of individuals, trauma experience, and readiness to participate are vital components not to be left out in the study of livelihood pursuit by IDPs (Pokharel, 2010). In line with displaced livelihoods, we make use of two concepts namely: Sustainable livelihood Framework (SLF) and Rural Livelihood system (RLS) as conceptual grounds in examining the livelihood of IDPs in

Cameroon. The SLF was established by the Department for international Development in the United Kingdom, and it is made use of in international development projects, while the RLS came into existence with the purpose of introducing some aspects not considered by the SLF, and equally lay grounds for conceptual basis in examining IDPs livelihood (Pokharel, 2010)

Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF)

In the quest for understanding the livelihood strategies of people, the SLF established by the United Kingdom's Department for international development (DFID) is often used. The SLF however is perceived to be more realistic in rural to urban settings, and its main argument relies on the fact that it makes it possible to be able to identify those factors affecting livelihoods of persons, thus making the relation between them known (Pokharel, 2010). The DFID framework has however at one point been referred to by many scholars as an *"oversimplification of a complex reality"*, as it does not consider emotions, feelings and memories of the concerned which are very vital aspects to be considered in research as per the livelihood of the displaced (Pokharel, 2010). This therefore enables us to bring into play the concept of the Rural livelihood.

Theoretical framework

Figure : Drivers of migration
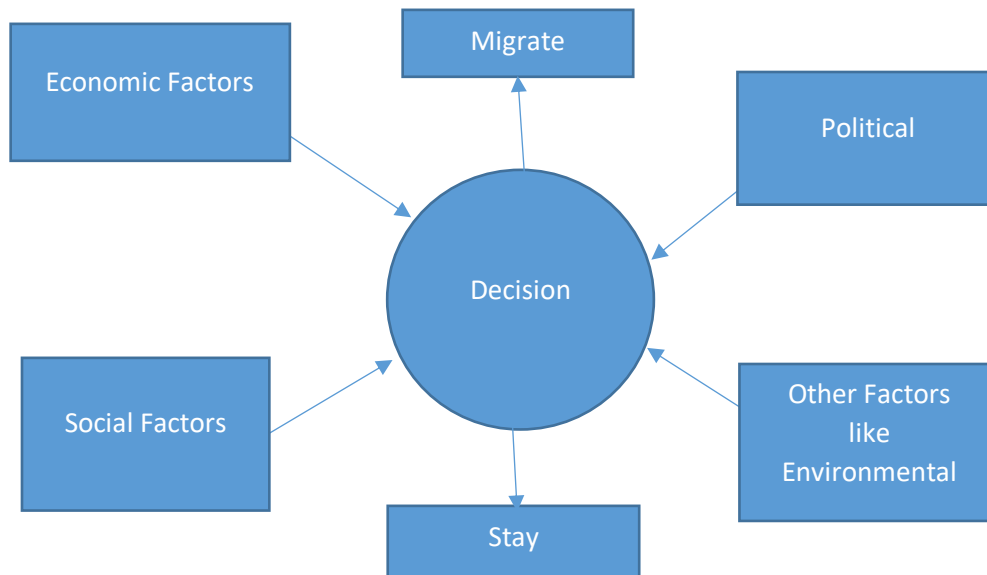
Source: constructed by author

What is the relationship between migration and political instability? It is almost impossible to distinguish a group of factors, either now or in the future. There are a number of existing estimates of the 'numbers of factors influencing migration decision. A deterministic approach that assumes that all or a proportion of people living in an 'at-risk' zone in a low-income country will migrate neglects the pivotal role that humans take in dealing with political risk, and also ignores other constraining factors which influence migration outcomes. This is not to say that the interaction of migration and global political risk is not important: political risk does have real impacts on migration, but in more complex ways than previous cause–effect hypotheses have indicated. The decision to migrate is influenced by a broad category of 'driver'. Note should be taken that migration is already occurring in most parts of the world. Political factors, political risk as in our case will influence migration outcomes through other affecting existing drivers of migration. This influence is most pronounced for economic and social factors. This

conceptualization recognizes that the powerful existing drivers of migration, with economic and social drivers foremost, will continue to be the most powerful in most situations. However, political risk will affect these drivers by having impact.

2.3 Empirical literature

(Mallick, Sultana, & Bennett, 2020) Investigated the relationship between socio-ecological systems (SES) and livelihood conditions and determined how a sustainable livelihood influences non-migration decisions of people living at risk. The field study employed a mixed-methods approach in fie villages in southwest coastal Bangladesh. Findings revealed that livelihood options differ across SES settings and that (non-)migration aspirations mostly depend on livelihood adaptation options which shape the individual's sustainable livelihood status in the face of future disaster risk. Thus, understanding the SES settings will help in advocating for livelihood options regarding non-migration aspirations for people at risk.

(Reuveny, 2007) used a descriptive analysis to argue that, it is possible to predict the effects of climate change on migration by exploring the effects of environmental problems on migration for the pass decades. To him, people can therefore adapt to these problems by either staying in place or doing nothing, leaving the affected areas or staying in place and mitigating the problems. The choice between these different options will depend on the extent of problems at hand as well as the mitigation capabilities of the choice maker. People living in lesser developed countries may be more likely to leave affected areas, which can cause conflict in receiving areas.

(Schon J. , 2019) explained role of violence on civilian migration decisions by arguing that violence fits within broader considerations of motivation and opportunity to migrate. During violence, people trigger post-traumatic growth that delays narrative ruptures and the subsequent migration that they motivate. He used around 170 structured questionnaires administered to Syrian refugees in Turkey to test this argument. Using a descriptively analysis, respondents who did not witness violence (early motivation) left their homes seven months earlier, on average. Respondents with opportunity left their homes averagely one full year earlier. Respondents who both did not witness violence and had opportunity left their homes averagely one and a half years earlier. Using the Cox proportional hazard model, he found that the respondents migrated earlier in conflict if they had both early motivation and opportunity.

(Nathalie, 2013) studied the micro-level variability in migration during armed conflict in Nepal. His analysis was based on a multi-dimensional model of individual out-migration which examines the social, economic, as well as the political consequences of conflict and how community organizations condition the experience of these consequences and systematically alter migration patterns. Detailed data on individual behavior and violent events and during the Maoist revolution in Nepal and multi-level event-history analysis was used to test the model. He found that community organizations reduced the effect of conflict on outmigration by providing resources that helped people cope with danger of conflict, as well as with the social, economic as well as political consequences of the conflict. The evidence suggested that conflict caused the population to be systematically redistributed in a way that will probably affect its future socio-demographic composition and the extent of the redistribution depending on the resources available in each community.

(Lozano-Gracia N. , Piras, Ibáñez, & Hewings, 2009) analyzed modeling the interregional migration behavior of individuals internally displaced by conflicts by investigating why households forced to leave their residence because of violent conflicts in Colombia. The results found shed light on the main determinants of what they called the *journey to safety*. Violence appears to be one of the most relevant pushing factors together with the absence of institutions and the dissatisfaction with the provision of basic needs. For regions with very extreme violence, individuals appear to be willing to relocate to far distant locations. On the destination side, most of the populated places are more attractive as well as paces with a sufficient level of basic needs.

(Mallick, Sultana, & Bennett, 2020) explained that, individual migrate to improve their quality of life, and therefore, adopts strategies to cope with the adverse situation of their livelihood. To them, the decision to migrate or to stay is one such strategy to fight unexpected disturbances to their livelihoods and diversify risk. Their objective was therefore to analyses the relationship between socio-ecological systems and livelihood conditions so as to determine to what extent to which sustainable livelihood influences non-migration decisions of people living at risk zones. Their field study employed a mixed-methods approach the coastal regions of Bangladesh. Their findings revealed that livelihood options differ across socio-ecological systems settings and that (non-)migration aspirations mostly depend on livelihood adaptation options which shape the individual's sustainable livelihood status in the face of future disaster risk.

According to (Mallick & Schanze, 2020) Millions of people impacted by climate change really want to remain in place; these aspirations and respective capabilities need more attention in migration research and climate adaptation policies. Residents at risk zones may voluntarily stay, as opposed to being involuntarily

trapped due to lack of resources to migrate, understanding such subjectivity if people are not migrating because they are trapped or because the voluntarily want to stay remains an issue. And this research gap remains unfilled in migration literature no matter the underlying motive of migration decision.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Area of study

The Republic of Cameroon, as it is presently known, was originally a German colony after the Berlin Conference and the partition of Africa to Western European powers. At the end of the First World War, when Germany was defeated, its colonies were handed over as trusteeship territories to the victorious powers. Cameroon was handed to France who took over 80% of the territory and Great Britain who took over 20% of the territory (Ngoh, 1979). This has led to the use of French and English as official languages in the country.

The British first administered the part of Cameroon handed to them by indirect rule from their Commissioner in Lagos and the Nigerian Eastern House of Assembly. After a crisis in the Eastern House, the British allowed Cameroon to have their own house of assembly and house of chiefs in Buea (Ngoh, 1979). During the wind of independence that was blowing through Africa in the late 50s and early 60s, French Cameroon gained independence from France in 1960. When it was the turn of British Cameroon a referendum was organized in which they were asked to either join Nigeria or French Cameroon to gain independence. The result was a plebiscite to join French Cameroon (Ngoh, 1979).

With the outstanding majority vote to join French Cameroon, it could be seen as a joyful reunion of brothers who had just been separated against their will. However, the happenings of today are linked to the fact that the third option, self-independence was absent during the referendum. It was claimed that British Cameroon did not have the necessary resources to stand alone as an independent

country (Ngoh, 1979). The activists consider it as the starting point of what they call the annexation and subsequent conspiracy by French Cameroon to assimilate and destroy the Anglo-Saxon culture and language Inherited from British colonial rule. People wondered aloud at the effectiveness of this reunification considering the massive differences in culture and economic capacity (Awasom, 2000). Awasom, even goes on to quote LeVine (1964) as calling British Cameroon, the "bride" in the image of a marriage between the two nations.

This notwithstanding, the Federal Republic of Cameroon was born with two federated states one in former French Cameroon and the other in former British Cameroon with headquarters in Yaoundé and Buea, respectively (Ngoh, 1979). Things were going well until 1972, when the all-powerful president of the Federal Republic Cameroon at that time, Ahmadou Ahidjo, convened a conference in the town of Foumbam, during which he pressed for total unification of the country by replacing the federation with a unitary state. The ensuing referendum following the Foumban Conference completely laid to rest the federated states and put in place a central unitary one-party state called The United Republic of Cameroon, under the command of a powerful President from East Cameroon and a Vice President from West Cameroon (Ngoh, 1984). Governance was centralized in Yaoundé and the British Cameroon lost all what they had put in place following their cultural ties with their former colonial master.

When Paul Biya took over as president in 1982, he decided to unilaterally change the name of the country from the United Republic of Cameroon to simply The Republic of Cameroon(Leke, 2014).This act, which renames the country to a name formerly used by French Cameroon, is one of the points put up by the separatist movements to argue that the objectives of French Cameroon is to assimilate British Cameroon and gradually masterminding the disappearance of anything linked to

the Anglophone systems or the former British Cameroon(Journal du Cameroun, Oct, 2016).

The procedures for independence, the changes in forms of the state and governments, the alterations or modifications of the name of the country and an apparent domination of the English-speaking areas by the French speaking counterparts sparked protests in 2016, leading to the armed conflict that is rocking the country till date. Below is a map of Cameroon showing the two English speaking regions (Southwest and Northwest) affected by the ongoing conflict.

source: HTTPs://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-45723211

3.2 Research Design

Given the nature, scope and structure of this study, the ex-post facto research design was adopted because the events captured by the economic variables have already occurred. There is no room for the manipulation of the variables to influence policy outcomes. The effect of the explanatory variables on the dependent variable has been felt in the past and nothing can be done to reverse what has already taken place. The research only tries to study the impact and direction of the explanatory variables on the independent variable.

3.3 Source and Method of Data Collection

The data used for this study will be collected mainly from the primarily on migration decisions and its determinants in the North West and south region of Cameroon. The data used for this study will be collected primarily by administering structured questionnaires which will be administered to individuals regarding migration decisions and their determinant. The questionnaires will be made up of close ended questions to be answered by our respondents concerning migration decisions in the North West and south west region of Cameroon among some other related questions concerning the determinant of migration decisions. The questionnaires will first be taken to the field for pretest then modifications will be done if there is any before the final survey. This is to make sure that we gate the reel information and not only the information speculated by the researcher. The questionnaire will be structured into several sections.

3.3 Empirical Specification

The starting point of the model specified in this study is based on the inspiration of the Foresight frame work (Foresight, 2011). According to the framework, the decision to migrate is a mainly function of six broad categories of 'driver';

Environmental (Exposure to hazard, Ecosystem services, land productivity habitability food/energy/ water security), social (Seeking education Family/kin obligations), Economic (Employment opportunities Income/wages/well-being Producer prices e.g. Agriculture Consumer prices), Demographic (Population size/density Population structure Disease prevalence), Political (Discrimination/persecution Governance/freedom conflict/insecurity Policy incentives Direct coercion), Personal/household characteristics (Age, Sex, Education, Wealth, Marital Status, Preferences, Ethnicity, Religion, Language) Intervening obstacles and facilitators (Political/legal framework Cost of moving Social networks Diasporic links Recruitment agencies Technology).

This model therefore expresses the decision to migrate (MG) as a function of its determinants. This functional relationship can be expressed as follows:

$$MG = f(\text{Env}, \text{Soc}, \text{Econ}, \text{Dem}, \text{Pol}, \text{PChar}, \text{Inter}) \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots (3.1)$$

Env =Environmental

Soc =Social

Econ =Economic

Dem =Demographic

Pol =Political

PChar =Personal/household characteristics

Inter =Intervening obstacles and facilitators

Econometrically, the model can be specified as follows,

$$MG = Bo + B1\text{Env} + B2\text{Soc} + B3\text{Econ} + B4\text{Dem} + B5\text{Pol} + B6\text{PChar}$$
$$+ B7\text{Inter} + € \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (3.1)$$

Where Bi are parameters to be estimated and € is the error term.

3.5 Data analysis

To examine the socio-economic and demographic factors affecting non-migration, we are going to employ a probity model. This is because the dependent variable (migration decision) is a categorical variable (with two categories; migrant or non-migrant). The purpose of using this model is to estimate the factors that determines probability of an individual's decision to migrate. The above model can therefore be specified as follows

$$\text{Pr}(\text{MG}) = G(Bo + B1\text{Env} + B2\text{Soc} + B3\text{Econ} + B4\text{Dem} + B5\text{Pol} + B6\text{PChar}$$
$$+ B7\text{Inter} + €) \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (3.2)$$

Where G (.) is a function taking on values between zero and one: $0 < G\ (z) < 1$

G is the standard normal cdf

$\text{Pr}(\text{MG}) = \phi(Bo + B1\text{Env} + B2\text{Soc} + B3\text{Econ} + B4\text{Dem} + B5\text{Pol} + B6\text{PChar} +$
$B7\text{Inter} + €) \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (3.2))$

The primary objective here is to explain the effect of the explanatory variables on the on the response variable

Pr(MG).

$\partial\, \text{Pr}(\text{MG})\, /\partial Xi = Bi(\phi(Bo + B1\text{Env} + B2\text{Soc} + B3\text{Econ} + B4\text{Dem} + B5\text{Pol} +$
$B6\text{PChar} + B7\text{Inter} + €) \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (3.2))$

Where *Xi* is a matrix of the exogenous variables?

A probit model is a non-linear model. It is therefore estimate using the Maximum Likelihood estimation technique. Here, the magnitude of the coefficients is not interpreted directed but the sign but the marginal effects. In other word because MG can take on only two values, βi cannot be interpreted as the change in MG given one-unit increase of Xi (matrix of the dependent variables). The marginal effect is therefore computed for interpretation. We are therefore going to use the likelihood ratio (LR) to validate our hypothesis. The LR test is based on the difference in the log-likelihood functions for the unrestricted and restricted models, just as the F test compares the goodness of fit in MLR models.

3.6 Ethical considerations

As is the case with every other method of data collection. Some of our participants could be seen as vulnerable persons, who to an extent are in precarious situations, thus making us to highly consider ethics. We however will practice the principle of doing no harm to participants as it would further increase their vulnerability (Bryman, 2012). The aspect of confidentiality will be taken into account by seeking the permission of participants before collecting data from them. By this we mean letting our respondents know that the information they provide us with is strictly
for academic purposes and their identity will be made anonymous.

3.10 Data Validity and Reliability

The suitability of the above parameters will be tested on the basis of two criteria namely: economically, it is based on economic theories and econometrically based on the post estimation test and the statistical significance of the estimated

parameters. The economic or a priori test is concerned with the magnitude (size) and direction (sign) of the estimated parameters. Through this criterion, an examination of the behaviour of economic theories on the variables and the expected signs and sizes of the parameters in question with respect to a priori expectation will be done. Its word noting that, the magnitude of the parameters can be interpreted directly but its marginal effects. Consequently, the signs and magnitudes of the parameters will be studied in agreement with the a priori expectations.

Before moving to the interpretation of the results, it will be important to do the post estimation test to see if the probit estimates are BLUE. The following post estimation tests will be done; test for heteroschedascity the residual, normality of the residual as well as multicollinearity test. Regarding the econometric tests, we will use the fisher statistics for the global significance of the model and the R-square adjusted for the overall fitness of the model. The size of the parameter will determine the magnitude of the effect of a variable while the sign will determine the direction of the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The p-values of the individual parameters will be used to evaluate if the variables have a significant effect or not. If the p-value is less than the threshold of 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This Chapter deals with the presentation and discussion of findings of the study. The presentations were organized according to the research questions and null hypotheses formulated to guide the study. It starts with a descriptive analysis of the results followed by an inferential analysis of the socio-economic migration decision. The aim of the study is to investigate the socio-economic factors affecting non-migrant decision of households that militates for and against non-migrants. The chapter is divided into two sections as follows; descriptive analysis and and regression analysis

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Have you change your usual place of resident?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No	195	38.2	38.2	38.2
Yes	315	61.8	61.8	100.0
Total	510	100.0	100.0	

Source: field work, 2021

The frequency table above demonstrates the distribution of respondents according to migration decision. From the table above, as we can see that 195 (38.2%) of the total number of respondents did not migrate and 315 (61.8%) of the total population of respondents migrated. Despite the fact that the main

respondent we came in contact with are non-migrate before gating to migrants through a snow-ball approach, the migrants still appeared to be the most populated. This can clearly show that a good share of the population has migrated.

Where have you migrated to?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Out of the Region	135	26.5	26.7	26.7
To a nearby Town	370	72.5	73.3	100.0
Total	505	99.0	100.0	
System	5	1.0		
Total	510	100.0		

Source: field work, 2021

The frequency table above demonstrates the distribution of respondents according to the destination of migrants. From the table above, as we can observe that 135 (26.5%) of the total number of respondents did migrate out of their Region of origin and 370 (72.5%) of the total population of respondents migrated to a nearby Town. Even though none of the respondent in our study migrated out of the country, it's because we could not gate access to most of the respondent that migrated out of the country and therefore could not be included

in our database. More so no respondent migrated to a very short distance location like a nearby village.

In what age group are you

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<=25 years	115	22.5	22.5	22.5
26-35 years	310	60.8	60.8	83.3
36-45 years	65	12.7	12.7	96.1
46-55 years	10	2.0	2.0	98.0
Above 55 years	10	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	510	100.0	100.0	

Source: field work, 2021

The frequency table above demonstrates the distribution of respondents according to the age groups. The age distribution of the respondents shows that there were 115 respondents with a percentage of 22.5 are below 25 years, the frequency of 310 respondents were those that had the age range between 26-35 years with a percentage of 60.8%, 65 respondents were those that had the age range between 36-45 years, 10 respondents were those that had the age range

between 46-55 years with a percentage of 2.0% and 10 respondents were also had the ages above 55 years with a percentage of 2.0%

What is your gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	215	42.2	42.2	42.2
Male	295	57.8	57.8	100.0
Total	510	100.0	100.0	

Source: field work, 2021

The frequency table above demonstrates the gender distribution of respondents, as we can see, there were 295 males (57.8%) of the total number of respondents and 215 (42.2%) females of the total population of respondents.

What is your level of education

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
First School Living Certificate	5	1.0	1.0	1.0
O-Level	10	2.0	2.0	2.9
A-level	35	6.9	6.9	9.8
Barchelor	200	39.2	39.2	49.0
Masters	235	46.1	46.1	95.1
PhD	25	4.9	4.9	100.0
Total	510	100.0	100.0	

Source: field work, 2021

Table 4.2 above shows the distribution of respondents according to educational qualifications. The data shows that 5 respondents representing 1.0 percent had First School Living Certificate, 10 respondents representing 2.0 percent had O-Level, 35respondents representing 6.9 percent had A-Level, 200 respondents representing 39.2 percent had a Bachelor's degree, 235 of the respondents' representing 46.1 percent had a masters and 25 of the respondents' representing 4.9 percent had a PhD.

What is your marital Status

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Single	360	70.6	70.6	70.6
Married	150	29.4	29.4	100.0
Total	510	100.0	100.0	

Source: field work, 2021

Table 4.4 above shows the distribution of respondents according to marital status. The data shows that 360 respondents representing 70.6 percent were single, 150 respondents representing 29.4 percent were married. By implication more married persons were sampled for analysis than single persons. This is because all of them are the working-class old people and therefore more married than single.

Were you working before the Angl

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	No	250	49.0	49.0	49.0
Valid	Yes	260	51.0	51.0	100.0
	Total	510	100.0	100.0	

Source: field work, 2021

From the table above, 250 respondents out of 510 total respondents (49%) were working before the start of the crises on the other hand, 260 respondents out of 510 total respondents (51.0%) were working.

Which of the following activities

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No economic activity	160	31.4	31.4	31.4
Self employed	115	22.5	22.5	53.9
was an employee	174	34.1	34.1	88.0
Was doing voluntary services	60	11.8	11.8	99.8
Was helping in a family enterprise	1	.2	.2	100.0
Total	510	100.0	100.0	

Source: field work, 2021

Before proceeding to the regression analysis which will help us verify our hypothesis, we will need to study the variables employed in our model. It is import to present the summary statistics as correlation between variables. The table below presents the descriptive statistic of the variables constructed through the multiple correspondence analysis method.

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Haveyouchangeyour	505	.624	.485	0	1
Nincome	510	.433	.24	0	1
Npsychological	510	.494	.184	0	1
NNfamilyties	445	.533	.267	0	.995
Whatisyourgender	510	.578	.494	0	1
Wereyouworkingbef	510	.51	.5	0	1

Source: field work, 2021

From the table above, we can note that the indices constructed had a scale of almost the same range that is 0 to 1 since the variables were normalized using the Minmax method as presented below.

$$Yi = \frac{X - MinXi}{MaxXi - MinXi}$$

Where Yi is normalized variable, Xi is the variable to be normalized and MaxXi and MinXi the maximum and minimum values of Xi.

Pairwise correlations

After the construction of the indices, we created a correlation metrics to study the degree of association between the variables. This will also guard to understand if the is any issue of multicolinearity between the independent variables.

Pairwise correlations

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1)Haveyouchange y	1.000					
(2) Nincome	-0.182	1.000				
	(0.000)					
(3) Npsychological	-0.027	0.053	1.000			
	(0.540)	(0.229)				
(4) NNfamilyties	-0.156	0.108	-0.228	1.000		
	(0.001)	(0.023)	(0.000)			
(5)Whatisyourgend e	0.034	-0.089	-0.118	0.195	1.000	
	(0.446)	(0.045)	(0.008)	(0.000)		
(6)Wereyouworkin g	0.049	0.166	0.178	-0.191	0.116	1.000
	(0.276)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.009)	

)   )   )   )

Source: field work, 2021

From the table above we can note that there was a significant correlation between the independent variable. We therefore suspect a problem of multicolinearity between the independent variables. Despite the suspect of multicolinearity, we will only make a conclusion if there exist multicolinearity after doing the regression and doing the post estimation tests. The post estimation test appropriate for to test for multicolinearity is the variance inflation factor. A variance inflation factor will therefore be constructed after running the regression to test for multicolinearity between the variables.

After doing the above descriptive statistic, we will therefore proceed to the to the regression analysis proper. Table. below presents the regression result of our work. Before interpreting of the regression results, it will be important to look at the post estimation tests to see if our results are BLUE. The table below presents the variance inflation factor. Instead of just putting all the variables in one regression, we did data mining by doing a series of combination of variables and running different regressions.

Table : Regression of the socio-economic determinants of non-migration decisions

VARIABLES	(1) 1	(2) 2	(3) 3	(4) 4	(5) 5	(6) 6	(7) 7
Income	-0.368***			-0.391***			-0.289***
	(0.0902)			(0.0917)			(0.0960)
Psychological		-0.0722			-0.0919		-0.0668
		(0.116)			(0.116)		(0.111)
Family ties			-0.262***			-0.236***	-0.198**
			(0.0713)			(0.0734)	(0.0767)
What is your gender				0.00587	0.0240	0.00469	-0.0204
				(0.0439)	(0.0446)	(0.0436)	(0.0450)
Were you working before the crises				0.0755*	0.0510	0.0750*	0.110**
				(0.0433)	(0.0439)	(0.0442)	(0.0449)
Constant	0.782***	0.660***	0.855***	0.750***	0.630***	0.802***	0.933***
	(0.0424)	(0.0612)	(0.0391)	(0.0536)	(0.0695)	(0.0537)	(0.0860)

Observations	505	505	440	505	505	440	440
R-squared	0.033	0.001	0.024	0.039	0.004	0.031	0.056
	0.0001	0.0000	0.0003	0.0002	0.0000	0.0006	0.0000

Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

From the table above, we present a result of the effect of income, psychological and family ties on non-migration decision in the Anglophone regions of Cameroon. The results were presented in 7 different regressions to check for robustness of the results. Multicollinearity was also check using variance inflation factors including the mean variance inflation factor which was all less than 5. We can therefore conclude that our result does not suffer from multicollinearity.

It is also important for us to investigate if our result suffer from the problem of heteroscedasticity or its homoscedasticity. It was ducted that our results suffer from heteroscedasticity using the Breusch-Pagan heteroscedasticity test. Heteroscedasticity was then corrected using Whites robust standard errors. The results presented above are those gotten after correcting the problem of heteroscedasticity using Wight's robust standard errors and multicollinearity. From the table above we can conclude from of Prob>F, we can therefore conclude that our models were globally significant.

From our results, income has a negative and significant effect on migration decisions with coefficient -0.289. this means that if income by 1 unit, the likelihood of migration will reduce by 0.289. This therefore mean that, individuals with low income have higher tendency of migrating. This is because low-income individuals have difficulties to live in the risk zone since the goods and services are so expensive. It is therefore important for the poor in other to look for survival strategies. Migration is therefore a means of diversifying risk for the poor.

From our results, psychological factors have a no significant effect on migration decisions with coefficient -0.0668. this means that if psychological factor increases by 1 unit, the likelihood of migration will reduce by 0.0668. The

reason why psychological factors have no significant effect on migration is the fact that most if not all the migrant have adapted themselves to the stress attached to the crises.

From our results, family ties have a significant effect on migration decisions with coefficient -0.198. This means that if family increase by 1 unit, the likelihood of migration will reduce by 0.198. This shows how important family ties mitigate the probability of migrating from the risk areas despite the risk faced. Most non-migrant refuse to migrate because of family ties such as love for their family as well as love for their place

We also found that those who were working had higher chances of migration than those who were not working. our results were robust after permutation of the different variables of the models and checking for the robustness. Despite the fact that income place a negative role in migration decision, there is a minimum threshold of income that is needed to migrate. Those who have been working are therefore able to afford this minimum level of income which helps them to migrate. More so, those who have been working have the work experience which can help them gain employment in their destination areas.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMARRY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Summary of Findings and conclusion

The objective of our work was to examine the socio-economic and demographic factors affecting non-migration in the North West and South West Region of Cameroon. Specifically, to investigate the role of income, psychological stress and the role of family ties in the non-migration decision in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon.

We used the ex-post facto research design because the events captured by the variables have already occurred. The data used for this study will be collected primarily by administering structured questionnaires which will be administered to individuals regarding migration decisions and their determinant in the North West and south region of Cameroon.

To examine the socio-economic and demographic factors affecting non-migration, we are going to employ a probity model. This is because the dependent variable (migration decision) is a categorical variable (with two categories; migrant or non-migrant). The purpose of using this model is to estimate the factors that determines probability of an individual's decision to migrate.

From our results, income has a negative and significant effect on migration decisions. This therefore mean that, individuals with low income have higher tendency of migrating. This is because low-income individuals have difficulties

to live in the risk zone since the goods and services are so expensive. It is therefore important for the poor in other to look for survival strategies. Migration is therefore a means of diversifying risk for the poor.

From our results, psychological factors have does not significantly affect migration decisions. This is the reason why psychological factors has no significant effect on migration is the fact that most if not all the migrant has adapted themselves to the stress attached to the crises. More so how this is also due to the fact that no matter how you are stress up it does not directly make you to migrate excepts you have the income to migrate.

From our results, family ties have a negative and significant effect on migration decisions. This shows how important family ties mitigate the probability of migrating from the risk areas despite the risk faced. Most non-migrant refuse to migrate because of family ties such as love for their family as well as love for their place.

We also found that those who were working had higher chances of migration than those who were not working. our results were robust after permutation of the different variables of the models and checking for the robustness.

5.2 Recommendation

There's a need for policy makers, government as well as NGOs to provide financial as not everyone can't afford to migrate so as to help individuals migrate from the risk zone as well as support those who are willing to stay with financial support so that they can be able to make a living. This is because those with higher income have higher chances of migrating and them supporting them

with finances can help them to migrate in other to diversify the risk of losing their life's.

It's more important for the government to look for the solution to the crises since people staying due to the fact that they love the place tan to migrate. Solving the crises peacefully can therefore increase the happiness of individuals.

References

Afzalur, R. M. (2011). *Managing Conflict in Organizations.* Transaction Publishers.

Amason, A. C., & Sapienza, H. J. (1997). The Effects of Top Management Team Size and interaction Norms on Cognitive and Affective Conflict. *Journal of Management, 23*(4), 495–516. doi:10.1177/014920639702300401

Black, R., & Collyer, M. (2014). Populations 'trapped' at times of crisis. *Forced Migration Review, 45*, p.52.

Carrère, C., Mrázová, M., & Neary, J. P. (2020). Gravity without Apology: The Science of Elasticities, Distance, and Trade. *The Economic Journal, 130*(628), 880–910. doi:10.1093/ej/ueaa034

Center for Systemic Peace. (2014). *Conflict, Governance, and State Fragility.* Vienna, VA USA: Center for Systemic Peace.

Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters. (2018). *Natural Disasters 2018.* Brussels, Belgium: Institute Health and Society, Université Catholique de Louvain.

Colson, E. (2003). Forced Migration and the Anthropological Response. *Journal of Refugee Studies, 16*(1), 1-18.

Etzold, B., & Bishawjit, M. (2016). Moving beyond the focus on environmental migration towards recognizing the normality of translocal lives: Insights from Bangladesh. *Migration, risk management and climate change: Evidence and policy responses*, 105-128. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Nusrat_Habib/publication/310539913_An_Index_Based _Assessment_of_Vulnerability_to_Floods_in_the_Upper_Indus_Sub-Basin_What_Role_for_Remittances/links/5d0b1972299bf1f539d185ad/An-Index-Based-Assessment-of-Vulnerability-t

Flippen, C. (2013). Relative deprivation and internal migration in the United States: A comparison of black and white men. *American Journal of Sociology, 118*(5).

Foresight. (2011). *Migration and Global Environmental Change.* London: The Government Offie for Science.

Galle, O. R., & Taeuber, K. E. (1966). Metropolitan migration and intervening opportunities. *American Sociological Review*, 5-13.

Harris, J., & Todaro, M. (1970). Migration, unemployment and development: A two-sector analysis. *The American Economic Review, 60*(1), 126-142.

Head, K. T. (2010). The erosion of colonial trade linkages after independence. *Journal of international Economics, 81*(1), 1-14.

Hear, N. V. (2004). "I Went as Far as My Money Would Take Me": Conflict, Forced Migration and Class". *Centre on Migration, Policy and Society Working Paper No. 6, University of Oxford*.

International Organization for Migration. (2018). *World Migration Report 2018.* Geneva, Switzerland: International Organization for Migration.

Isard, W. (1954). Location Theory and Trade Theory: Short-Run Analysis. *Quarterly Journal of Economics, 68*(2), 305–320. doi:10.2307/1884452

Järvisalo, J., & Saris, N. E. (1975). Action of propranolol on mitochondrial functions--effects on energized ion fluxes in the presence of valinomycin. *Biochemical Pharmacology, 24*(18), 1701–1705. doi:10.1016/0006-2952(75)90009-x

Jehn, K. A., & Mannix, E. A. (2001). The Dynamic Nature of Conflict: A Longitudinal Study of Intragroup Conflict and Group Performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*(2), 238–251. doi:10.2307/3069453

Jowett, S., & Lavallee, D. (2007). *Social psychology in sport.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Lozano-Gracia, N., Piras, G., Ibáñez, A. M., & Hewings, G. J. (2009). The Journey to Safety: conflict-driven migration flows in Colombia. *International Regional Science Review.*

Lozano-Gracia, N., Piras, G., Ibáñez, A. M., & Hewings, G. J. (2012). The journey to safety: conflict-driven migration flows in Colombia. *International Regional Science Review, 33*(2), 157-180.

Mallick, B., & Schanze, J. (2020). Trapped or Voluntary? Non-Migration Despite Climate Risks. *Sustainability.*

Mallick, B., Sultana, Z., & Bennett, C. M. (2020). How do sustainable livelihoods inflence environmental (non-) migration aspirations? *Appied Geography.* Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2020.102328

Mallick, B., Sultana, Z., & Bennett, C. M. (2020). How do sustainable livelihoods inflence environmental (non-) migration aspirations? *Applied Geography.*

Maru, M. T. (2o11). The Kampala convention and its contribution in filling the protection gap in international law. *Journal of Internal Displacement, 1*(1), 91-130. Retrieved from https://invenio.unidep.org/invenio//record/19535/files/maru-JID.pdf

Massey, D., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., & Taylor, J. (1993). Theories of international migration: A review and appraisal. *Population and Development Review, 19*(3), 431-466.

Nathalie, E. W. (2013). How community organizations moderate the effect of armed conflict on. *Population Studies: A Journal of Demography*, 353-369.

Nicholson, M. (1992). *Rationality and the analysis of international conflict.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Reuveny, R. (2007). Climate change-induced migration and violent conflict. *Political Geography*, 656 e673.

Schon, J. (2019). Motivation and opportunity for conflictinduced migration: An analysis of Syrian migration timing. *Journal of Peace Research*, 12–27.

Schon, J. (2019). Motivation and opportunity for conflict-induced migration: An analysis of Syrian migration timing. *Journal of Peace Research, 56*(1), 12-27.

Segal, U. A. (2021). Conflict and Migration. In New Frontiers in Conflict Management and Peace Economics: With a Focus on Human Security. In *Conflict and Migration.* Emerald Publishing Limited.

Sidorenkov, A. V., Borokhovski, E. F., & Kovalenko, V. A. (2018). Group size and composition of work groups as precursors of intragroup conflicts. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management, 11*, 511–523. doi:10.2147/prbm.s178761

Stark, O. (1984). Rural-to-urban migration in LDC's: A relative deprivation approach. *Economic Development and Cultural Change, 32*(3), 475.

Stark, O., & Bloom, D. E. (1985). The new economics of labor migration. *The american Economic review, 75*(2), 173-178. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/1805591.pdf?casa_token=FRkjYVLoJBYAAAAA:UdXdgA tfLxz2MaqLLh5Byvr96MuVYjBwwFep-Y5zPKh9Cx21pHSEAtHo_IRfxT5e9s4JSAnSfOkWaeiTDBYZo4mmQ8oVWtst4mFmYHvj 0dugFCcSog

Stark, O., & Taylor, J. (1991). Migration incentives, migration types: The role of relative deprivation. *The Economic Journal, 101*(408), 1163.

Stark, O., & Yitzhaki, S. (1988). Labour migration as a response to relative deprivation. *Journal of Population Economics, 1*(1), 57-70.

Stouffer, S. A. (1940). Intervening opportunities: a theory relating mobility and distance. *American sociological review, 5*(6), 845-867.

Stouffer, S. A. (1940). Intervening opportunities: a theory relating mobility and distance. *American sociological review, 5*(6), 845-867.