DYNAMICS OF INTERNAL AND INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY OF TRADERS IN NIGERIA

Report for the MacArthur-Funded Project on: “African Perspectives on Human Mobility”

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This study presents the contribution being made from the Ibadan end to the joint enterprise between the University of Ibadan, Nigeria (represented by its Department of Geography) and the University of Oxford, Great Britain (represented by the International Migration Institute) under the McArthur Project on “Global Migration and Human Mobility Programme: African Perspectives on Human Mobility Programme”. It seeks to address the twin problems arising from a look at the nature of current mobility research in respect of Africa, particularly with Nigeria as the focal country. The immediately obvious problem is the lack of empirical data to support robust original conventional migration in respect of Africa. But, the more deeply embedded problem is the disagreeable nature of Africa vis-à-vis conventional migration concept.

From our perspective, therefore, we would suggest four premises underlie the entry condition into our joint enterprise. First, there has been a conventional approach to the concept of migration. Second, the conventional approach adopts a conventional framework appropriate to the provision of policy-driven research. That approach is centred upon receiving industrialised countries. And the primary desire of the countries is to meet optimally their needs arising from the best practice of managing migration. Third, there is a lack of empirical data on conventional migration in Africa. Finally, what we have today are “distorted and highly simplistic views on the nature of African migrations”.

Examining critically these four premises, this study considers that the last two premises are, based on the facts that have been presented, a restatement of the obvious superficial problem, while the first two are a restatement of the more embedded problem, identified in our opening paragraph. Thus, the study proposes that settling the more embedded is highly to be desired.

To do so, the study proposes that the concept of migration be modified to make it compatible with the nature of human mobility in Africa, which the present concept now excludes. Thus, an appropriate descriptive framework should be provided to handle the new universalised concept of migration.

What we have said so far accounts for the presentation of the contribution of this study in three subsequent sections, of the aims and objectives of the joint enterprise and its research questions, conceptualisation of migration and an attempt at establishing the revolutionised concept of migration.

1.1 The Joint Enterprise

The aims of the joint enterprise are mainly to explore alternative conceptions of human mobility, based on empirical research in Africa and to develop new (or obscured)
perspectives on migration from the global South. The first aim derives from lack of data, while the second revolves around the problem of conceptualisation of migration. The objectives are:

1. To conduct empirical research on key aspects of African migration through comparative case studies in different (four) African countries (partners);
2. To map African migration networks and transnational linkages within Africa and beyond;
3. To strengthen the capacity for ongoing migration research within African continent;
4. To develop appropriate methodologies for migration research in Africa and elsewhere;
5. To review general migration theory and concepts in the light of African perspectives and contribute to the development of new theoretical frameworks for global research.

The research questions were to be developed with the African research partners; based on the research theme of their choice. The three themes are: ‘re-conceptualizing mobility – challenging notions of destination, transit and arrival’, ‘revisiting migration transitions and the migration hump’ and ‘the role of migration in African livelihoods’.

The joint enterprise also involves re-conceptualising migration, from what has been considered acceptable, conventional concept to what ought to be, that is, the revolutionised concept of migration. This is because the conventional concept is considered weak and inapplicable to African situation, a result of its inherent inadequacy, of data and space limitations. The data limitation hinders comprehensive knowledge of situation of things in Africa, while the space limitation leads to the one-sided understanding of the nature and consequences of human mobility. Space limitation results from focusing on conditions in industrialised receiving countries of the North, which are not representative of countries of the entire globe.

Moreover, a problem of the conventional concept of migration centres on its human activity focus that excludes certain forms of human mobility. Another problem is the incompatibility of situations in Africa with those in industrialised countries. Therefore, an awareness of a revolutionised concept calls for considerations of forms of migration that are of importance to Africa, trading inclusive. The process of resolving these problems can, therefore, be towards revolutionising the concept of migration, based on African perspectives on human mobility.

The present research report is, therefore, an attempt at establishing a revolutionised concept of migration via the study of mobility of traders in Nigeria. The outlay of the report is in two main parts. The first covers the literature review, specific aims and objectives of the study, methodology and the findings, while the second is on hypothesis on a revolutionised concept
of migration, in terms of its relevant links with existing literature and as an advancement of views in relevant literature.
CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUALISING MIGRATION: THE PROJECT

2.1 Literature Review: An Overview of Migration of Traders in Nigeria

Although accounts on mobile traders in Nigeria are many, there has been little effort made towards differentiating mobility from migration; the later signifies permanency of stay in respective destinations (Stapleton, 1959; Adegbola, 1972; Addo, 1974; Surdakassa, 1977; Akinjogbin, 1980; Asiaju, 1985; Afolayan, 1991; 1996; 2004; Makinwa & Afolayan, 1995). In many of these studies, the focus has been on traders as an economic entity, less on their activities generating mobility and on factors that dictate their movements. For the later, economic explanations often given are that their movements are from centres of supply to those of demand. But, economic factors alone cannot explain adequately factors that dictate the volume, direction of flows, frequency, duration and the dynamics of any of these aspects of traders’ mobility within and outside Nigeria.

In more depth, very few of the studies on mobile traders during the different political eras differentiate mobile from migrant traders, that is, whether they stayed for a short or long period of time. Rather, they dealt more on traders’ movements to urban centres for commercial purposes and noted the importance of their activities in the growth of the destination centres, which were either within (internal) or outside the country (transnational). Akinjogbin (1980) recorded briefly kola-nut traders that transacted business along trading routes of the south-western and northern Hausa-land during the pre-colonial era. The traders traversed the relatively stable kingdoms and empires, which though ill-defined in terms of territorial boundaries, indicated movements over perceived separate political entities. Prominent among them were the Yoruba and Hausa traders, who traded across empires in the forested zone of West Africa, up to the Sahelian belt within and outside the present day Nigeria and even up to the coastal states of North Africa. In addition, trading in goods (palm oil in particular) and people (slave trading) led to the immigration of some Europeans along the south-western and south-eastern coast of Nigeria. However, the work is not explicit on factors that underlay the forging northwards of the market for these and other commodities, the change in trajectories of the traders and the duration of stay of traders.

Also, for international trading pattern during the colonial era, it was associated largely to colonial policies, in terms of development of administrative - economic centres that were linked by transportation networks. Such policies led to spatial disparity in the level of development both within and outside the country (Afolayan, 1996). Consequently, the disparities in the economic situation of Nigeria and her neighbouring countries created the market, in particular Ghana with which Nigeria had a closer colonial affinity with, as they were both under the same colonial administration. Cultural links, distance and porosity of the
border dictated the higher volumes of international trading flows to other neighbouring countries, of the Republic of Benin and Ivory Coast (Cote d’Ivoire) (Stapleton, 1959; Adegbola, 1972; Addo, 1974; Asiwaju, 1985). In many cases, the imposed international boundaries cut across ethnic groupings, which made movements within same ethnic group qualify as international migration (Afolayan, 2000). Thus, Nigerian traders were patronising markets just across contiguous borderlands of neighbouring countries almost on daily basis, while increasing numbers of them were settling down in the host countries, of Gold Coast (Ghana), Ivory Coast (Cote d’Ivoire) and Dahomey (Republic of Benin) over a longer period ((Stapleton, 1959; Adegbola, 1972; Surdakassa, 1977).

As Adegbola (1972) reported, farmers from Oyan and Inisha areas of south-western Nigeria abandoned their farms for businesses elsewhere. In Dahomey, many of them took to trading after the completion of the railway, and because Dahomey shared same colonial link with Ivory Coast, some of them left for the latter after the World War 1. Also, Surdakassa (1977) examined Yoruba women traders in long distance international commercial migrations. According to the 1960 census of Ghana, Yoruba women traders outnumbered their male counterparts by over 2,000 and accounted for 91 per cent of the female working population.

These characteristics were in sharp contrast to the fewer Nigerian traders to other African countries and Europe, who stayed in such countries for a shorter period. For both groups of traders, mobility is the shared feature. Without doubt, there were changes in the patterns, categories of international traders and of the goods they traded in. Changes were also brought about with the entry into Nigeria of international traders from Europe and from Asia, in particular the Levantines1, Lebanese and Asians (Gann & Duignan, 1975).

For internal migration of traders during the colonial era, the motivating factor was also the colonial policies that resulted in spatial inequality in development. This was in terms of export-oriented development policy, dependence on imported technology and the concentration of or massive investment in a few cities. Consequently, internal trading trajectories were in the direction of the heightened/endowed locations, which were in most cases the administrative, commercial urban centres (Udo, 1997).

These trends in the traders’ migration (internal and transnational) are not only maintained in the post-colonial era, but have been heightened and diversified (Adepoju, 1988; 1993; Afolayan, 1988; 1991; Akwari, 2006). In the case of international trading, traders not only develop business links with orthodox, destination countries, of Britain and Western Europe, but also with other business associates at newly developing destination countries. Afolayan (1991) gave evidences of large numbers of women traders who shuttled between Lagos and Abidjan (Cote d’Ivoire). In addition, the Civil War of 1967-71 in Nigeria led to the emigration of Ibo traders to the Republic of Benin (Akwari, 2006). However, by the

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1 According to Gann & Duignan (eds.) 1975. “The term ‘Levantine’ is used loosely to apply to some 15,000 Lebanese, Palestinians, Cypriots, Syrians and Greeks, whose families came to Nigeria between 1910 and 1940. Initially, they engaged in transport and small-scale trading” pp. 493.
following decade, there was a reversal of the flows, such that the number of immigrants into Nigeria was higher than that of emigrants. This was prompted by the Protocol of Free Mobility of Persons, Goods and Services of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) of 1978 and the heightening of the petrol-dollar economy in the country in the early 1980s, among other factors. Consequently, immigrants from Member States of ECOWAS, Asia and the Middle East came into the country in larger numbers than ever before (Adepoju, 1988; Afolayan, 1988).

Other important changes in the spatial and temporal patterns of transnational traders occurred as a result of political instability in Nigeria and of punctuations in the policies of host countries, particularly Ghana and Cote d’Ivoire (Adepoju, 1993; Afolayan, 2004). Ghana’s Alliance Order of 1969 led to the expulsion of many immigrants, majority being Nigerians. In addition, the insistence of Cote d’Ivoire that immigrants must obtain and carry an Aliens Identity Card in the late 1990s forced many of those who could not meet the requirement to leave the country. The latter led to a re-thinking of an indefinite stay by Nigerian emigrants from Ejigbo, among whom were those that had had a long stay in the host country without ever thinking their stay would be challenged; hence, the circulatory migration that they engage in presently (Afolayan, 2004). Moreover, the down-turn of the economy in the mid-1980s led to large scale retrenchment, dearth of employment opportunities and reduced government’s involvement in the provision of infrastructure and basic amenities, among others (Adepoju, 1996). These conditions acted as push factors, leading to larger numbers of both internal and international migrations to centres that were perceived to have higher opportunities for absorbing the surplus labour.

Moreover, modern day movement patterns show other prevailing factors, such as, modern means of transportation and communication and improvement in information, communication technology (ICT). The growing unemployment in the country further fuels increased quests for opportunities abroad, not only in formal sectors, but also in the informal. Consequently, diverse types of mobility manifest in Nigeria. These include labour migration, emigration of professionals, repatriation, return migration, circular migration, refugee flows, trafficking in persons and commercial mobility/migration. Many of these are regarded migration; it is only of recent that the forced migration types (refugee flows, repatriation, trafficking) are treated separately; based on their categorisation as persons of concern; even then, they represent mostly the diversified forms of human mobility. In recent times, migration studies, per se, is covering these categories of movers. In addition, changing circumstances are stimulating the transformation of labour migration to commercial migration, where migrant labour switch over from wage-paying jobs to cross-border trading or commercial activities in order to supplement their income (Afolayan, 2000; 2001).

In addition, as many countries are tightening the requirements for absorption into their formal economic sector, the informal sector, of which trading is prominent, offers more accessibility, with relative ease of entry and exit. Consequently, many Nigerian emigrants have turned to trading, either as the primary activity, or as a supplementary, secondary economic activity. They patronize new destinations, such as Dubai, China, India, Taiwan and South Africa.
These are perceived to be attractive alternatives to the traditional destination, first, Britain, and latter Western Europe and North America. The realisation of these trends made the Federal Government of Nigeria in Section 12 of the Draft National Policy on Migration to devote attention to Migration and Trade, as it states:


However, knowledge of the processes that are involved in the mobility of traders is very low. For example, there is the need to examine the link between internal and international migrations of traders. Also, although the circulation of traders, is not an entirely new phenomenon, the novelty aspects of the group are the increasing level of their movements, the diversified newly developing destinations traders transact business with, the factors dictating the choice of destination and the duration of their stay, among others. Some of these considerations formed the premise for the present study.

2.2 Literature Review: An Overview of Mobility of Traders from Africa to Asia

No doubt there are limited studies devoted to the activities of African transnational traders; some of which highlighted Nigerian traders. This is partly explained by the novelty of the study and of poorly documented nature of their activities (Bertoncello & Bredeloup, 2007; Jaafar & Jaafar, 2009; Li Zhigang et al, 2009, Bodomo, 2009; Le Bail, 2009). Their works are reviewed towards appreciating the increasing trading activities of African traders with more diverse, distant Far East countries, the effect of globalisation on the evolving spatial patterns of traders, the development of information technology, social networking, duration of stay, and changing status of and integration process of immigrants in the host communities.

On the first two themes, Bertoncello & Bredeloup (2007) and Bodomo (2007) asserted that there are more Africans and people of African descent in Southern Chinese cities, such as, Hong Kong, Macau and in particular Guangzhou, than in any other part of China. Also, Bodomo (2007) attributed the rise in African trade in the Guangzhou area of China to its proximity to Hong Kong, which is a prominent re-exporting zone. He also predicts the evolution of a recognised African-Chinese minority community in no distant time.

Li Zhigang et al (2009) asserted that transnational trade activities of African traders in China are towards realising economic opportunities afforded by comparative economic advantage and commercial policies. The authors proposed economic deficiency, which results from a weak industrial base and political instability as the major driver of African traders in China. Also, Jaafar & Jaafar (2009) cited low-cost merchandise as the primary consideration for the switch in patronage from Dubai to Asia; followed by the new clearance charges that were introduced by the Nigerian authorities. They also noted that imported products from China ranged from electronics to consumables that are characteristically imitated and cheap.
On social networking and duration of stay, Le Bail (2009) classified transnational traders into two categories – the merchants who are generally a transient population and seldom overstay their visas; and the salesman who have no original business plan but scout for opportunities and try to meet home order of products. In addition, Le Bail (2009) stated informal traders establish informal networks in the destinations, in forms of tribal, social and community-based alliances. These provide information on commodity prices and exchange rates; thereby, function as the economic and social intelligence to the informal sector.

As well, Li Zhigang et al (2009) asserted that the extent to which their immigration can result in the polarisation of the social spatial structure in destination communities depends on available support networks for the absorption of new migrants. According to the authors, migrants reconstitute the socio-spatial structure of their host communities by forming enclaves, which result in a new transnational urban space. On changing status of immigrants, Le Bail (2009) noted an interesting development in the trade trend of African traders. From the result of his survey, there is a silent rivalry between student-migrants-turned-traders and the veteran traders. The former group arrived in China as students and over time acted as middlemen in trade.

Moreover, the literature records that the increased volume of trade between Africa and China is not an indication of an improved Sino-Africa relationship. Rather, Bodomo (2009) and Li Zhigang et al (2009) agree that there have been conflicts between African traders and their Chinese host communities. While Bodomo (2009) asserted that such conflicts are usually between the draconian and largely corrupt law enforcement agents and African traders, Li Zhigang et al. (2009) are of the opinion that such misunderstandings are usually between the local residents and migrants; deducing cultural misalignment and prejudice as the main sources of disputes. Bodomo (2009) also attributed sources of conflicts to intolerance of African traders and accorded preference for traders with highest bidding ability in house rent; solely because of the income that the local house owners derive from traders. Le Bail (2009) attributed the increasing cases of conflicts with law enforcing agencies to difficulties that many African immigrants face in renewing their visa; hence, the increasing cases of many of them overstaying their visas.

Bodomo (2009) further cited language as a barrier both in the conduct of trade by African traders and in their interactions with their Chinese host communities. In overcoming this problem ‘calculator communication’, sign language or gestures, and basic English and Chinese language skills are employed to facilitate communication and trade. It is, however, noted that Africans are not many in the destination countries; hence, the leverage of host communities for exploitation and abuses (Le Bail, 2009). On the other hand, the traders appoint members in their foreign enclaves to be in charge of consulate affairs in the absence of official representation of their home governments. In essence, the review gives hint on the dynamics of international traders within the setting of the destination country. This and many more inform the present study of an incisive research on transnational traders’ spatial-temporal behaviour.
2.3 The Concepts of Mobility and Migration

It is important to differentiate the two concepts of mobility and migration, as the definitions are germane to our contribution to the joint enterprise, as discussed earlier on. Among these are aims and objectives of the program and methodology adopted for achieving them.

Human mobility, or put simply, mobility is the ability of people to move easily from one place to another over time. Human migration, or simply put migration is also the movement of people from one place to another over time. The similarity of the two concepts is change in location over time. However, the differentiation comes up when the space and time dimensions of the change are defined. The differentiating factor is, therefore, variations in the distance of the move and duration of stay in the destination.

The concept of migration distinguished from that of mobility, as migration involves a sustained or permanent sojourn in the place of destination compared to mobility. The essential character of migration is thus that it involves a change in place of abode, or place of “usual” residence – a taking-up of life in a new or different place. The conventional time frame for regarding a move as migration is at least six months and the change is to be from one defined civil area to another, as in the case of internal migration, or from one country to another for international migration. This is towards eliminating the many moves that are considered not of significance to a particular stakeholder. This is to say the differentiation is to a great extent subjective.

This restriction on the concept of migration eliminates the other types of spatial mobility; listed as flows of internal displacement of persons (IDPs), refugees, repatriates, and the smuggled and of traders’ mobility or mobility of traders, refugee flows, repatriation and nomadism. But, many of these moves are becoming extensive and are of interest in their own right. Also, statistics concerning them are for many analytical purposes. This is the case of mobility of traders, the subject matter of the present study.

Mobility of traders or traders’ mobility defined, is the movement of traders from one place to another for the purpose of trading. The likelihood is high that mobility of traders assumes more and more the nature of migration, of permanency of stay over time; judging from the fact that trading has led to the establishment and growth of States and cities. Its large-scale occurrence recently calls for its study by researchers, policy makers and or stakeholders; hence, the present study.

2.4 Specific Aims and Objectives
The aims of our study are situated in the overall aims of the McArthur – International Migration Institute. The first aim is to examine the dynamics of mobility of internal and international traders in Nigeria and the second is to provide an appropriate conceptual framework for studying human mobility.

The later aim is geared towards considering the concept of mobility as encompassing migration. It attempts this by broadening the scope of study to include moves to other localities which last less than six months, while not disregarding moves of longer duration. In addition, for our study, the concept of mobility takes into account social and economic factors that portray the mobility of traders as purposive, socio-economic activity towards achieving a target (trading) at minimum monetary and time-wise costs. As a result, the concept considers traders’ temporal and spatial mobility patterns as economic strategies, of movement within ‘calculated’ time to perceived localities that offer best trading opportunities.

This and other considerations were the premise for the five main objectives of the study, as to:

1. Analyse the socio-demographic characteristics of internal and international market traders from Nigeria, as enabling factors in traders’ mobility behaviour.

2. Examine the dynamics of the temporal and spatial mobility patterns of internal and international market traders in Nigeria. These are in terms of:
   i) Changes in the direction, volume and characteristics of mobile traders and of items of trade over a defined period, the past two decades of ICT in Nigeria, and
   ii) Changes in the underlying factors that determined changes noted in ii) above.

3. Analyse the Nigerian market traders’ mobility networks and linkages within and outside the country, as enabling factors in the ensuing patterns.

4. Examine perception of traders on the impact of international trading on the traders, on Nigeria, the sending country and the host country, and

5. Provide an appropriate conceptual framework for studying traders’ mobility.

2.5 Specific Research Questions

The basic questions posed to answer the what, where, why and how of internal and international mobility of traders are:

1. What are the socio-economic characteristics of traders that dispose them towards internal and international mobility?
2. Why have international traders patronised particular destinations over the past twenty years or so since Information and Communication Technology (ICT) became prominent in Nigeria?

3. How long and how often do traders patronise internal and international destinations?

4. What changes have occurred in the spatial and temporal patterns of mobility of traders in Nigeria?

5. What are the factors responsible for changes in characteristics of internal and international traders, destinations, items of trade, frequency and duration of stay?

6. What roles do social network systems and social contacts play in the dynamics of internal and international traders’ mobility?

7. How has international trading impacted on traders, their host community and Nigeria?

8. In what ways do market situation, national economy cum political conditions and international policies, protocols and treaties impact international trading?

2.6 Evaluation of Theories/Models of Migration: A Mobility/Migration System Model

There is no unified theory or model for studying migration. Rather, what exist are different concepts, models, and or theories that try to abstract reality in order to generalise. The same applies to mobility, and more so to the study of their dynamics.

Dynamics of internal and international mobility of traders signify changes in the movement patterns of traders over space and time and of many of its determinants. The resultant decisions are the manifest spatial and temporal patterns, which further underline new processes. The cyclical nature of the relationship between processes and patterns, therefore, indicates not only dynamics, but, also interrelatedness of many factors, which a system model is best at capturing.

However, existing concepts, models and or theories tend to consider just one or two prevailing determinants of migration; even then, there is scarcely a model or theory for mobility (Zipf, 1946; Stouffer, 1960; Claeson, 1969; Greenwood, 1968; Sjaastad, 1962; Gallaway, 1967; Harris & Todaro, 1970; Mabogunje, 1972; Shaw, 1978; Massey, 1990; Schoorl, 1994; Afolayan, 1972; 2001). The first three referenced works are on the spatial aspects of migration, of gravity model and intervening opportunities. While the gravity model emphasises the importance of distance as a deterrent factor and the mass, which is the
interactive factor of population sizes of the sending and receiving centres as propelling factors. Besides, intervening opportunities model is on the effect of unequal distribution of opportunities on the volume and direction of migration (Zipf, 1946; Stouffer, 1960; Claeson, 1969).

The next four referenced works, as above, are on economic factors, which are expected to induce workers from low-income areas (countries) to those of high income. Migration is considered the response of a rational economic man to regional or international imbalances in the technological development, labour supply and demand and of the force of demographic growth (Greenwood, 1968). Other sets of theories on economic aspects deal with:

1. The performance of migration as a mechanism for effective allocation of an economic labour force.

2. Migration as a function of man’s response to economic stress and push factors.

3. Migration as returns to expected income differentials or cost-benefit calculations (Sjaastad, 1962; Gallaway, 1967; Harris & Todaro, 1970).

On account of the short-comings of these models, the behavioural aspect of the decision to migrate was developed. This includes works on family migration theory, network theory and migration system theory (Mabogunje, 1972; Shaw, 1978; Massey, 1990; Schoorl, 1994; Afolayan, 1972; 2001). Although these are not elegant, robust statistical models or theories, they are attempts at emphasising the importance of information and social linkages as migration decision-making factors.

In general, the different attempts at bringing in more related explanatory variables are indicative of possibility of conceiving the idea within a system framework. A system, by definition is a group of related parts that work together for a particular purpose (Longman Dictionary, 1995). A system is also a technical (scientific term) that is characterised by three (3) features:

1. Finiteness or full-list-ability of its components or members.

2. Exclusiveness of the choice of any component or member, that is, the choice of a component or member excludes the choice of another component or member, and

3. Consequential significance of any increase or decrease in the number of components or members.

For example, if the number of components or members is increased or decreased, the significance of each component or member in the new system is no longer what it was before
the increase or decrease. Therefore, the application of the system model entails much more than just listing of possible related factors/components of the system to much thought of rigorous organisation of issue of study (migration). It entails two levels of organisation, the conception and delivery levels. The conception level of the organisation would deal with the aims, goals and objectives of the study. The implementation (policy) or delivery level of the organisation assumes a greater complexity than that at the conception level. At this level, the system functions as a term synonymous with the function of the policy.

A migration systems model, as a technical term is, therefore, to ensure the clarification of the determinants and of their inter-connectedness, in order to propose appropriate conceptualisation of the true state of affairs. The conceptualisation of human mobility within the system framework is to ensure that the identified causes of migration are addressed by the migration policy that is proposed.

An attempt at conceptualising human mobility is, therefore, presented in Figure 1. This is a modified version of Shaw’s model (1978). The figure presents a simplified idea of the complex, interwoven nature of selected factors in migration/mobility decision-making. The model has as its exogenous, independent factors economic, socio-political, urbanisation and globalisation; for its intervening, endogenous factors, they are the three distinctive features of traders, for interpreting the exogenous factors. The outcome is the mobility/migration decision, of moving from origin within Nigeria to Lagos, from which movements to other places within Nigeria or outside the country take place. Also, the outcome has ripple effect on the determinants; therefore, the interrelatedness of the factors further indicates the complexity of the migration system.

Modifications to Shaw’s model, as on Figure 1, are in terms of the introduction of urbanisation and globalisation is for emphasis, as ‘new’, or more recent exogenous variables of importance in conceptualising traders’ mobility and the three distinctive features of traders as intervening variables that assist the decision makers in evaluating exogenous factors; hence, the decision-making of the traders covers where to move to: first to the city, Lagos; then to any other place within or outside the country.

Urbanisation, as a factor, is a process by which the agglomeration of people in centres of urban status over time promotes greater interactions and influence, while globalisation is a process by which a place, in conjunction with its activities, is drawn into events and happenings on a global scale. Globalisation has to do with linkages with other parts of the world, which arise from shrinking distances, by which for example, instantaneous world-wide electronics communication eases the linkage. There is the time dimension in the operations of both processes. These manifest in the level of interactions generated by the populations of both the urban and the world at large, as a result of their economic activities with one another.

In other words, urbanisation is to provide the needed bigger catchment area within which traders could source customers for their goods, all things being equal. Equally, globalisation
is to draw an urban centre beyond the local environment. Consequently, urbanisation and globalisation provide wider trajectories within which traders can source and disburse items of sale. Therefore, the traditional mobile nature of traders is heightened by forces generated by increasing attractive pull of urbanisation and globalisation, with the latter transcending the local space.

The heightened urban energy that drove the trader to move in the first instance and that made them choose the rapidly growing urban destination is, therefore, enhanced by globalisation. This is because globalisation is expected to reduce the challenge of distance in the flow of people, goods and services and information, via globalisation infrastructure, such as the internet, cell phones, cable networks, fax and telegraphic instrument, and transport technology. However, this may work contrary to increasing physical mobility of traders. Nonetheless, the development of the infrastructure has been known for facilitating the flow of information concerning items of trade and choice of destination. Information about products and destinations are, therefore, at the reach of traders, by the grace of globalisation. In addition, transportation technology has significantly improved in this era of globalisation, such that people, goods and services are moved with greater speed and precision. In other words, urbanisation and globalisation are most of the times exogenous enabling factors in the mobility of traders.

Such a conceptualisation of migration as a system mirrors the argument of Kardulias & Hall (1975). The writers advocated for a systemic approach to global migration. According to them:

Migration involves interactions over space that brings about transformations across great geographic distances. A systemic approach indicates that globalisation is not a new phenomenon; but, rather it is an extension of old processes. Migration creates ripple effects, which are felt over great distances, as successive groups move over great distances and impinge on the territory of their neighbours; the potential effects of which can stretch across continents. Migration patterns tend to be cyclical. State creation has led to ethnic identification and vast increases in transportation efficiency have heightened the fluidity of boundaries and complicated the process of ethnic identification; hence, a world system perspective facilitates a comprehensive view of past and current migration; thus, places modern issues in a historical context (Kardulias & Hall, 1975).

Next is the consideration of three distinctive features of traders, as enabling endogenous factors in traders’ mobility. The first is effectiveness of their mobility that sets them apart from other movers or migrants. This is to say that traders have certain goals in mind (expectations) for their movement, that is, traders’ mobility is purposive. This manifests in where they perceive they could purchase the desired goods at least effort and at acceptable level of profitability and of availability of goods, of desired quality and quantities. In other words, effectiveness of traders’ mobility hangs on many considerations, which economic motivation may not necessarily capture in full.
Furthermore, the realisation of the traders’ expectation could be within a short, medium or long time basis. Therefore, the usual defined period of a move that qualifies a change in location of a person from one locality to another as migration, of at least six months of stay in the destination, may not apply to them and should not restrict their move as being of less importance. This is because the driving force for choice of a destination is perceived effectiveness of the transaction within the shortest time possible. But, since change in location is a veritable feature of migration, traders, who have moved over defined space (internal and or international) and over time (irrespective of the length of stay), could simply be referred to as mobile traders; bearing in mind that effectiveness of traders’ mobility determines their length of stay.

Also, effectiveness of traders’ mobility is often foremost in traders’ mobility as they decide how long their stay would be. This is dictated by factors other than economic; some of which are social and relative, depending on level of information received and other social, facilitating factors. Even level of profitability is relative, depending on some indefinite factors. The volume and frequency of the movement of traders to any destination, in particular international destinations, are tied to prevailing conditions and policies of the destination. These could be in terms of existing immigration policies, political economic policies, peace and security and the rate of foreign exchange. Also, the pains and cost of obtaining travel documents and crossing borders: be they land, sea or air borders, often come into their evaluation, as they decide whether or not moving to such destinations is worth it. The political economic policies could be in terms of prohibition of sale of specific goods and services and high cost of custom duties and tariffs that are placed on goods. Also, peace, security and political stability influence the mobility decision-making process, as destinations experiencing conflict and instability are avoided for destinations of peace, where security is assured. In addition, instability in the foreign exchange rate between the local currency of the trader and the currency of the foreign destination contributes to profitability of traders’ movement, as destinations with relative stability in foreign exchange rates are preferred.

The second distinctive feature of mobile traders is economic strategy, on which traders base their mobility behaviour. Traders in deciding their destination of choice, sometimes tie it to the need to survive in the trade and business, which they have accepted as their occupation. In so doing, the migration decision-making process, as to which destination the trader intends to move to, is premised on the urge to survive in the business and keep the business afloat, damming challenges they might encounter in the process of migration.

In addition, migrants could turn to trading on discovering the attractions of trade in the destination area or other destination. Consequently, they use the current destination of residence as a spring board to move to other destinations. In this context, the mobility behaviour of traders is tied to their urge to survive and keep afloat in the business they are involved in. Traders depict this feature in forms of the knowledge of possible destination(s) and level of utilisation of such knowledge in such a manner that suits their best interest or that promotes their economic activity. In other words, their economic strategies would be towards answering questions, such as, where to go; when to go and how to resolve economic
problems. Some of these strategies work towards increasing the profitability of the enterprise. This is to show the many factors that influence the decision-making of traders and possibility of an over-lap when the features are quantified. Also, the feature is to show that traders’ economic strategies are often different from those contended with by other groups of labour migrants.

Individuality is another core factor in determining the destination to which the traders move. The choice to move or migrate to any destination is in the first place, that of the individual or trader involved in the process of migration. This does not only influence the trajectory of movement but also the volume of the flow of traders. Individuality presents traders as capable individuals, who can take intelligent actions; protect their interests; expect and/or achieve a profitable venture. The individuality of traders is not premised on group action or regimented by a formal set-up, as traders could change or adjust their behaviour in the best way they think fit.

In reality, an individual decision-making draws from knowledge and experiences of other people. Nonetheless, traders evaluate prevailing circumstances that they find themselves in the light of their own needs. For example, their choice of the location(s) to move to, how long their stay would be (short, medium or long term) and the article(s) of trade are dependent on their individual perception and evaluation of the profitability of the action they embark on, among others.

In sum, traders base their decision to move on various reasons, and do so via varied strategies that they employ at both the source region and on reaching the destination area. In most cases, traders set out with the expectation of buying and selling in order to make a profitable venture within the shortest time possible. In some other cases, they metamorphosed from being tourists, visitors, migrants in transits and or refugees/asylum seekers to become international traders in the destination area, depending on circumstances dictating their actions. Whichever is the case, the dynamism of their mobility and migration processes reflects on the spatial and temporal patterns that result.

The conceptual framework of traders’ mobility is, therefore, to bring in these various factors and their interrelated nature; thus, allow for the examination of the evolution of mobility, from being a short-term movement of people over space, into a more permanent stay over time, that is, migration. Another possibility is a decrease or diversion in the volume and destination of the moves. These possibilities are dependent on many factors that operate over space and time. The latter is in terms of the processes involved, which may increase or decrease over time; for example, increasing urbanisation widens the horizon of business; so also is globalisation, all things being equal.

The development of a conceptual framework is also to allow for an examination of forces of dynamics. Therefore, the many factors and their interrelatedness are conceptualised and shown in Figure 1. The varied segments of the model are envisaged as interacting with one another in a loop-like fashion, such that happenings/events in the external world of the actors,
the traders, affect those in other segments of the diagram. Therefore, the ripple effect translates across the whole frame, as a highly interconnected frame.

![Diagram of Mobility](image)

**Figure 1. Conceptualising mobility of internal and international traders; Source: Authors**

## 2.7 The Geographic Location and Social-Cultural Context

Lagos metropolis, the study area, is located in the south-west region of Nigeria on the Atlantic coast of the Gulf of Guinea. It is located between latitudes $6^\circ 22'$ and $6^\circ 36'$ North of the Equator and longitudes $3^\circ 14'$ and $3^\circ 26'$ East of the Greenwich Meridian. Lagos
metropolis comprises both the islands (Lagos Island, Victoria Island, and Ikoyi) and the mainland. The islands are separated from the mainland by the main channel that drains into the Atlantic Ocean, the Lagos harbor. These islands are separated from each other by creeks of varying sizes and are connected to Lagos Island by bridges. The mainland consists of Yaba, Ebute-Metta, Mushin, Ojo, Apapa, Oshodi-Isolo, Somolu, and Surulere. The city has over the years spread in all directions to encompass former suburbs, which are now thriving residential and commercial centres, such as Agege, Ajeromi-Ifelodun, Alimosho and Amuwo-Odofin.

Lagos metropolis is made up of 16 Local Government Areas (LGAs), namely Agege, Ajeromi-Ifelodun, Alimosho, Amuwo-Odofin, Apapa, Eti-Osa, Ifako-Ijaiye, Ikeja, Kosofe, Lagos Island, Lagos Mainland, Mushin, Ojo, Oshodi-Isolo, Shomolu, and Surulere, as in Figure 2 and Table 1. Lagos State comprises 20 LGAs, 16 of which make up the metropolis and four (4) other larger LGAs that are not shown on the map as the suburban areas.

Lagos metropolis is both Nigeria’s and Africa’s most populous urban centre/agglomeration. The population size of metropolitan Lagos or Lagos Urban was 7,937,932 out of the total population of 9,113,605 for Lagos State, as recorded by the 2006 census (NPC, 2009), and as in Table 1. This figure has been highly contested. In particular the Lagos State Government argued the total population of Lagos State by that date was 15.5 million, based on projections made by the UN-HABITAT (2000) and other agencies. Also, according to the estimated figures of the US Census Bureau and Times Atlas, Lagos has 13,488,000 inhabitants, ranking seventh among the largest cities of the world (World Atlas, 2000; CSAR, 2000).

By all standards, the close to 8 million figure recorded by the National Population Commission (NPC) in 2006 for the metropolis is one and half times the figure given by the 1991 census, when it was 5.8 million. This shows a very rapid growth, that surpasses that of any other urban centres not only in Nigeria, but in the whole of the West African region and in Africa in general. Consequently, its importance as the major commercial centre in the country and in the whole of Africa can be appreciated.

The rapid rate of urbanisation witnessed by Lagos is not unconnected with its social, economic and political status, as it was the political seat of Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria for over three decades. Its status as the chief air and sea port city of the country has also earned it the most populous conurbation centre in Nigeria.
Figure 2. Local government areas of Metropolitan Lagos; Source: Dept. of Geography, University of Ibadan (2010)
Table 1. The 16 LGAs of Metropolitan Lagos; Source: National Population Commission

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Area</th>
<th>Land area cover (in km²)</th>
<th>Population (2006 census)</th>
<th>Density (per km²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agege</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>459,939</td>
<td>41,071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajeromi-Ifelodun</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>684,105</td>
<td>55,474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alimosho</td>
<td>185.2</td>
<td>1,277,714</td>
<td>6,899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amuwo-Odofin</td>
<td>134.6</td>
<td>318,166</td>
<td>2,364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apapa</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>217,362</td>
<td>8,153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eti-osa</td>
<td>192.3</td>
<td>287,785</td>
<td>1,496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ifako-Ijaiye</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>427,878</td>
<td>16,078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ikeja</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>313,196</td>
<td>6,785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosofe</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>665,393</td>
<td>8,174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos Island</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>209,437</td>
<td>24,182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos Mainland</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>317,720</td>
<td>16,322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mushin</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>633,009</td>
<td>36,213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ojo</td>
<td>158.2</td>
<td>598,071</td>
<td>3,781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshodi-Isolo</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>621,509</td>
<td>13,886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somolu</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>402,673</td>
<td>34,862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surulere</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>503,975</td>
<td>21,912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>999.6</strong></td>
<td><strong>7,937,932</strong></td>
<td><strong>7,941</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Population Commission, 2006

The evolution of the city, from almost its genesis to the present time, revolves around it being a trading centre of note. Lagos was a Yoruba settlement of the Awori people; but it had housed other people from the hinterland and had had earlier contact with the outside world than most other centres in the country. This is borne out, for example, by explanations of the origin of its name. There are two explanations of the origin of the name Lagos. The first explanation is that a Portuguese explorer Rui de Sequera, who visited the area in 1472, named the area around the city as Lago de Cura, ‘lago’ being the Portuguese word for lakes. The second explanation is based on the narratives that the early Portuguese settlers in the area were from a coastal town of the same name Lagos in Portugal; hence, the name they gave to their ‘new’ settled area. Whichever is the case, derivation of its name connotes clearly the close relationship between trading and mobility/migration.

In effect, Lagos has thrived on commercial activities, prompted by both local and transcontinental or global forces. This is to say trading activities set in motion movements of people into and from the settlement; resulting in its growth. From 1404-1889, Lagos served as a major centre of slave trade that led to the migration of untold numbers across the Atlantic Ocean. However, the incidence was not to be condoned forever, as subsequent actions signified. Of note was the drive by Oba Akintoye, who ascended the throne of Lagos in 1841, banning slave trade. This was resisted by major slave merchants, but was maintained until about the 1850s.
Consequently, legitimate trading has since been the order of the day and has attracted diverse
groups of people such that modern day Lagos is an amalgam of peoples, ethnicities and
nationals from within and outside Nigeria. This is to say Lagos today is a cosmopolitan
centre, a situation that has facilitated the high involvement and virtual dominance of certain
ethnic groups and nationalities in the country in internal and international trading in the study
area.

Also, Lagos is the economic hub of Nigeria, and much of the nation’s economic wealth and
activity are concentrated in the city. Most commercial, financial and business organisations in
Nigeria are located in the Central Business District (CBD) on Lagos Island, which houses
many of the country’s notable high rise buildings. Lagos is also where most of the country’s
largest banks and financial institutions and headquarters of big multi-national corporations
are located.

Furthermore, Lagos contributes significantly to Nigeria’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP);
estimated as 31.9 per cent in 2004 (State of Lagos Megacity and Other Nigerian Cities
Report, 2004). The same report states that it is home to over 65 per cent of Nigeria’s total
commercial activities and about 250 financial institutions, among many other of its functions.
The level of the urban informal sector in Lagos has also been estimated at between 50 and 70
per cent of the workforce; comprising processing, repairs, personal services, agricultural
services, technical services and trading and other services. Many of these activities have
sizeable proportions of underemployed workers.

Lagos, as a leading commercial centre and port, is well connected by all known modes of
transportation. Its strategic location has also led to its being the end point of both internal
road transport networks and the Trans-African Highway; the later links Lagos with several
African countries. The main highways are the Trans-West African Coastal Highway and the
Trans-Saharan Highway. The former leaves the city through Badagry Expressway to the
Republic of Benin and beyond, as far as Dakar (Senegal) and Nouakchott (Mauritania), while
the later takes off from Lagos via the Lagos-Ibadan Expressway to Algiers (Algeria).

Lagos seaport is Nigeria’s leading port and one of the largest and busiest in Africa. The main
ports are located in Apapa and Tin Can Island, both of which are located in Badagry creek
that flows into the Lagos harbor from the west. Also, Lagos is served by Muritala
Mohammed Airport, one of the largest airports in Africa and a top international air passenger
gateway to Nigeria. It is a route highly patronised by both internal and international
passengers within the country, to and from diverse parts of the world.

There are many markets in Lagos metropolis; but, the popular ones are: on the island -
Idumota, Balogun, Sangrouse and Obalende, and on the mainland – Oyingbo (White Sand),
Yaba (Tejuosho), Alade, Oshodi, Mushin, Mile 12 and Ketu. Many of these markets are
known for foodstuffs and household commodities, mostly locally sourced within Nigeria.
But, main markets that specialize in imported goods are Alaba International Market,
Computer Village and ASPAMDA. The interest is on the latter; but, a brief of the former is given below.

Idumota- Balogun market is almost a sprawl of a market, as it stretches from the end of the old Carter Bridge to Marina and Broad Street, which are two of the busiest streets in the CBD of Lagos. The market, in particular Idumota is one of the oldest markets in Lagos and the largest market in West Africa, and possibly Africa. The market is made up of very many multiple storey buildings, more in Idumota than Balogun segment of the market. Oyingbo (White Sand) market, with its sister market at Iddo is a prime market for foodstuffs from Northern Nigeria. Yaba market, also known as Tejuosho market is known for clothes and some other imported goods. Mushin (Ojuwoye market) is known for almost every consumable goods, at both wholesale and retail levels. Alade market is situated close to the high – brow Allen Avenue in Ikeja and on the route to the international airport. A number of businesses, mostly corporate services and retail stores operate in the market. Oshodi market is the second largest Nigerian market after Idumota- Balogun market. Up until early 2008, roads leading to the market were so jam packed that free flow of traffic was almost impossible. This is becoming a thing of the past; following the transformative activities of the Lagos State Government, on its transportation and security matters. Mile 12 is a hotbed of farm produce and raw foods.

2.8 Sources of Data and Selection of Markets

Both primary and secondary data sources were used for studying the traders. The secondary sources are published documents on Lagos markets, traders and government’s activities in the markets and internet search on trading in prominent destinations the traders moved to. The primary source involved the use of quantitative (oral interviews), and of qualitative tools, of Focus Group Discussions (FGD) and In-Depth Interviews (IDIs) with opinion leaders. Oral interviews were conducted via the administration of a multi-round survey of selected markets in Lagos metropolis.

Lagos markets rather than its metropolitan cum-residential areas were selected for the sampling exercise. Two major criteria were adopted in the selection of the markets. One, a selected market must have two segments of trading populations, that is, those who engage in internal and international trading. Nonetheless, since the emphasis was not on mere importation of commodities by such traders, but on their travelling to such destinations, markets whose traders deal in imported goods without the traders themselves travelling to purchase the goods in international destinations were not selected.

Two, wherever stall ownership overlaps between two major markets, one of the two markets was dropped to prevent double counting. This informed the preference for Balogun market on Lagos Island, which is the traditional CBD, while Balogun International Centre for Commerce on the Lagos - Badagry Expressway was dropped. Another added factor for
selecting Balogun-Idumota Market on the Lagos Island was to capture the known feature of females in trading. This was to make up for the very much skewed, male-dominated nature of the other three markets; hence, the added factor of retaining this market in the sample. In addition to the conditions outlined above, the physical layout was another important consideration. In other words, a market in which the physical layout posed a major constraint to the possibility of efficient numbering of traders and of stalls for a reliable random sampling exercise was also excluded.

On the basis of these sets of criteria, four main markets met the requirements in varying degrees. These are the Auto Spare Parts and Machinery Dealers Association Market (ASPAMDA) in Ojo LGA, Alaba International Market (Ojo LGA), Ikeja Computer Village Market (Ikeja LGA) and Balogun-Idumota Market (Lagos Island LGA).

### 2.8.1 Balogun-Idumota Market

Of the four markets, Balogun-Idumota Market, simply referred to as Balogun market, has the densest concentration of traders, as multi-storey buildings dominate sections of the market. Originally, much of the area was built for residential purpose, with minimum emphasis on proper planning. Consequently, commercial as well as official functions have generally overpriced properties out of reach of residential users. Transportation flow in Balogun market, as well as in its contiguous Idumota market, was very chaotic until recent times, when the Lagos State Government introduced some interventions to ease the traffic flow in the entire metropolis.

Balogun Market has the largest number of traded goods. Some sections of the markets are for specific goods, while in some other parts the focus is on general merchandise. In line with the criteria for the selection of markets and sub-market trading groups for the study, two major commodity trading groups that are affiliated with registered associations were selected for study in Balogun Market, which are Footwear/Leatherwear Association and Textile Traders Association. This was to ease sampling, as the lists of such associations formed the sampling framework.

### 2.8.2 Alaba International Market

Alaba International Market is located along the Lagos-Badagry Expressway in Ojo LGA. The market is not well-structured and the stalls are small in size. The market is reputed to be one of the biggest markets for electronic and electrical appliances and for both new and second-hand products. Also, some proportions of the traders engage in machineries and furniture products. Its commercial populations comprise both ‘international traveler’ and ‘international non-traveler’ traders, according to the lists provided by the market associations; the sample was drawn from the list of ‘international traveler’.
2.8.3 ASPAMDA Market

The third market is ASPAMDA, an acronym for Auto Spare Parts and Machinery Dealers Association Market. It should be noted that ASPAMDA is in the neighborhood of Balogun International Centre for Commerce, both of which are along the Lagos-Badagry Expressway and share between themselves an area formerly designated the Trade Fair complex and its adjoining vicinity. The chief executive officer of one of the major associations in the market claimed ASPAMDA market was developed almost entirely by non-indigene traders themselves, the exception being the land they rented from the Lagos State Government. According to the executive officer of the main association in the market, ASPAMDA rated highest in the whole length and breadth of Africa. Virtually all commercial banks in the country have their branch office in the market. The blocks of buildings at ASPAMDA market are well laid out, properly outlined and labeled on zoning basis, A – F. This made for easy identification during the fieldwork.

2.8.4 Computer Village Market

Ikeja Computer Village Market, Ikeja, is the fourth market. It covers a small area of roughly 6 km². This area was originally a residential area. Its adjacency to the Ikeja traditional Ipodo Market perhaps facilitated the displacement of residential function by commerce. The trading sections are, therefore, the normal residential buildings that were rented out for commercial purposes. This made identification of the trading section difficult. The buildings, no doubt, can be identified by the house number; but the stalls are not well labeled. In one single building, there could be up to 10 business outfits.

This small area is regarded as Africa’s largest Information Technology (IT) market, both in terms of population of traders and customers as well as the sheer volume of transactions that takes place there (www.business-travel-nigeria.com). The market is extremely popular for people looking for cheapest alternatives for PCs, mobile phones, camcorders, digital cameras and other digital and electronic devices. Traders in the Computer village, as its name implies, deal essentially in computer and telecommunication equipment or the Global System for Mobile (GSM) communications. Trading in computer wares appeared in its embryonic stage in the vicinity in the mid-1990s. Since then, it has swallowed every other economic activity in the neighborhood. The approval of licenses to GSM telecommunication operators in Nigeria in the late 1990s and the popularization of the mobile telephones in Nigeria in year 2000 have widened the functional scope of the Computer Village, to include the sale of mobile telephone handsets.

2.9 Methodological Approach and Challenges

2.9.1 Reconnaissance Survey and Methods of Primary Data Collection

To determine the appropriate strategy for the fieldwork, the research team conducted some preliminary investigations on both the attributes of prospective markets and their trading
populations. The methods of data collection started with the purposive sampling of markets within the metropolis of Lagos State.

The next step was the identification of leaders of the markets for briefing and solicitation of support. Information obtained from the leaders, combined with physical sketch mapping of the market and stalls, helped to direct the pre-test survey. This was aimed at having an idea of how the two sub-groups are distributed among the major market areas, as well as to test the reliability of the survey instrument. The next set of activities involved reconnaissance survey, using the checklist above to determine the market areas that would be covered during the fieldwork.

The initial strategy for the design of sampling frame for the study was to conduct a mini-census; but, this was changed to the list of associations in each selected market. The change from mini-census to the list of associations was premised on three major reasons. The first reason was that the exercise would become cumbersome; based on the large sizes of the selected markets, as observed during the reconnaissance survey. Also, cost of executing the exercise was considered excessive, judging from the funds available. And, thirdly, most traders were observed to have more than one stall in some of the markets, while some stalls were empty. These factors could eventually lead to error of redundancy and many empty cells during data analysis.

Consequently, the lists of associations in the selected markets were agreed upon as a viable alternative. Soliciting for and obtaining approval from the market association leaders and the government institutions of the markets preceded obtaining the listing of members of main market associations in each of the markets, where the list existed. If not available, the market stall/shops were listed by the field workers, from which they drew the sample. The lists acquired comprised names and stall numbers of traders of similar commodity or belonging to a particular faction, group or zone of the market. In ASPAMDA and Alaba International markets, where there were no inter or intra-union contentions, it was not so difficult to obtain the list of traders. The names were re-compiled into two separate lists, of international and internal traders. The serial numbers contained in each list were duplicated in paper slips to generate two sampling frames from which traders were randomly selected for questionnaire administration.

However, it was relatively difficult to get the lists of market associations in the Computer Village, Ikeja. Preliminary observations showed that placing too much reliance on any of the two contending fractions in the market would jeopardize the task of the research. As a result, after the initial formal meetings with some union members, who showed some understanding, the research team took the decision to carry out the sampling at the level of the individual plazas, which accommodate the stalls. Each fieldworker was to first determine the total number of stalls in each plaza, and then find out the circulatory nature of the traders. From the entrance of the plaza, the fieldworkers numbered the stalls serially and separately for international and internal traders. The serial numbers were written on paper slips for random samples of each of the two sampled frames.
The same procedure was partially employed in obtaining respondents only among electrical traders in Balogun Market, where the union could not assist in providing a list of traders in their section of the market after series of promises to do so. Subsequently, the administration of the questionnaire was carried out primarily by the fieldworkers and supervisors, assisted by the two consultants employed on many occasions. While the field-workers carried out oral interviews with the sampled respondents, the supervisors monitored their activities; attended to and solved problems in the field. Also, the supervisors went on spot-check, as well as cross-checked the administered questionnaire forms on completion.

The field workers were grouped into two working teams, that is, a supervisor to four fieldworkers. In two of the markets, ASPAMDA and Computer Village, the questionnaire administration was jointly carried out by all the eight fieldworkers and the two supervisors, while in Balogun Market and Alaba International Market each of the two team fieldworkers simultaneously carried out the exercise. In some cases, the data collection was a multi-round process, that is, fieldworkers visited non-responding and non-available respondents as many times as possible, within the period of the survey.

Two sets of questionnaires were designed and administered respectively for international and internal traders, as shown in Appendix I and II. Each of the questionnaires has sections A to F. Section A is on the social and economic characteristics of the respondent. Section B covers basic detail of trading activities, while section C is on first internal/international business trading trip. Section D deals with latest internal/international business trading trip and section E is on changing trading patterns within/outside Nigeria. Section F is on socio-political environment and internal/international trading.

The FGD and IDI addressed some of the questions in the questionnaires to groups or individuals in the interviews and explicitly covered those that were not in questionnaire. The latter was mainly on measures of the three distinctive features of traders. The first, effectiveness of traders’ mobility was measured via perception of profitability of travel, duration of stay, availability of goods, reliability of agent/link person, and sources of knowledge on goods to be purchased. Economic strategy was measured by year of entry into trading, motive for trading, previous employment record, perception of trading opportunities in destination countries, awareness and reaction to changing economic conditions, ownership of business and market(s) patronized, among others. Individuality was in terms of educational status and source of capital at time of starting to trade.

The research population was the market traders. For sampling purpose, they were designated as either internal traders, if they were also engaged in trading in other locations in Nigeria or international traders, if they traded outside Nigeria. The survey aimed at 800 sample size, consisting of 500 international and 300 internal traders that is, a ratio of 60:40. During the course of sampling and administration of the questionnaire, it was found out that the ratio could not be maintained in all cases. Subsequently, it was reviewed to reflect what was feasible, as depicted by table 2.2, which shows the success level. At the end of the survey,
728 traders were interviewed, out of which 448 were international traders and the remaining 280 as internal traders; therefore, resulting into a ratio of 61:39.

The second phase was the Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and In-depth Interviews (IDIs). Two FGDs sessions were held in each of the markets, making eight sessions in all. Each FGD comprised 6 - 10 traders, depending on their willingness to spare some time for the discussion. The IDIs comprised a few foreigners that were either distributors or representatives of foreign trading companies.

At the end of the survey, a total number of 97 people participated in both FGDs and IDIs, comprising 87 males and 10 females, as Tables 3 and 4 indicate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>International Trader</th>
<th>Internal Trader</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASPAMDA</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Village</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alaba</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balogun</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>448</strong></td>
<td><strong>280</strong></td>
<td><strong>728</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Participants of FGDs and IDIs; Source: Field Survey (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>47.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDI</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>52.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Sex composition of FGDs and IDIs Participants; Source: Field Survey (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>87.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.9.2 Advantages and Drawbacks of the Methods

Each of the three primary data sources has its own advantages and drawbacks. For oral interview, via a designed questionnaire, both quantitative and qualitative data could be sourced; but, there were cases of memory lapse and mixing up of facts. For example, some of the traders mixed up destinations they patronised in the second or third trips or more trips they made outside the country. The analysis of their first and latest trips was, therefore, considered the best way out of such confusion.

On the other hand, the FGD and IDI yielded mostly qualitative data. Also, some of the variables of interest, which were not explicitly covered by the questionnaire, were addressed in the FGDs and IDIs, as stated earlier on. Moreover, the questions asked were mostly open-ended questions, which the groups or individuals responded freely to.

2.9.3 The Challenges/Problems

The problems faced in the course of data collection for the study were usually those that are peculiar to research endeavors in Nigeria. One of the major problems encountered was the difficulty in acquiring the lists of associations in some of the markets. The second was redesigning the questions posed in order to measure the three features of traders.

In all of the markets, there were different associations, but not all traders were members of such associations, and there were no list of membership for some of the associations. The problems were not many in ASPAMDA and Alaba markets, because they were better organised. This was because in ASPAMDA, all traders must belong to the association of the products they sell; majority of the respondents belonged to Automobile Spare Parts Association and Motor Dealers Association.

In Alaba International Market, the traders were automatically members of the particular section in which their shops were situated. However, Alaba had about 22 different market associations. But, there were four major ones. These were International Market Association for Electronics, Electrical Fancy & Furniture, and Industrial Association. These associations were very cooperative at the initial stage; but later, their leaders proved difficult, when some of them realised that there was no financial gain attached to the survey; hence, they tried to frustrate the efforts of the team by asking for money before they could release their members’ list. This attitude was not limited to internal traders, but also among the big wholesalers and even among executive members of the association. Through persuasion, the field-workers were able to surmount the problems. In some cases, some marketers on their own were very excited and assisted in giving more than was requested. This was indicative of their appreciation that trading was being reckoned with and that their problems would be given a voice. But, some would-be-respondents frustrated the efforts of the field-workers as they asked them to come back on several occasions without eventually giving them audience.
Market associations in Computer Village and Balogun markets did not have comprehensive records of their members. On enquiry, the field-workers were told that they were just collating the list and that individual members were not mandated to join because the various buildings that housed the traders were owned by individuals and the shops were let-out to individuals without recourse to the associations. This made it difficult for the associations to have comprehensive lists of their members. Also, there were factional groups that caused impediments in acquiring the list of membership of such an association, in particular Computer Village market.

Another major problem encountered right from the time of the reconnaissance survey was the misconception that the study was government sponsored and was a way of collecting information about their trading activities for tax levies and other state revenue related purposes. Also, the Government of Lagos State heightened the momentum of increasing its Internally Generated Revenue (IGR), by setting up a taskforce to work on the modality of increasing money generated from markets. Therefore, anything that involved people going about in groups or teams was suspected, and was termed a strategy of the State government in imposing taxes on the populace. Even the taskforce/union that was set up by government found the task of implementing increased market fees very difficult to accomplish, because some form of rivalry broke out in the rank and file of the market union. Majority of the union members suspected foul play from the government, whom they believed was trying to break their solidarity in order to actualise its fiscal policy.

A way of getting out of the impasse was the design of an outfit for our team of workers, by which the interviewers wore designed T-shirts and caps and had an Identity Card to differentiate them from any other person with other purpose different from ours. Thus, the strategy minimised opposition and skepticism.

The inability of respondents to find time to attend to the fieldworkers was another problem faced during the data collection. Majority of the respondents were too busy to attend to the interviewers. Many felt the questions were too many and that most of the questions probed into their private business life, which they felt might threaten their business.

Also, timing was a major problem. Generally, there was no time that was convenient for traders to answer the questions. Their reason for not wanting to attend to the fieldworkers in the morning was that they had just arrived at the market and they were therefore busy with the display of their wares. In the afternoon, they were attending to customers, while in the evening; they were about to leave the market. The same pattern continued even for follow-up visits until they eventually agreed to complete the questionnaire. Sometimes, the questionnaire forms were replaced because the initial ones left with the traders, at their request, was misplaced. Since the respondents were within the sampling frame, call back time was agreed on by both parties. A second or third visit was usually adequate to get their attention and cooperation. Sometimes, the respondents insisted on the questionnaire being left with them with a promise to complete the questionnaire to be picked up at an agreed date.
At Alaba International Market, the respondents initially felt that the survey was ethnically biased and wanted to know if only traders from one ethnic group were targeted. Questions on where they were born and when they got to Lagos State were initially not answered until they were told that the survey also included Yoruba traders in Balogun Market. The fears of such respondents were allayed as much as possible and a high level of co-operation was received.

2.9.4 Quality of Data Collected

The quality of data collected can be said to be of high quality and relevant to the aims and objectives of the study. The authenticity of the data was based on the roles played by the supervisors in ensuring proper administration of the questionnaire by the fieldworkers, and cross-checking any error or inadequacy that could crop up during the survey. The supervisors were also mandated to go through each completed questionnaire form and ensure that it was properly administered. In addition, supervisors randomly selected some respondents that had answered the questions and re-administered parts of the questionnaire, so as to validate the earlier administered section(s). Any incomplete form was returned to the fieldworkers that administered it. Moreover, any respondent that was not available during the questionnaire survey was replaced from the sampling pool after a number of visits.
CHAPTER 3: THE FINDINGS

3.1 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Traders - Predisposing Mobility Factor

3.1.1 Sex Composition by Category of Traders and Markets

There is the predominance of males (86.5%) in the entire sample population, and among the international (85.2%) and internal (88.6%) traders, as by Fig 3. In each of the cases, females form the remaining lower percentages.

![Chart showing sex composition by category of traders and markets](image)

By implication, males are predominant in all the four markets (Appendix Table A1^2*). However, Computer Village and Balogun markets have noticeable percentages of female traders, of 13.8 and 31.1 per cent respectively.

One main explanation for the gender-bias is the nature of goods traded in by the two sexes. As will be shown shortly, ASPAMDA, Computer Village and Alaba markets, in which male traders form the highest majority, the goods traded are mostly sophisticated, technical goods, such as motor spare parts, computer and accessories and electrical appliances, as against Balogun market, where female traders form relatively higher percentage, compared to other markets; but, where goods traded are mostly less complicated, technical goods, such as household utensils, clothing and foot wears. Another conceivable explanation is cultural restraint that underlines male predominance in long distance trading, compared to its lower occurrence among females.

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*Note: All Tables marked * are in the Appendix*
3.1.2 Age Composition by Category of Traders and Market

Figure 4 and Table A2 show the mean age of the traders is 38.8 years. However, there are variations in the ages of international and internal traders. The latter is the older, 40.7 years old as against 38.8 years old internal traders. ANOVA statistic of ages of the two categories of traders shows significant difference in their ages, with F-value=66.41, df =1, at p>0.00 level of significance. The difference in age shows that it takes certain period of time for internal traders to change to international trading.

![Figure 4. Average age by category of traders; Source: Field Survey (2009)](image)

At the level of each market, the mean age varies significantly, as follows: 41.9, 38.7, 39.6 and 36.2 years respectively for ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba and Balogun markets. The ANOVA test statistics depicts significant differences in ages of traders by market, with F-value=8.36, df = 3, at p>0.00 level of significance. The variations in the average age are indications of possibility of variation in the level of maturity needed for engaging in some of the items of trade noted for the four markets.

3.1.3 Marital Status by Category of Traders and Market

Among the two categories of traders, Table A3* depicts over four-fifths of international traders (84.9%) are married, as against two-thirds of internal traders (67.8%). The proportion of singles among international traders is, therefore, lower than it is among internal traders, 15.1 per cent as against 32.2 per cent respectively.

The same applies in all the markets. Figure 5 shows more than three-quarters of the traders (78.3%) are married, with variation from this percentage among the markets: ASPAMDA (91.8%), Computer Village (85.7%), Alaba (77.6%) and Balogun (53.4%). By implication, as
well, at the individual market level, Balogun has the highest percentage of singles (46.6%) in comparison to the other markets.

In essence, married males feature most at ASPAMDA; followed by Computer Village and Alaba. A Chi-square test shows significant difference in marital status according to markets, with $\chi^2 = 67.043$, df =3, at $\alpha = 0.000$ significance level. The result indicates significant variation in the level of maturity of traders in the four markets.

![Figure 5. Marital Status by market; Source: Field Survey (2009)](image)

### 3.1.4 Internal Migration: Place of Birth, State and Geo-Political Zone by Category of Traders and Market

Analysis of place of birth of all traders indicates that the majority of them (84.0%) were not born in Lagos, leaving very few (16.0%) as those that were born in Lagos. Figure 6 presents the same scenario, as 84.1 and 83.3 per cent respectively of the international and internal traders, who were not born in Lagos. The figure clearly indicates the high level of in-migration of traders into Lagos over time, leaving less than one-eighth of the sample populations in each case as non-migrants. Also, it shows migrants are more involved in trading in the urban centre than the indigenes, or non-migrants.
Also, in each of the markets, traders not born in Lagos are in the majority. The situation is as follows: ASPAMDA (84.4%), Alaba (96.8%), Balogun (86.6%), and 77.3 per cent for the Computer Village.

Fig 7 indicates the numerous places of origin from where 84 per cent of the traders migrated into Lagos. No doubt, the prominence of places in states in the south-eastern part of the country stand out clearly; followed distantly by those in the south-west and very few from north central states. The significance of the variation of place of birth shows the cosmopolitan nature of the markets and in turn, the metropolis.

The same scenario is obtained, based on the geo-political zone of place of origin of the traders. Figures 8 and 9 depict that the majority of international and internal traders, 78.9 and 81.2 per cent respectively, are from the South-East geo-political zone of Nigeria; followed by South-West (10.9%; 11.6%), South-South (8.4%; 5.8%) and North-Central (1.8%; 1.4%).

Moreover, Table A4* and Figure 9 reveal traders from South-east geo-political zone are prominent in all the four markets, ASPAMDA (87.5%), Computer Village (71.1%), Alaba (93.3%) and Balogun (82.4%). The proportions for other zones are lower and quite varied. In ASPAMDA, the distribution is as follows: South-South (6.3%), South-West (4.7%) and North-Central (1.6%).

On the other hand, the situation in Computer Village shows traders from South-West came second (17.6%); followed by those from South-South (8.5%) and North-Central (2.8%) zones. For Alaba market, the order is South-South (5.2%) and South-West (1.3%). For Balogun market, the other states that feature are South-West (8.8%), South-South (8.1%) and North-Central (0.7%).

Figure 6. Place of birth by category of traders; Source: Field Survey (2009)
Figure 7. Actual places of origin of traders by market; Source: Field Survey (2009)

Figure 8. Geo-political zone of place of origin by category of traders; Source: Field Survey (2009)
Figure 9. Geo-political zone of place of origin of traders by market; Source: Field Survey (2009)

Figure 10. Flows from places of origin into Lagos metropolis; Source: Field Survey (2009)
Figure 10 and Table A5* indicate prominence of Anambra State, with 37.7 per cent of all the traders hailing from there and on the basis of the category of traders, with 37.3 and 38.4 per cent respectively of the international and internal traders. The next states of importance, for all traders, and for the two categories of international and internal traders are: Imo (22.9%; 24.4%; 20.3%), Abia (8.7%; 8.9%; 8.3%), Enugu (8.4%; 6.0%; 12.3%) and Ebonyi (3.3%; 3.6%; 2.9%) states. The other states trail behind; but, of note is the very low percentages for traders whose state of origin is Lagos (3.3% - all traders; 3.3% - international; 2.9% - internal), which indicates the very low level of involvement of indigenes in trading.

The Chi-square test further shows significant difference in places of origin of traders in all the four markets, with values, of $\chi^2=5.957$, df =3, at $\alpha= 0.000$ significance level. The places of origin of international and internal traders in all the four markets are, therefore, quite diverse.

Further breakdown of the data, as on Figure 8 and Table A6* not only shows prominence of states in South-East geo-political states, but variations in the order of importance of the states in each of the four markets. The prominent states of origin of traders in ASPAMDA market are Anambra (60.9%), Imo (10.9%) and Abia (7.8%) and Enugu (6.3%), compared to those for Balogun market, of Anambra (51.5%), Imo (22.3%), Enugu (5.1%) and Abia (2.2%) states.

Alaba and Computer Village markets respectively have prominently traders from Anambra state (34.2%; 29.5%); other states are Imo and Abia (25.2%; 24.0%); on the contrary traders from Enugu and Ebonyi states (12.9%; 4.4% and 3.9%; 3.3%) feature less in both markets. Again, the Chi-square statistics, of $\chi^2=21.640$, df =3, at $\alpha= 0.000$ significance level shows a significant difference in the state of origin of traders in the four markets.

The reason for the high variation in percentages of both the international and internal traders from states within the South-East zone compared with those for the other three geo-political zones that feature less is because of the special flair that people from the South-East zone have for business. Earlier writings have often referred to their business shrewdness (Meagher, 2006; 2009). In addition, the people from the zone are particularly interested or involved in the latest and fast moving imported goods and commodities, such as motor and machinery, automobile spare part, computers and accessories, GSM and accessories and imported wears, among others. Therefore, the data depict trading to be within certain states groupings.

### 3.1.5 Year of Arrival in Lagos by Category of Traders and Market

Figure 11 shows majority of traders (69.4%), who were not born in Lagos, came into the city between 1980 and 1999, that is, 10 to 29 years prior to the year of interview.
The same temporal pattern obtains for the two categories of traders, as majority of them, international (75.0%) and internal migrants (60.2%) came to Lagos between 1980 and 1999. However, pre 1980 and between 2000 and 2009 witnessed lower percentages of in-migration of the traders. Still, in the latter period, that is, in the last nine years the percentage picked up from 7.3 per cent to 17.7 per cent for international traders and for internal traders from 5.2 per cent to 34.6 per cent.

Furthermore, Table 5 depicts 1980-1999 as the period when majority of traders in ASPAMDA (72.3%), Computer Village (69.0%), Alaba (81.1%) and Balogun (52.0%)

3 This period witnessed the emergence of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) gadgets in the country.

Table 5. Year of arrival in Lagos by market; Source: Field Survey (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASPAMDA</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Village</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alaba International Market</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11. Year of arrival in Lagos by category of traders; Source: Field Survey (2009)
migrated into Lagos. Consequently, Balogun market has the highest proportion of its traders (42%) that moved into Lagos between 2000 and 2009, compared to the situation of the other markets.

### 3.1.6 Educational Status by Category of Traders and Market

Table 6 shows all traders had formal education, as the average number of years spent in formal education is 13 years. However, there are variations in the number of years spent among the two categories of traders and among the four markets. Respectively, the international and internal traders spent 13.3 and 12.5 years in schools, which show the former, the international traders, as the more educated.

The number of years spent schooling for each of the four markets are 11.7, 13.7, 11.6 and 13.6 years respectively for ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba and Balogun, as in Figure 12. This is confirmed by ANOVA statistics, of F-value =30.21, df =3, at p>0.00 level of significance, of a significant difference in number of years spent in formal education among traders in the four markets.

Table 6. Average number of years spent in formal education by category of traders; Source: Field Survey (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 12. Average number of years traders spent in formal education by market; Source: Field Survey (2009)
Viewed from another angle, Tables 7 and A7 show variations in the level of education attained by the two categories of traders. The mode of educational attainment respectively for international and internal traders is secondary education (52.4%; 67.9%); followed by tertiary education (42.2%; 25.2%) and primary education (5.4%; 6.9%). In essence, international traders are relatively highly educated compared to internal traders. This reflects the type of business contacts the former would have, as they require a higher level of literacy to transact business outside the country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, at the individual market level, the mode is secondary education, with variations in the mode among the four markets. Respectively, it is secondary education for ASPAMDA (57.8%), Alaba (80.1%) and Balogun (61.2%), while Computer Village is the only one having its mode as tertiary education, with 50.4 per cent of its traders that attained this level of education.

The prominence of secondary education among traders in all the markets surveyed implies that a secondary school certificate holder should be able to read and write, and should at least be knowledgeable enough to do some business arithmetic. Also, such a person is believed to have come of age. Besides, government policy on compulsory education of a child from primary school to at least junior secondary school corroborates its prominence among the international and internal traders.

Furthermore, according to the participants of the FGDs, which have Igbo traders as participants, majority of Igbo youths migrated from their places of origin to Lagos metropolis, after the completion of their secondary school education in order to learn a trade from a kinsman or relative. They stated that attainment of a secondary school education before leaving their respective places of origin for Lagos was mandatory, as follows:

In Igbo land, it is almost … a tradition, if you can be able to finish secondary school, you serve your master and after 3 to 4 years, your master will now settle you and give you support in order for you to start trading. (FGD, ASPAMDA)

4 People of Igbo tribe were the majority of the study population
The reaction is that it is the tradition of Igbo people naturally to venture into business after their primary school or at most secondary school (FGD, Alaba Market).

Being Igbo persons, the tradition and flair for business have been naturally associated with us; therefore, most of us are secondary school leavers (FGD, Alaba Market).

### 3.1.7 Religion by Category of Traders and Market

Christianity is the religion of majority of the international and internal traders in all the markets (93.6%; 94.5%), indicating that very few (5.5%; 6.4%) are Muslim, according to Table A8* and Figure 13. Although the percentages of Muslim and Christian in Nigeria are 50 and 40 per cent respectively, however, the scenario is a reflection of the dominant religion of place of origin for the majority of the traders.

At individual market level, the scenario is not significantly different, and Christians are still in the majority, with over 90 per cent in each of the markets.

![Bar chart showing religion by category of traders and market](chart.png)

**Figure 13. Category of traders by religion; Source: Field Survey (2009)**

### 3.1.8 Trading as Main Occupation by Category of Traders and Market

Virtually all respondents (93.9%) have trading as their main occupation. Figure 14 and Table A9* show above 90 per cent of the two categories of traders having trading as their main occupation. The secondary occupations that the remaining traders engage in are services (67.6%), Professionals\(^5\) (29.7%) and agriculture (2.7%).

Similarly, at the market level, nearly all traders (above 90%) have their main occupation as trading.

\(^5\) Professionals are bankers, engineers, teachers/lecturers etc
3.1.9 Source of Help in Starting Trading by Category of Traders and Market

Table 8 depicts ‘masters’ as the main source of assistance for starting off trading for international (47.6%) and internal (58.7%) traders. This is premised on the fact that the ‘masters’ trained the apprenticed traders and at the end of the training, offered them some form of assistance to take off. Another important source of help is ‘friends’, from whom 20.3 and 14.1 per cent respectively of the international and internal traders received assistance. They are followed by ‘mentors’ (9.5%; 8.1%), while self-sponsored and help from kinsmen feature less, as the percentages are respectively 3.2 and 6.7 per cent for the international traders and 1.2 and 0.4 per cent respectively for the internal traders. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that internal traders have a higher percentage of 6.7 per cent for those who sponsored themselves in starting off trading, compared to what obtained among international traders (3.2%). This is a reflection of the lower capital involved in starting as an internal trader.

‘Mentors’\(^6\) in most cases are equivalent of ‘masters’ that trained the traders, even though, the respondents cited them separately. If the two classes of assistance are considered equivalent or same, the prominence of ‘masters’ becomes much more obvious.

\(^6\) A mentor in this context could double as a master, but a mentor is a person that facilitates a migrant move from rural area to the city; the (mentor) could be a relative or a kinsman. On the other hand, a master is someone that gives training to an apprentice.
Table 8. Source of assistance for trading by category of traders; Source: Field Study (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentors</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatives</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinsmen</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self sponsored</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These findings are corroborated by the FGDs and IDIs, particularly among groups that comprise mostly, Igbo traders. They stated that every apprentice would be ‘set-up’ or aided by his/her master, after the end of three to four years of apprenticeship, as follows:

We served various years with our masters who happen to be our kinsmen or distant relatives. The numbers of years served depend on the type of business and availability of capital to start own business as the amount usually given by individual master varies and it is not fixed .It is the individual family and relatives that will determine how much they will give to start with; usually, this has effect on the scale at which they start to trade. (FGD, Alaba).

Also, at the market level, Table 9 depicts masters as the major source of assistance for traders in all the four markets, with close to or over two-thirds of them in ASPAMDA (64.6%), Computer Village (39.3%), Alaba (86.5) and Balogun (39.3%). Despite the fact that Computer Village recorded the lowest percentage, ‘masters’ still form the highest percentage among the sources of assistance for its traders.

They are followed distantly by relatives in ASPAMDA (15.4%) and Alaba (4.5%) markets. For traders in Computer Village and Balogun market, friends came second forming 23.8 and 30.4 per cent respectively. The next significant source of help is friend (23.8%; 30.4%). 'Self-sponsored' almost did not feature in both ASPAMDA and Balogun market, but is noticeable in Computer Village (7.0%) and Alaba (4.5%).

---

7 A kinsman in this context is not necessarily a relative but someone that comes from the same village or community of a migrant, while a relative is a family member of a migrant.
Table 9. Source of assistance to start trading by market; Source: Field Study (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of assistance</th>
<th>ASPAMDA</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Computer Village</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Alaba Int'l Market</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Balogun Market</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>81</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>133</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>134</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinsmen</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self sponsored</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>341</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>155</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>135</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.10 Form of Assistance Received by Category of Traders and Market

Figure 15 shows the form of assistance received by majority of respondents (38.1%) in starting business is financial training. It is also the most prominent form of assistance for the two categories of traders, international (32.9%) and internal (46.5%) traders. The ‘masters-mentors’ that trained the traders in the rudiments of trading most often advance them financial assistance, in particular as ‘seed’ money or capital for taking off.

Figure 15. Form of assistance in starting business by category of traders; Source: Field Study (2009)
Other forms of assistance respectively for international and internal traders are financial, training & advice (16.3%; 16.8%) and training & advice (3.8%; 3.5%). The other forms of assistance that were mentioned singly in order of importance respectively for the international and internal traders to start to trade are financial (15.4%; 9.0%), training (7.0%; 7.4%), advice (7.0%; 5.5%) and religious (2.6%; 0.8%).

At the market level, financial-training is also the prominent form of assistance in all the four markets. According to Table A10*, the percentages for financial-training are 50.8, 30.1, 68.2 and 17.8 per cent respectively for ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba and Balogun markets.

Other forms of help that are noteworthy in each of the markets are financial advice (9.5%, 16.9%, 7.4% and 13.3%), training & advice (14.3%, 15.0%, 5.4% and 15.6%) and financial, training & advice (12.7%, 10.0%, 2.0% and 3.7%), that is, for ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba and Balogun markets respectively.

3.1.11 Location of Person Offering Assistance by Category of Traders and Market

Since apprenticeship is often within the city, Lagos, majority of the traders (63.6%) received assistance from persons located within Lagos, the centre of trade. Also, Table 10 reveals about three-fifths (59.0%) of the international and 71.3 per cent of internal traders received assistance from persons located within Lagos.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Lagos state</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Lagos state</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Nigeria</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quite a substantial percentage of traders received help from persons located elsewhere in Nigeria; for all traders, it is 34.3 per cent, while the figures are 38.3 and 27.5 per cent for international and internal traders respectively. In contrast, only very few percentages of all the traders (international traders - 2.7%; internal traders - 1.2 %) received assistance from

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8 The difference in the percentages is derived from type of goods and commodities being sold in each of the markets. An apprentice that learnt trading in capital-intensive goods/commodities need to be adequately financed by the master or mentor

9 In some cases, the master might give only training but not financial assistance
persons outside Nigeria. Again, the relatively higher percentage for international traders compared to that of internal traders indicates the need of the former for a relatively higher start-off capital. This is probably the reason for higher percentage of the former sourcing for assistance from outside the country, since such source might be in a better position to provide reliable and adequate assistance, all things being equal.

At the individual market level, Table A11* shows assistance received from persons within Lagos State as prominent in all the markets. The percentage of persons within and outside Lagos States but in Nigeria that assisted the two categories of traders are: for ASPAMDA, 55.6 and 43.3 per cent respectively, Computer Village (61.1% and 35.5%), Alaba (69.0% and 31.0%) and Balogun (67.5% and 31.7%). These stand in sharp contrast to the lower percentages in each of the markets, for assistance received from persons outside Nigeria (1.7%; 3.4%; 0.0%; 0.8%).

### 3.1.12 Hours Spent on Trading Daily by Category of Traders and Market

The number of hours spent trading daily by the traders is revealing of the informal nature of their activity. The average number of hours spent trading daily is 9.0 hours, which is higher than the statutory official hours of work for government workers. Also, Table A12* and Figure 16 depict the average hours spent by international and internal traders trading daily as 8.4 and 9.3 hours respectively.

![Figure 16. Average number of hours spent trading daily by category of traders; Source: Field Study (2009)](image)

At the level of the individual markets, traders in ASPAMDA spent 8.6 hours trading, Computer Village, 8.9 hours, Alaba, 9.2 hours and Balogun 9.5 hours. In essence, traders in Balogun market stay longer in the market in contrast to those in ASPAMDA. This is because ASPAMDA and Alaba markets are regulated markets, the opening and closing times are
fixed by the executives of the markets, but Computer Village and Balogun markets are more or less residential areas turned to markets.

In addition, Table A12* shows traders that spent below 8 or above 10 hours are of less significance in all the four markets, except Computer Village, where the percentages are highest (10.7% and 11.7%). In essence, ANOVA test confirms a significant difference in the average number of hours spent trading daily by international and internal traders, given $F$-value= 12.335, df =1, at $p>0.000$, and for the four markets, given $F$-value=11.671, df= 3, at $p>0.000$.

### 3.1.13 Ownership Status and Pattern of Business by Category of Traders and Market

The ownership status of business is almost the same as ownership pattern of business that the traders responded on. In more explicit term, ownership status of business could be identified in different ways, such as sole ownership, partnership/enterprise or family business. And, the ownership pattern is the distribution of the ownership status so as to see the most prominent.

![Ownership pattern of business by category of traders](image)

*Figure 17. Ownership pattern of business by category of traders; Source: Field Study (2009)*

Figure 17 and Table A13* show majority of all the traders either owned the trading business (90.1%). The same applies to international (88.5%) and internal (92.5%) traders. Other forms of ownership tend to feature less, (though not in Table A13*) as follows: the percentages are: for all the traders in partnership (6.9%), for international (7.3%) and internal traders (6.2%). For family business, the figure is 4.5 per cent for all the traders, and 5.4 and 3.1 per cent for international and internal traders respectively.
As presented by Figure 18 and Table A14*, the same scenario obtains for all traders and for each of the four markets; as 88.1 per cent of all traders owned the business and 90.6 per cent was for individual owners; for ASPAMDA (96.6%; 88.1%), Computer Village, (85.6%; 85.0%), Alaba (98.0%; 94.2%) and in Balogun (88.1%; 90.6%).

### 3.1.14 Ownership and Cost of Business Premises by Category of Traders and Market

On ownership of business premises, most of the traders do not own the business premises they occupy, as on Table A15*; the percentages being 75.6, 71.0 and 83.0 per cent for all the traders, international and internal traders respectively.

The situation is almost the same in each of the markets as majority of traders in Computer Village (76.2%), Alaba (77.4%) and Balogun (89.9%) do not own the business premises; unlike the condition in ASPAMDA that has a higher percentage of traders (57.6%) that own the business premises. This reflects the genesis of the market as the discussion held with executives of the main market association shows:

Igbo\(^\text{10}\) traders pooled resources in building a market of their dream, that is, ASPAMDA. (IDIs, Executive Vice President, ASPAMDA).

Consequently, the higher percentage of traders in ASPAMDA that own their business premises compared to those in other markets can be understood in this light.

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\(^{10}\) Alaba market was built by Lagos State Government, while Computer Village and Balogun markets were residential buildings turned to shops and stalls.
3.1.15 Rent by Category of Traders and Market

Renting of shops in Lagos metropolis is very costly. Figure 19 shows the mode of rent paid is higher among international traders than among internal traders, of N200,001 – N500,000\(^{11}\) for 45.9 per cent of the former, as against N60,001 – N100,000 for the latter.

![Figure 19. Cost of business premises by category of traders; Source: Field Study (2009)](image)

Again, the mode of rent paid varies in all the four markets, as shown in Table A16*. In both ASPAMDA and Alaba, it is N100,000-N150,000, as against N200,001-N500,000 in Computer Village, while it is lowest in Balogun market, being between N60,000 and N100,000.

3.1.16 Association Membership and Benefits Derived by Category of Traders and Market

The pattern of membership in market association, according to Figure 20, shows over three-quarters of the international and over four-fifths of internal traders belong to one market association or another; leaving close to one-fourth and less than one-fifth respectively of the two categories of traders that do not belong to any association.

Also, majority of the traders in the four markets are members of market associations; as depicted by high percentages, of 91.7, 100.0 and 85.3 per cent for ASPAMDA, Alaba and Balogun respectively; the exception is Computer Village where the percentage is lower, though still high, of 62.4 per cent. Therefore, the latter figure implies close to two-fifths (37.6\%) of the traders did not belong to any association\(^{12}\).

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\(^{11}\) Exchange Rate of Naira to US Dollars fluctuated between N130 and N150 to $1 during the survey.

\(^{12}\) ASPAMDA has an organised association with its executive members that see to the building of stalls, sanitation, security and welfare of members and their goods and commodities. Computer Village, Alaba and Balogun markets have factional market associations with objectives closely related to that of ASPAMDA.
Table A17* shows about three-fifths of international (60.7%) and internal (61.7%) traders stated they benefitted from the market association they joined, in terms of security of goods, environmental sanitation and other welfare benefits. Others stated they enjoy unity of purpose, advice and protection that the umbrella of their association offers, which 32.1 and 29.7 per cent respectively of the international and internal traders stated.

At the market level, Table A18* shows majority of traders cited security of goods and environmental sanitation as benefits received from the market association, respectively for ASPAMDA (83.3%; 10.0%), Computer Village (66.2%; 24.5%), Alaba (63.0%; 34.2%) and Balogun (37.7%; 50.0%).

Furthermore, Table A19* indicates that the major benefit that market associations receive from traders is payment of taxes, levies and market dues (96.1%). This is also cited for majority of the international (96.2%) and internal (95.9%) traders. In sum the forms of assistance the traders received and their affiliation with market associations are local enabling environments that aid their trading both within and outside Lagos metropolis.

Among the markets, payment of taxes, levies and market dues is also the major benefit the market associations derive from the members. The percentages are 93.1, 97.5, 99.4 and 91.2 per cent respectively for ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba and Balogun markets, as shown on Table A20*.

In essence, the salient socio-demographic characteristics that predispose traders to trading and by inference, mobility are:
a. In-migration from rural areas to the city of Lagos first occurred, which derives from the social networking: of secondary school holders becoming apprenticed to transnational traders in Lagos.

b. Both trainees, on completion of training, and masters-mentors trade within Nigeria

c. Internal trading is the first step towards international trading; that’s why internal mobility into Lagos market serves as stepping stone to markets outside the country.

d. Membership in market association is a pooling factor/social networking; for it evolves from links because of ethnicity links based in commodities of interest and on transnational links. The latter is a result of specialisation in trading certain commodities, which can only be sourced from outside, for example, links between traders and agencies at destination

3.2 Dynamics of Predisposing Mobility Factor

The dynamics of the predisposing mobility factor are examined in forms of changes that occur in the underlying factors that gave rise to their mobility. These include reasons for their engaging in trading, the presence of relation in destination, assistance offered, and other social links with the destination that develop over time and space. Other facilitating factors of traders’ mobility are the holding of passport and or visa and experience at the formal border posts of both the source and destination countries. In addition, frequency and duration of trips and the routes and mode of transportation are other facilitating factors that would be examined.

3.2.1 Reasons for Trading by Category of Traders and Market

Reasons for engaging in trading business among the two categories of traders are multi-faceted. Figure 21 portrays that over one fifth of the international traders (23.0%) started trading because of family influence, while the most significant reason given by over one fifth (26.3%) of internal traders is perception of the lucrative nature of the business. Other noteworthy reasons given by the two categories of traders - international and internal (21.8%; 19.5 % respectively) are to supplement income, the love of the business (19.4%; 21.8%) and because of unemployment (10.3%; 11.5%).
At the level of the markets, the reasons for going into trading also vary. Table A21* shows traders in ASPAMDA and Alaba markets gave family influence (35%; 29.4%) as the major reason. For Computer Village, the major reason for trading was to serve as an income supplement (23.2%), while for Balogun market; it was for the ‘love of the business’ (24.2%). Also, the other reasons given vary among the markets as: ‘love of the business’ for 28.3 and 20.5 per cent respectively by traders in ASPAMDA and Computer Village, the lucrative nature of the business (28.1%) for Alaba and Computer Village and as an income supplement (20.3%) for Balogun market, among others.

To corroborate the above variations, a female trader asserted during an in-depth interview that she was formerly working in a bank; but was later influenced by her husband to join him in the business. Another female trader said that she went into business on her own before joining her husband after their wedding. In addition, one of the sessions of the FGDs confirmed that Igbo people are talented for business activities. In their harmonious responses, the cross-section of the discussants affirmed the reasons for their engagement in international trading:

Being Igbo persons, we have the tradition and flair for business, which has been naturally associated with us…. (FGD, Alaba International Market).

We started trading … in order to tap into the new development, that is, ICT (FGD, Computer Village).

There was a rush for GSM business in Nigeria, and so, I utilised that opportunity to come into the business (IDI, Computer Village).

I was in the village where they believed that light is power; hence, I developed interest in dealing with electrical products, which is light also (IDI, Balogun Market).
I came into the business because of the ‘love’ I have for ICT business and to tap into what is happening in the world. Actually, it is for the love I have for it and for personal gains; but, the major thing is satisfaction. You know when you have your job satisfaction, I was a civil servant before; but, I was not getting the satisfaction in the job, so I had to change into business; therefore, my motivational forces are job satisfaction and personal gains (IDI, Computer Village).

I got engaged in trading because I like doing business, I was formerly a class room teacher (IDI, Computer Village).

### 3.2.2 Non-Trade Aim of First International Trading Trip

Figure 22 shows over half (53.6%) of the respondents that changed to trading in the course of their first international trip outside the country did so mainly in order to supplement their income; followed by 24.6 per cent that indicated availability of commodity for sale in the destination; increasing demand for a commodity (17%) and the remaining percentage (4.3%) associated the change to failed dreams in international destination.

In general, it can be said that desire to supplement dwindling household income, availability of certain commodities traded in, in particular ICT products and increasing demand for the commodities spurred people into trading during their first international trip outside Nigeria.

![Figure 22. Reason for changing international traveling aim to trading; Source: Field Study (2009)](image)

### 3.2.3 Processes of Facilitating International Trading Trip by Market

Table 11 indicates that international trade partners (34.3%) form the highest percentage of persons that facilitated traders’ first international trip outside Nigeria. This involves arranging for transportation; providing information about goods to be bought; providing interpreters, and booking for hotel reservation in the destination area. Next are import and export agencies
(30.8%), friends (22.7%), self-sponsored (7.8%), relatives/family members (1.5%), e-commerce (1.5%), Chambers of Commerce (0.8%) and lastly, master-mentors (0.5%).

These sets of facilitators of the first international trip are noteworthy; in particular trade partners that aided the development of a trading network. The later consists of commodity suppliers in foreign destinations and international traders in Nigeria, who are major distributors and marketers of imported commodities. Also, the relative prominence of self sponsored international traders indicates individuality in the arrangement of the first international trip outside Nigeria.

Table A22* and Figure 23 indicate that at the individual market level, international traders in both ASPAMDA and Computer Village feature all categories of facilitators, unlike traders in Alaba and Balogun markets, who either did not make use of or scarcely used the Chamber of Commerce and/or e-commerce.

In addition, international trade partners were the major facilitator for traders in Computer Village (39.4%) and Alaba market (64.9%), as against import and export agencies for traders in ASPAMDA (53.8%) and Balogun market (40.4%), among others.

Table 11. Process of arranging first international trip; Source: Field Study (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilitator of First International Trip</th>
<th>International Traders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International trade partners</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chamber of Trade and Commerce</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import and export agents</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-Commerce</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master assistance</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assisted by relatives/family members</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self sponsored</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2.4 Presence of Relations at International Destination Area by Market

The presence of relatives of traders in destination area is another measure of facilitating factor or social networks that aided first international trip. Figure 24 and Table A23* indicate that the majority (81.6%) of them had no relations in the destination area, while the remaining 18.4 per cent had relatives.

On the average, the international traders had three relatives at the destination countries, with variations for ASPAMDA (2), Computer Village (3) Alaba (3) and Balogun markets (4). Also, there are variations in the minimum and maximum numbers of relatives for each of the markets: that is, they are 1 and 3 respectively for ASPAMDA, 1 and 10 for Computer Village; for Balogun market, 1 and 4 while for Alaba Market, 4 and 3 minimum and maximum numbers of relatives respectively.

Figure 23. Facilitators of first trading trip by market; Source: Field Study (2009)

Figure 24. Number of relations of traders in destination country; Source: Field Study (2009)
Comparatively, Figure 25 and Table A23* indicate variation in the number of relations of traders among the four markets. The table further shows that the majority (64.3%) of traders from the four markets had between 1-2 relations in the destination country; 25 per cent had between 3-9 relations and relatively few (10.7%) had 9 or more relatives in the destination. The presence of relatives in foreign destinations, though few can be regarded as migration links that serve as an incentive for the mobility of traders from Nigeria to destinations outside the country, and possibly their eventual settling in such destinations as semi or permanent migrants.

Furthermore, Figure 25 shows variation in the numbers of relations of traders in the four sampled markets of ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba, and Balogun markets. This can be explained by the fact that relatives (Nigerians) to settle in the destination countries; depending on their entry and exit policies. For example, traders in Computer Village, with the highest number of relatives, are involved in the sale of computers and computer accessories, sourced majorly from Asian and South Asian countries – China, South Korea, United Arab Emirate etc. (destinations) with very liberal policies that support the movement of foreign traders and are within free trade zones.

3.2.5 Assistance Offered Traders

The form of assistance offered traders by either those, who helped arranged their first international trip or by relatives in the destination is shown in Table 12. These include making of connections with trading partners, providing trade connections and or assisting to locate companies, which account for 48.4 per cent of the traders. Another form of assistance is assisting with accommodation /transportation, 35.5 per cent; followed by ensuring timely
deliveries, sales and procurement (8.1%) and paying of bills (8.1%). A Chi-square test shows there is a significant difference in the assistance offered to traders on their first trip outside Nigeria, with $\chi^2 = 25.9$, df =10, and at $\alpha = 0.004$ significance level.

Table 12. Type of assistance offered traders on first international trading trip; Source: Field Study (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Assistance Relation Offered</th>
<th>International Traders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure timely deliveries, sales &amp; procurements</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing assistance to locate companies and make connections</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation, transportation</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay my bills</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The prominent form of assistance rendered by relations resident in targeted destination areas or by trading agencies is, therefore, significant, as traders on their first international trip outside Nigeria needed such assistance that would aid their knowledge of the new terrain; consequently, they were encouraged and tended to develop confidence and assurance of traveling to distant, outside destinations.

Bali (2009), on African traders in China reviewed the services rendered by different trading agencies in Guangzhou, China, as follows:

The services proposed to foreign buyers include guidance, interpretation and bargaining with Chinese factory bosses and other Chinese sellers, grouping and packing in warehouses, transportation in containers by shipping companies or by air-cargo and, customs clearance. Some of the agencies also propose delivery services in the county of reception or even accommodation for the buyers coming from abroad (they set up dormitories or small inn in the business buildings). Agencies usually have plenty of small-scale clients and they group their goods together in order to fill containers for the same destination.

Also, Bodomo (2009) analysed an emerging bridge for Africa in the case of Guangzhou, also known as “Chocolate city” because of the high presence of Africans, in which he argued that African trading communities act as a bridge spanning Africa and China. The bridge is in terms of language, for harmonious and beneficial relationships among themselves, and between their host community and their source community; furthermore, a human bridge that helps visiting traders is communication and interpretation between traders’ and the host
communities and partners. Bodomo found that majority of his respondents in the survey he conducted were Nigerians, and 43 per cent of his 77 respondents were mostly Igbo.

3.2.6 Facilitating Factors of First & Latest International Trips - Possession of Passport/Visa & Type of Visa Obtained

Table A24* indicates that virtually all international traders obtained an international passport (99.7%) for their trip, while slightly lower, but high percentage 97.5 per cent, also obtained a visa for their first trip. Figure 26 shows 89.2 per cent of the traders obtained a business visa for their first trip. But, the remaining percentage of traders that had other types of visa (10.6%) is distributed as: visitor’s visa (5.9%); transit visa (3.5%); residency visa (1.2%) or student’s visa (0.3%). Furthermore, Figure 26 indicates that the type of visa obtained varies among traders in the four markets.

The pattern is a reflection of the driving forces behind international traders’ trips and is quite revealing of other secondary motives besides trading, in particular for those that had student or visitor’s visa. Since 89.4 per cent of traders obtained a business visa on their first international trip, therefore, the remaining 10.6 per cent indicates those who turned to trading as a supplementary activity during their first trip outside Nigeria. There are times when peoples motives of travelling to their destination change on arrival, even when they possess a non-business visa.

![Figure 26. Type of Visa obtained by market; Source: Field Study (2009)](image)

At individual market level, as on Table A25* business visa features in all the markets, with over half of traders in Computer Village that held business visa (57.7%); followed by 18.9, 14.7 and 8.8 per cent for Alaba, Balogun and ASPAMDA markets respectively. But, all traders (100%), who obtained either student’s or visitor’s visa, were from Balogun market or Computer Village. In addition, 75 per cent of traders that obtained residency visa were from Computer Village and the remaining 25 per cent from Balogun market.

Also, majority of the traders had an international passport (99.4%) and a visa (98.4%) on their latest international trip, as shown on Table A26* and 3.36*. The high percentages are
indicators of the obvious; conformity to entry regulation of international countries that the traders patronised, and the fact that majority of international traders travel Asian and South-East Asia countries, with relatively liberal visa application policies, those of EU countries and the USA which are more demanding and are harder to secure.

Figure 27. Type of visa obtained by traders on latest trading trip; Source: Field Study (2009)

Table A27* shows the main types of visa obtained for the latest trip: business visa (91.3%). visitor’s visa (3.3%), transit visa (3.0%), residency visa (1.5%), and tourist visa (0.6%), and this time around, one of the traders had a diplomatic visa (0.3%). Also, Table A28* shows the breakdown on the basis of market.

Once more, the pattern reflects the major driving factor behind the latest trip that the traders made, which is trading. In addition, the very few of them (8.7%) with other types of visa, are persons whose initial motive of traveling was not to trade; but, they changed to trading on reaching the destination. Nonetheless, the majority with a business visa implies that the international traders would have had an almost unrestrained mobility to most where they could purchase commodities or products for sale.

Furthermore, Figure 27 shows that majority of traders from Computer Village obtained visitor’s visa on their latest trading trip. This can be explained by the fact a significant number of traders visited international ICT trade fares and in Europe and Asia, as alluded to by one of the discussants in the FGD in Computer Village:

In 2004, April, I went to Germany; in 2005 to Taiwan; in 2006 for ICT Trade Fare; in 2007 to Dubai to get things that one can easily transport by air, that is, goods that do not have weight; in 2008, it was the same thing and 2 weeks ago (2009) I went to the United Kingdom, using a visitor’s visa (FGD, Computer Village).
3.2.7 Experience at Immigration Check Points on First and Latest Trading Trips

The experiences of international traders at immigration check points at source and destination centres on their first and latest international trading trips vary and in general, were not too pleasant. Table 13 below indicates that virtually all the traders on the first (99.1%) and latest (98.8%) international trips passed through immigration check points, while the remaining minority, 1.2 and 0.9 per cent respectively passed through unofficial routes, that is, routes with no official check points within ECOWAS.

Also, Table 13 shows 66.4 and 68.3 per cent of traders on the first and latest trips respectively indicated their experience was ‘normal/interesting’, while the remaining 33.6 and 19.2 per cent respectively indicated that their passage through immigration check point was horrible or 12.5 per that described the latest trip as ‘long and boring’. A Chi-square test shows there is no significant difference in the traders’ experience at immigration check points during the two trips, with \( \chi^2 = 11.2, \) df = 8, at = 187 significance level.

In addition, the decrease in percentage from 33.6 to 19.2 per cent for traders who had a horrible experience on their first and latest trips respectively reflects the increasing civility of immigration official on both the Nigerian end and at major international border entry points.

In other words, the major pattern of traders that passed through immigration check points reflects that majority of them are engaged in legitimate business, which requires formal identification and genuine trade documents, such as visa and finances to carry out their trading activities.

Table 13. Experience at immigration checkpoint of international traders on first and latest trading trips; Source: Field Study (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passage through Immigration Checkpoint</th>
<th>First Trip</th>
<th>Latest Trip</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>98.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience at Immigration Checkpoint</th>
<th>First Trip</th>
<th>Latest Trip</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal/interesting</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>66.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Process and Boring</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horrible Experience</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>33.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nonetheless, the increasing security checks at all major international border entry routes is not unconnected with increasing concern about terrorism, which could have accounted for close to one-fifth of those that had horrible experiences at immigration check point. To corroborate this, FGDs and IDIs that were conducted confirm the harassment and embarrassment meted out to traders at the immigration checkpoint, in Nigeria and destination countries, as:

The Nigerian image in the international community is quite embarrassing. So in most cases, even if you are a genuine business man, the moment you leave the shores of this country and flash your green-white-green passport, you are a suspect (FGD, ASPAMDA)

Traveling difficulties are numerous: clearing in the port, immigration and custom officers, et cetera. One encounter I will never forget was in 2006, October. I traveled for one Business Summit in Taiwan. On getting there, we were given a kind of police that followed us from International Airport down to Taipei. When we were carrying out our mission (trading) for about one week, the man was following everybody. It got to the point that I was not myself again. Owing to previous experiences, his own idea was that when Nigerians go into another country, they don’t like to leave. When you are being policed to the extent that when you are thirsty and want to drink water he would ask others to wait so he can follow you. It is a challenge in any country once you say you are a Nigerian (IDI, Balogun Market).

It was quite hectic with our immigration officers here; where did you get the visa, how did you get it, what do you want to go and do over there; I had not learnt how to make transfer then except cash and carry (the Nigerian way). So I carried a lot of cash around, and I was stopped, searched and questioned all the time for carrying a lot of money (FGD, Computer Village).
CHAPTER 4: SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL DETERMINANTS OF PATTERNS OF INTERNATIONAL AND INTERNAL MOBILITY

This section covers the route/mode of transportation, frequency and length of stay and the destinations of the first and latest international and internal trading trips that traders made. The spatial mobility pattern of international traders is analysed separately from that of internal traders.

4.1 Routes and Frequency

4.1.1 Route/Mode of Transportation on First International Trading Trip

The major mode of transportation for the first international trip was by air, for 97.2 per cent of the international traders, as shown by Table 14. It is followed by land, or through official land border crossing (2.0%), by sea (0.9%) and by unofficial land border crossing points (0.3%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Route/Mode of Transportation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Air</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>97.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overland-through formal border crossing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overland-through informal border crossing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>358</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.2 Frequency and Period of First and Latest International and Internal Trips

Figure 28 shows that over two-thirds (46.6%) of international traders had travelled twice outside Nigeria; followed by 25.7 per cent of those who moved once, while 10.8 and 6.5 per cent respectively of the international and internal traders had moved thrice and four times. One tenth of them (10.3%) travelled as the need arose.
In the case of internal traders, Figure 28 reveals close to two-fifths (37.4%) traveled once in the last one year, while the percentages diminish as the frequency of travel increases; 31.8, 12.1 and 2.8 per cent of them travelled outside Lagos twice, thrice and four times respectively in the last one year. Also, over one-quarter (28.3%) of these traders travelled depending on prevailing conditions.

Table 15 reveals that the majority of traders had travelled twice for trading in the last one year, in ASPAMDA (38.5%), Computer Village (45.4%) and Alaba (62.5%), while the majority in Balogun market (43.5%) travelled once. However, the highest frequency of travel, that is, four times was recorded in ASPAMDA (7.7%), Computer Village (7.2%) and Balogun (5.4%); only Alaba has no record of four times. Over one-tenth of the traders travelled when the need arose in three of the markets, that is, 16.3, 11.1 and 10.3 per cent in Balogun, Computer Village and ASPAMDA respectively; the exception was Alaba market, with 6.3 per cent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Market</th>
<th>ASPAMDA</th>
<th>Computer Village</th>
<th>Alaba International Market</th>
<th>Balogun Market</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrice</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dynamics of Internal and International Mobility of Traders in Nigeria

Determinants of Mobility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Four Times</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>7.7</th>
<th>22</th>
<th>7.2</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>5.4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As the need arises</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The peak period for the first international trip, as indicated by Figure 29, is January to March, that is, the first quarter of the year, when over one-third (33.1%) of the traders. This is followed by April to June, with a little above one-quarter (26.9%), October to December (21.2%) and July to September (18.8%).

A probable explanation for the highest modal frequency of movement of international traders between January and March is stocking new products of goods shortly after the end of the year festive period. It is a common tradition to bring in new commodities at the beginning of a new year.

This scenario is different for the internal traders, for whom the peak period of making trading trips outside Lagos is between April and June, with close to two-fifths (39.8%) of the traders moving out for business. This is the period when internal trading peaks, as traders from Lagos distribute their new acquired products to destinations within the country, followed by the period, of January to March (32.5%) and distantly by July to September and October to December, with 16.7 and 10.2 per cent respectively.

Figure 29. Period of first trading trip outside Lagos and Nigeria by category of traders; Source: Field Study (2009)
However, the peak period for the first international trading trip varies among all the four selected markets, according to Table 16. ASPAMDA and Computer Village had over one-third of their traders (36.4%; 35.3%) going for their first trip between January and March, while majority of traders from Balogun (45.6%) and Alaba (35.0%) moved out between April and June.

Table 16. Period of first international trading trip; Source: Field Study (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Market</th>
<th>ASPAMDA</th>
<th>Computer Village</th>
<th>Alaba International Market</th>
<th>Balogun Market</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan-Mar</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr-Jun</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul-Sept</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct-Dec</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other periods of significance for first trading trip among the markets are between July and September for ASPAMDA (30.3%), April and June for Computer Village (27.5%), January and March for Alaba (30.0%) and Balogun (23.5%) markets.

However, there are changes in the peak period of the latest trip made by international and internal traders. The highest modal frequency for latest trading trip for international traders was between July and September, with 37.3 per cent, as Figure 30 reveals. This is because international traders travel out as early as July up to September, in order to stock pile commodities and to avoid the heavy international air traffic, often experienced close to the end of the year. This peak period is followed by 24.7 per cent of them that travelled between January and March, 21.9 per cent between April and June and 16.1 per cent between October and December.
International traders in three of the markets had their peak period of travelling for the latest trading trip between July and September, as indicated by Table 17: that is, for Computer Village (38.2%), Alaba (40.0%) and Balogun (35.4%). But in the case of ASPAMDA, the table reveals equal percentages of traders (26.5%) had their trip between April and June, July and September and October and December.

Another period of importance is January to March for ASPAMDA (20.6%) and Computer Village (25.6%), Alaba (21.2%) and Balogun (26.8%). The next period of note is April to June for Computer Village (23.5%), Alaba (20.0) and Balogun (20.7%).

As for internal traders, the case is a bit dissimilar to that of the international traders, as the period, of April to June had the highest modal frequency of trading trip, with 36.2 per cent of them moving outside Lagos for trading. This is followed by the period of July to September.
(30.9%), while periods of January to March and October to December distantly followed, with 17.0 and 16.0 per cent respectively.

4.2 Spatial Mobility Patterns

4.2.1 Spatial Mobility Pattern for First International Trading Trip

Table A29* and Figure 31 indicate that over half (53.4%) of international traders on their first trading trip went to destinations in East Asia; followed by those who went to West Asia (23.7%), and distantly to Northern Europe (6.6%) and West Africa (6.4%), in that order of importance. South America destinations (0.3%) received the lowest volume of traders from Nigeria, while North America had 3.1 per cent.

Consequently, the pattern of the region of destination of traders on their first international trading trip reflects the high volume of mobility of traders to the Asian sub-continent, as East Asia and West Asia destinations combined accounted for over three-quarters (77.1%) of traders on their first trip outside Nigeria. Countries that feature prominently in the Asian sub-continent are China (129), Dubai (76), Japan (32) and Hong Kong (18). Others are United Arab Emirate (UAE) (6), Taiwan (8), Singapore (3), India (4), Thailand (4) and Singapore (4). On the other hand, there exists a low level of business and trade transactions between Nigeria and the rest of Africa. In West Africa, Benin Republic and Ghana each with 9 traders, topped the list; followed by Algeria (3) and Zimbabwe, Cameroun and Sierra Leone, which each had one trader patronising the country. For Europe, Germany stands out, with 14 traders; followed by France (12) and the Netherlands (2). Spain and Italy each had one international trader that patronised the country. Also, the United States of America featured to some extent, with nine traders, while Brazil had just one trader.

In essence, the diverse destinations bring to the fore a new pattern that is quite different to the orthodox destinations, as reviewed earlier on. No doubt, this choice of destination by traders was based on the type of goods in vogue (ICT), the known places for the products, the profit maximisation and least cost efforts of the traders, among others. Together, the factors served as the driving force behind traders’ mobility between Nigeria and international destinations where business items were purchased.

Moreover, the destination pattern of traders on their first international trading trip differs by market as shown in Figure 32. About two-thirds of the traders that patronised East Asia (59.9%) were traders from Computer Village; followed by traders from Alaba (17.3%), Balogun (14.5%) and ASPAMDA (8.9%) markets.

Moreover, half of the relatively few traders that patronised destinations in South-Central Asia were from Alaba market and the remaining traders were from ASPAMDA (25%), Computer village (18.8%) and Balogun market (6.3%). On the other hand, all traders that patronised Western Europe were from Computer Village, and over half of the traders (55%), who went to Northern Europe, were from Computer Village. They are followed by Alaba market (35%), ASPAMDA (5%) and Balogun (5%).
Figure 31. Destination of first international trading trip; Source: Field Study (2009)

Figure 32. Destination of first international trading trip by market; Source: Field Study (2009)
In addition, majority (66.7%) of the traders, who patronised southern Europe were from Balogun market, while the remaining traders were from Alaba market (33.3%). For West African countries, about three-quarters (69.6%) of traders were from Computer Village; followed by traders from Balogun (26.1%) and Alaba markets (4.3%). Also, four-fifths (80%) of traders that patronised North American destinations were from Computer Village, while the remaining traders were from Alaba market (20%). In essence, traders in Computer Village patronised Asian countries most among the four markets. A Chi-square test for the first international trip reveals a significant difference in the destinations, with $\chi^2 = 450$, df=6, at $\alpha = $ significance level = .000.

The predominance of the Asian bloc in the mobility of traders on their first international trading trip can be explained by the fact that products from the Asian manufacturing countries tend to be cheaper and more accessible compared to those from the European region. Oruame ((Dubaiexporters.com; 2008) has listed the following nine points explaining why Dubai ruled Nigeria’s computer market, as:

1. UAE (United Arabs Emirates), of which Dubai is the major centre, has an almost zero custom duty
2. Dubai has well-supported infrastructure
3. The Government of the United Arab Emirates promotion of Dubai as meeting point for ideas and industries- made it a strategic warehouse for vendors and their major partnership for the sale of products and services to Africa and to the rest of the Arab World
4. PCs (Personal Computers) from Dubai continued to sell more than even what is on offer from the indigenous Nigerian PC assembly firms, who are assisted by the Nigerian Government in its PC mass acquisition program; tagged Computers for all Nigerian Initiative
5. UAE has several free trading zones- the largest being Jebel Ali Free Zone (JAFZ) in Dubai.
6. There was no taxation for many years
7. UAE has subsidised energy rates
8. UAE promotes full transfer of capital and profits on investment
9. Most brand name products are readily available in Dubai.
About the same idea is portrayed by Gulfnews.com, breaking news online, February 2004, and as follows:

West Africa is traditionally dependent on imports from Europe and North Africa. However, thousands of West African traders, mostly from Nigeria and Ghana, have been using Dubai for some time as a source market for essential commodities. They found Dubai most convenient due to the city being an economic hub, in which they can buy the necessary items on a single trip.

Also, extracts from FGDs and IDIs buttress the prominence of the region:

There was a time when there was a boom, in that, if you ‘settle’ some young boys with $5,000 you will see them going to Dubai the next day. People travel in order to expand their business. But because of economic recession, you discover that the volume to exportation will drop; hence, those who travel will not be many. Their number has reduced. I have been to United Kingdom but it is not a good business place (FGD, Computer Village).

The decision you take to go and buy in a particular place covers issues such as price, policies, etc. that bring about change. Actually, what is there is that before I joined this very trade, I was into motor cycle spare parts; later, I was selling clothes and I went to Thailand in 1997 for the first time; from there I went to Hong Kong. I came to Lagos in May 2003 and I joined this business of footwear. Do you understand? Since I joined it there are differences in items of trade: One time, I was trading adult shoes, which we mostly get from Dubai and I used to go to Dubai. …Why I stopped going to Dubai is because of flight money, ticket, custom. To bring goods, the charge is very high. And they banned the goods, so if you are going there it is an illegal trading. That is why I go back to canvas, sport wares and stopped going to Dubai. I started going to China because that is where you get cheap items. You get whatever you want and the flight ticket is cheap compared to that for other places. You can easily get connections because if you go to China, many companies are there. And you can even get the connection here in Nigeria because they have some China people here, who you can have your business connection with. You give them sample of what you want and they import it for you. You deposit some certain amount of money with them and it would be expended; based on the money you deposited (IDI, Footwear, Balogun Market).

Consequently, increasing numbers of traders from Nigeria tend to patronise Asia. In addition, the ‘Asian Tigers’ are involved in the manufacturing of a variety of products, unlike destinations in Western Europe and North America, where there is immense specialisation, with its attendant high cost. The quotes also bring out some challenges the traders are confronted with and economic strategies they employ, some of which reflect on dynamics of the spatial pattern.
4.2.2 Spatial Mobility Pattern for First Internal Trading Trip

Figure 33 shows the volume of internal traders on their first trading trip within Nigeria was relatively low (92), as against the larger volume of 358 for international traders. South-East geo-political zone was the dominant destination that the internal traders (67.4%) patronised within the country. It was distantly followed by Northern Nigeria (17.4%) and South-west Nigeria (15.2%).

The predominance of South-East zone is not unconnected with the growing importance of some cities as industrial centres and as main markets for some imported goods that have come through Port Harcourt, the second largest sea port after Lagos in Nigeria.

4.3 First Trading Trips

4.3.1 Length of Stay of International and Internal Traders on First Trading Trip and Market

Table 18 shows that majority (84.8%) of internal traders spent between 1 to 7 days on their first trip. This is in contrast to that for majority of international traders (41.5%), who spent between 8 to 14 days on their first trading trip outside Nigeria.
Generally, very few international (3.3%) and internal (1.1%) traders stayed beyond 30 days in their first ever trip; hence, traders’ duration of stay in locations of transaction is very short.

Furthermore, the overall average length of stay for both international and internal traders on their first trip is 17.11 days. However, Figure 34 depicts a noticeable difference in the average length of stay of the traders among the four markets, as follows: ASPAMDA (20 days); Computer Village (20 days), Alaba Market (11 days) and Balogun Market (9 days). ANOVA test shows there is significant difference between length of stay among the markets, with F =1.287, df= 3 and at α= 0.278.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Stay during first trading trip</th>
<th>International Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Days</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percent (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 -7)days</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8 - 14)days</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15 - 30)days</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 30days</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 34. Average length of stay of first trading trip by market; Source: Field Study (2009)

One plausible explanatory factor for the short period of stay for international traders is that the goods the international traders bought are standardised and only required a physical inspection for traders to choose from the variety of products available, an action that takes
only a few days, at most a month to accomplish. Other factors are facilitation role of links, inclusive relations, agents and prior communication before a trader embarked on the trip.

Comparatively, these figures can be judged against lower average number of days for internal traders, of 7.1 days on their first internal trading trip. Consequently, international traders tend to spend more time in the destination area than internal traders. While 41.5 per cent of international traders spent between 8 to 14 days on their first trip outside Lagos, just 9.8 per cent of internal traders spent the same period in destinations of their first trip. There is, therefore a significant difference in the length of stay of international and internal traders in destination of their first trip, with $\chi^2 = 201$, df = 42, at $a = .000$ significance level. The pattern can be explained by the factor of distance, as it takes a longer period to travel outside the country than to travel within the country, as it is the case with internal traders.

In essence, the relatively short period of stay for international mobile traders as against that of conventional migrants in general necessitated the premise for studying traders as mobile persons, irrespective of their length of stay and not as migrants. Mobility encompasses migration, that is, staying for a longer time, if need be. Traders’ mobility is relatively well-informed as opposed to the mobility of labour migrants. Consequently, as soon as their objective of transacting trade is completed the traders return to their base to sell their wares. Based on their short stay at the destinations, their mobility has not provoked as much an outcry as that for labour migrants.

### 4.3.2 Currency Used or Trading Transactions on First International Trip

The type of currency traders used on their first international trading trip varies from pound sterling to dollars, Euros, cedi, CFA, yen, and Yuan. Table A30* shows that majority of the traders (90.8%) used the dollar; followed by pound sterling (2.1%), cedi (2.1%), and euro (1.2%).

This is understandable, as the dollar is a medium of exchange in virtually all nations of the world; hence, the high degree of mobility of international traders from Nigeria is aided by this universal currency. Traders tend to move to destinations with a stable currency, as frequent fluctuations tend to affect the effectiveness of traders’ mobility.

### 4.3.3 Commodity Purchased on First International/Internal Trip by Category of Traders

The major commodity purchased on the first international trading trip reflects the commodity each category of traders specialises in. Table A31* indicates that the majority of the international traders (66.5%) purchased computers, GSM and accessories on their first business trip. Next are traders, who purchased electronic equipment (13.9%), auto spare parts (12.3%), textiles (5.1%) and household utensils (0.9%).

The items bought by internal traders tends to be similar to those bought by international traders, as computers, GSM and accessories (65.5%) and electronic equipment (27.6%) are the more purchased items in that order by internal traders in geo-political zones of the country that they patronised.
Also, the pattern highlights trader’s mobility behaviour reflects the nature of the product purchased. Most manufactured commodities are not sourced locally; but, are from international markets outside Nigeria; hence, the relatively high level of traders’ mobility to international markets, as expressed in the volume of international traders, who purchased manufactured commodities.

Furthermore, the major commodity purchased on the first trading trip reflects the commodity each of the four markets specialise in, as shown by Figure 35 and Table A32*. Majority of traders in ASPAMDA (83.8%) purchased auto spare parts on their first trading trip, and the remaining minority purchased electronic equipment (10.8%), household utensils (2.7%) and GSM and accessories (2.7%). This is in contrast to over half of traders in Computer Village (51.2%) that purchased computers and accessories; followed by GSM and accessories (28.2%), computers and GSM with their accessories (14.1%), textiles (1.7%) and imported food (1.7%). Also, very few traders from Computer Village purchased auto spare parts (1.0%), electronic equipment (1.0%) and household utensils (1.0%).

International trader destination of choice, tend to be influenced by the commodity produced in that destination. This is to say international traders move to destinations where commodities on high demand in their home country is produced and at relatively profitable price.

![Figure 35. Commodities purchased by traders on first international trading trip by market; Source: Field Study (2009)](image)

Moreover, Table A32* shows over four fifths of traders from Alaba (88.9%) purchased electronic equipment, as against the remaining one fifth that purchased computers, GSM and accessories (8.9%) and textiles (2.2%). However, traders in Balogun purchased more variety of commodities than traders in the other markets, as a slight majority of the traders (34.2%)
purchased electronic equipment, as against those who purchased textiles (28.9%), computers, GSM and accessories (28.9%) and auto spare parts (7.9%).

4.3.4 Routes/Passage for Importing on First International Trip by Market

International traders import the goods that they had physically moved to buy in locations outside Nigeria. The routes used by traders were airport, sea-port, and official land borders. The pattern of routes used, indicated by Table A33*, shows that all traders (100%) that imported goods by air on their first international trip into Nigeria routed the goods through Muritala Mohammed International Airport, Ikeja, in Lagos. This is understandable as it is the only international airport in Lagos; other international airports are in Kano, Port Harcourt, Calabar, Ilorin, Sokoto and Enugu. On the other hand, the major seaport used by traders to import their goods was Apapa Lagos seaport for 95.9 per cent of the traders and the remaining minority (4.1%) imported their goods through Cotonou, Benin Republic.

Nonetheless, the low percentage of traders that routed their imported goods through Cotonou is noteworthy; based on the fact that Benin operated a very liberal import tariff system in the late 1990s. Coupled with this was its fast system of clearing goods, as compared with the multiple import tariffs and long delays experienced by importers in Apapa seaport in Nigeria. This situation significantly influenced the pattern of traders’ mobility. However, in the last five years, that is, 2004 -2009, there had been tremendous improvement in the port tariff system and processes in Nigeria; hence, there is increasing use of Nigerian seaports for the importation of goods. This tends to explain the large percentage (95.9%) of traders who now route their goods through the Apapa port, as against the few (4.1%) who routed their goods through Cotonou port during the course of this study.

In addition, two official land borders were used by traders to import goods on the first international trip outside Nigeria, namely, Seme and Idiroko land borders, as indicated in Table A33*. The pattern shows that more than half of the traders (57.1%) routed their goods through Seme land border and the remaining traders (42.9%) routed their goods through Idiroko land border. The greater volume of goods and consequently trader mobility through Seme land border can be explained by the proximity of Cotonou seaport and Seme land border to Lagos State, when compared with the further location of Idiroko land border in Ogun State. In addition, greater import and export service infrastructure exists in Seme, as against the ones in Idiroko land border post and since most of the goods are imported manufactured goods, Seme border post has an obvious edge over Idiroko.

In more depth, the pattern of routes used for importation of commodities by traders in ASPAMDA, Computer Village, and Alaba and Balogun markets varies as depicted by Figure 36 and Table A34*. Majority of the traders in Computer Village (79.7%) imported their commodities by air via Muritala Mohammed International Airport; followed by traders in Balogun (11.2%), Alaba (5.9%) and ASPAMDA (3.2%).
About two fifths (42.1%) of traders, who used Apapa sea port, were from Computer Village; followed by traders in Alaba (30.1%), Balogun (14.2%) and ASPAMDA (13.7%). This is in contrast to half of the traders that imported their commodities via Cotonou sea port, that is, for ASPAMDA (50%) and Balogun (50%) markets. In terms of land borders, traders in Balogun market led in the use of Seme route, with 75 per cent, and the remaining percentage (25%) was for traders in Computer Village, while Idiroko border was equally shared by ASPAMDA (33.3%), Computer Village (33.3%) and Balogun (33.3%) markets.

The nature of goods that are imported, in terms of their fragility and weight tend to influence the means and route of importation. In addition, routes tend to be influenced by the ease and pace at which imported goods were cleared at the point of entry. For example, majority of traders in Computer Village (79.7%) imported their commodities, which are essentially computer and related accessories for safety reasons, due to the fragile nature of these products; hence, they use Murtala Mohammed Airport Ikeja, Lagos. This is in contrast to half (50%) of traders in ASPAMDA, who imported their goods, made up of essentially heavy auto spare parts and machinery through Cotonou seaport, where clearance of goods was adjudged faster, easier and attracted lower tariff, when compared to the sea ports in Nigeria.

**4.3.5 Major Challenges on First International Trip by Market**

Traders on their first international trading trip encountered a number of challenges, as shown by Table A35*. The greatest challenge encountered by traders on their first trip outside Nigeria was language barrier (36.4%); followed by fluctuating exchange rate (32.3%), bank charges (12.7%), separation from family members (9.7%) and multiple taxations (6.6%). The least was safety of destination or inadequate security (4.3%).

Language barrier topped the list, in particular for traders that patronised Asian destinations. Traders in general seemed to have overcome language barriers, as they engaged Asian contact-fellows or agencies in destination area. These contacts helped in language translation.
and documentation of trading transactions in the destination area. As Bodomo (2009) reported, the traders used calculators in communicating with the producers/sellers. Also, FGDs and IDIs reported that traders surmounted language barriers through the use of interpreters and calculators.

Moreover, the challenge of fluctuating exchange rate is more of a local or source region factor, than that of the trader and trading associates in the destination area. Consequently, the trading networks that develop between traders in Nigeria and their international counterpart tend to accommodate this challenge whenever it occurred. Almost the same scenario held for bank charges and multiple taxation, as these challenges seem to be passed on to goods that customers buy, in the form of scarcity of supply or higher prices.

By and large the main challenges for traders on their first international trade trip tend to have been eclipsed by existing favorable business environments in destination areas that enjoy the patronage of most traders. Therefore, destinations in East Asia were preferred.

![Bar chart showing major challenges encountered on first international trade trip by markets](image)

**Figure 37.** Major challenges encountered on first international trade trip by markets; Source: Field Study (2009)

In more depth, Figure 37 and Table A36* show traders in Computer Village tended to have encountered greater challenges, because their goods are usually go through greater scrutiny when they arrive at the airport, by immigration and customs, the goods being high technology items; coupled with the fact that airports are major transit routes for hard drug trade. It is in this regard and as a result of the latter reason that commodities imported by air are often checked by several security agencies, such as, the Drug Control Agency, Customs and the Standard Organisations of Nigeria. These are the responses of traders to the main challenges they encountered in the process of clearing their goods either at the airport, sea port or land route. Traders in Computer Village recorded the highest percentage for each of the challenges
out of the overall number of traders that reported on each of the challenges. Traders in Alaba market came second; followed by those in ASPAMDA and Balogun markets.

4.4 Latest Trading Trips

4.4.1 Routes Used in Latest International Trip

The pattern of routes used in the latest international business trip is as in Table A37* indicating that the majority (96.6%) of traders on the latest international business also traveled by air; 2.0 per cent through formal overland borders, 0.9 per cent by sea and 0.6 per cent through informal land borders.

The pattern can be explained by the fact that air travel is the fastest and most convenient mode of transportation, for majority of the international destinations are distant places; hence, the high percentage of 96.6 per cent of traders that traveled by air. The very low percentage of international traders that traveled overland (2.0%) through formal border reflects the major mode of transport for traders between Nigeria and its neighbouring countries in ECOWAS sub-region. In addition, trader mobility within the region is aided by the Protocol of Free Movement of Persons, Goods and Services across borders of member states.

4.4.2 Destination of Latest International Trip by Category of Traders

To buttress the continuity or otherwise of the international trading trips, the destination of the latest trip have increased for East Asia, from 53.4 to 54.5 per cent, and for West Asia from 23.7 to 24.9 per cent. Of significance is the fact that the conventional markets continue to trail behind. Inclusive are West Africa (5.4%), Northern Europe (4.1%) and North America (3.8%). Others are Central African destinations which had the lowest percentage, of 0.3 per cent. In other words, the pattern of the latest trading trips gives a glimpse of a new development.

Traders in the four sampled markets depict variation in the markets they patronised, as Figures 39, 40 and 41 and Table A38* indicate. Relatively fewer traders in ASPAMDA were involved in the latest business trip outside Lagos, as reflected in the percentages for the market, of 3.2 per cent for West Asia, South Central Asia (9.7%) and other African countries (3.2%), as against percentages for Computer Village, of 28.7 per cent for West Asia, and 40.9 per cent for East Asia.

In more depth, the major trip pattern indicates clearly the prominence of the Asian markets in the mobility behaviour of Nigerian traders. This sub-region is home to a variety of relatively cheap goods. Consequently, the favorable trading environment in Asia, in particular East Asia, as a major factor for the high mobility of traders on their latest trading trip to the sub-region.
The percentage of traders on their latest international trade trip to West Africa, even though low (5.4%), is significant as it reflects the facilitating factor of the Protocol of Free Mobility of Persons, Goods and Services of ECOWAS in the region and of the favorable political economic policies of the Benin Republic, as the country is said to be a ‘corridor’ through which Nigerian traders could transship their wares readily and at a cheaper cost (Afolayan, 1988; 2010).
In addition, Figure 40 and Table A38* depict variations in the volumes and destinations of traders from the four sampled markets on their latest trading trips. Over two-fifths of traders (41.9%) from Alaba market patronised East Asian markets, as against 32.2 per cent for Balogun. Similarly, a greater percentage of 32.2 per cent of international traders in Balogun market patronised East Asian destinations; followed by West Asia (10.2%), Northern Europe (5.1%), Southern Europe (3.4%) and West Africa (27.1%).

4.4.3 Spatial Mobility of Latest International Trip

The pattern of the latest trip of internal traders just slightly changed as the South-Eastern geopolitical zone was still in the lead (65.6%); followed by North-Central (20.0%), and distantly the South-West zone (14.4%).

The major destination of internal traders on their latest trip, as indicated in Figure 41, was South-Eastern geopolitical zone (65.6%); followed by North-Central (20.0%) and South-West zone (14.4%). A Chi-square analysis also shows a significant difference in the destination of internal traders on their latest business trip, with $\chi^2 = 328$, df = 13, $\alpha = .000$ significance level.
The high percentage of internal traders in the South-East zone, as indicated on Figure 41, can be attributed to the fact that the zone is a major local source of manufactured goods in the country where traders could purchase almost the same sets of imported goods that international traders purchase, re-package the imported goods and ‘made in Nigeria’ products for sale in Lagos and export to neighbouring West African states. Also, Port Harcourt, as the second largest sea port for Nigeria, is a major inlet for imported goods, while other eastern urban centres, including Aba and Onitsha industrial centres are also known for locally re-packaged and manufactured goods.
In conclusion, both internal and international traders patronise markets where they can purchase commodities, which they specialise in, and which they deemed would fetch them adequate profit, all things being equal.

### 4.4.4 Length of Stay on Latest International Trips by Market

The average length of days of the latest international trip is 12.6 days, which is shorter compared with 17.1 days for the first trip, as indicated by Table 19 and A40*. Also, the average for the four markets are relatively lower compared to those for the first trip; they are 17, 14 and 10 days, ASPAMDA, Computer Village and Alaba markets respectively, compared with 20, 20 and 11 days for the length of stay during the first trip.

Only traders in Balogun market retained its average length of stay of 9 days at the latest trading trip. The ANOVA statistics shows no significant difference in the length of stay for the latest trip among markets with \( F = 7.993 \), \( df = 3 \), at \( \alpha = 0.000 \) significance level.

The general pattern, shown by Figure 43 and Table A40* is that international traders spent more days in the destination area of their trade transaction than internal traders, who spent 6.3 days during their latest trading trip.
Table 19. Length of stay of latest international and internal trade trips; Source: Field Study (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Stay</th>
<th>Int’l Traders</th>
<th>Internal Traders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count (%)</td>
<td>Count (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 - 7) days</td>
<td>122 (30.3)</td>
<td>80 (87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8 - 14) days</td>
<td>195 (48.4)</td>
<td>7 (7.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15 - 30) days</td>
<td>80 (19.9)</td>
<td>5 (5.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(31 - 90) days</td>
<td>5 (1.2)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 90 days</td>
<td>1 (0.2)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>403 (100)</td>
<td>92 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pattern can be explained by the fact that internal traders’ mobility is completely within Nigeria, and all zones or parts of the country can be reached and business transacted within a week, at most a month if the business is massive and would involve long distance haulage.

4.4.5 Commodities Bought on Latest Trading Trip by Category of Traders

The pattern of the commodities bought on the latest business trip outside Lagos by international and internal traders is shown in Table 20. One striking feature is the dominance of food items, which majority of the international traders (40.2%) bought on their latest business trip; followed by computers, GSM and accessories (26.1%) and auto spare parts (18.6%). The increase in the purchase of food items on the latest trip can be explained by the fact that the traders might have learnt they could supplement sales of their main commodity with that from food items, which are invariably desired more of the time. Consequently, they
have learnt they could keep themselves active and in business during the relatively lull period of sale for technical goods.

The other commodities purchased trail behind, with 9.9, 2.9 and 1.0 per cent respectively for household utensils, textile materials, footwear and electrical equipment.

Furthermore, the pattern for internal traders is almost similar, with some differences in percentages and ordering of computers and accessories (29.1%) in the lead; followed by traders, who bought food items (24.1%), auto spare parts (16.1%). Others follow suit as: household utensils (3.4%), textiles (2.3%) and electrical equipment (1.1%).

In essence, computers, GSM and accessories is the second most bought commodity after food items for international traders on their latest trip and vice versa for internal traders, which shows some change in the direction of more food importation compared to computers, GSM and accessories. A Chi-square test also shows there is a significant difference in the
commodity bought by internal and international traders on their latest business trip, with $\chi^2 = 186.6$, df = 66, at $\alpha = .000$ significance level.
CHAPTER 5: PERCEPTION OF TRADERS ON BENEFICIARY OF INTERNAL AND INTERNATIONAL TRADING

5.1 Federal Government Benefitting from International Trading

The commercial sector is a major sector that contributes to the overall development of Nigeria. The findings, according to Table A41*, reveal that majority of the international traders perceived that the Nigerian government gains from their trading activities through taxes levied on them (98.8%); import duties and tariffs (67.3%) and market dues (46.2%), which they have to pay to different government institutions. About the same scenario holds with internal traders, of 91.9 per cent of them accenting to benefits in form of taxes, 56.3 per cent for market dues and the only drop in percentage (7.8%) being on import duties and tariffs.

In sum, the Chi-square test shows there is a significant difference in the benefits perceived by the international and internal traders respectively for perceived benefits that the government makes on taxes, import duties and tariffs and market dues. However, the chi-square values, of $\chi^2 = 21.98; 238.166$ and $6.807$ respectively and their significance levels, of 0.000; 0.000 and 0.009 respectively indicate significant differences in the perceptions of international and internal traders on each of the issues.

5.2 Traders Benefitting from International Trading

However, majority of the traders are of the opinion that the relationship between benefits that traders derive from the Nigerian Government and benefits the government derives from them is not reciprocal or balanced. Table A42* shows majority of the international and internal traders (82.7%; 87.7%) do not benefit from the Nigerian government or were indifferent as to whether or not the government aided their economic activities. Consequently, the percentage is very low for either the international or internal traders, who indicate they benefit from the government, in terms of security of goods, environmental sanitation and welfare (6.3%; 2.7%) and social facilities, such as roads, police, airport, and education (9.1%; 8.4%).

Nonetheless, both the international and internal traders readily appraise positively the benefits they would derive from international mobility, as 35.8 and 42.0 per cent respectively indicated that mobility in trading has enlarged or would enlarge their world views. Also, 78.3 and 66.8 per cent of the two categories respectively showed it has enlarged their business network; increased their income (73.2%; 86.4%) and or has made them desirous of expanding their business (46.1%; 27.0%). In addition, about a fifth of each of the two categories of
traders (19.9%; 20.4%) indicates their commercial mobility outside or within the country has made them imbibe new cultural traits.

A Chi-square test shows significant difference in the benefits perceived by international and internal traders for enlargement of business network, increased income, and of their being desirous of expanding business outside or within Nigeria. Nonetheless, there are significant differences in the perceptions of international and internal traders on each of the issues, as the chi-square values for each of the issues considered are 11.406, 17.128, and 24.175 respectively, with df = 1, and at significance level = .001, .000, and .000.

However, their perceptions on benefits of trading within and outside that they have, in terms of enlarged world views and learning and imbibing new cultural traits are not significantly different for international and internal traders; based on higher values of the significance levels, of 0.099 and 0.852 as against 0.005, of their chi-square values.

5.3 Host Government Benefitting from International Trading

From the international traders’ perspectives, the destination countries also stand to gain from their business trips overseas. This is based on the percentages recorded for those who felt their international mobility leads to the boosting of the destination country’s economy, which is mostly through foreign exchange earnings (89.3%). Other ways by which the traders expressed this opinion are: through growth in the destination country’s economy (5.5%), increases in the destination country’s revenue (3.2%) and through the creation of employment (0.9%), as indicated on Table A43*.

5.4 Nigeria Benefitting from International Trading

Moreover, the international traders’ assessment of the impact of international trips on Nigeria’s economy is good. As Table A44* indicates, 61.8 per cent of them perceive it increases the nation’s revenue generation; enables globalisation of products and interaction with different markets (11.3%); creates employment opportunities (8.4%); and ensures technology transfer (5.5%). However, a note of dissent that is worth mentioning is 8.1 per cent of the international traders stated that investors are not attracted into the country due to poor infrastructural development. Also, very few of them (4.9%) stated that international trade has led to import of substantial goods.

5.5 Prospects of International Trading/Mobility and Government’s Policies

Very few of the traders, 3.9 per cent, stated the government’s economic policies have not encouraged investors to set up in the country. Their view is primarily based on their knowledge on poor infrastructural development of the country. Also, 29.4 per cent of them
felt local investors/producers have been encouraged. Other negative appraisals that they made are that most economic policies of the Nigerian government adversely affect traders (28.1%), and inconsistencies in the government’s policies (21.1%), multiple taxation, high import duties and clearing delays (15.0%) discourage trading locally.

Nevertheless, very high percentages of the international traders hoped to continue buying goods from outside the country (97.0%). The percentage of internal traders that planned to buy goods from outside the country; (92.3%) is also very high, indicating a international trading and mobility will be on the increase, as shown in Table A45*.

The international and internal traders gave the following reasons for hoping or planning to trade outside the country, as on Table A46*: to make more profit with the better opportunities international trading offers (57.0%; 73.3%); items of trade are not produced locally (24.9%; 14.7%); better quality and cheaper goods are available outside the country (8.6%; 7.8%); outside countries have better infrastructural facilities and better economic policies (7.4%; 3.1%) and that there is no encouragement for industrial growth in Nigeria (2.1%; 1.2%). However, a Chi-square test indicates the hope or plan of the two categories of traders differed significantly, with $\chi^2 = 7.851; \text{df} = 1$ and at $\alpha = 0.005$ significance level. The reasons they give for their hope/plan also differ significantly, with $\chi^2 = 20.651, \text{df} = 4$ at $\alpha = 0.000$ significance level.

### 5.6 Traders’ Suggestions on Improvement on International Trading

Table A47* shows the suggestions of international and internal traders respectively on the following: improvement of infrastructure (28.1%; 23.7%), power supply (20.3%; 31.5%) and reduction of tariff and stabilisation of the exchange rate (15.0%; 10.4%). Other suggestions that they made are: encouragement of local investors/producers (8.3%; 5.2%), establishing good governance, stop bribery and corruption (7.4%; 6.3%) and making available credit facility with low interest rate (6.7%; 7.0%). Furthermore, they suggested multiple taxation problems should be addressed (5.1%; 5.6%), port decongestion and clearing of goods be done speedily (4.1%; 3.7%), regulation of imports in order to prevent dumping of substandard goods on the country (3.2%; 4.8%) and making naira, the local currency, stable (1.8%; 1.9%). However, the Chi-square test does not show any significant difference in the suggestions of international and internal traders, with $\chi^2 = 16.229, \text{df} = 9$ at significance level 0.062.

In essence, the perspectives of the international and internal traders reveal the high importance that they attach to trading within and outside the country. This is understandable as they are the direct benefactor of the positive gain. In addition, international traders are aware of benefits of trading internationally much more readily than internal traders.
CHAPTER 6:  RECONCEPTUALIZING MOBILITY - CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PROJECT

6.1 Summary of Activities Carried out & Data Collected towards Bridging Data Gap on Human Mobility

6.1.1 Methodology

The methodology adopted is one major contribution towards bridging the gap in knowledge on human mobility. It involved selection of market traders, who are known for mobility. The study, therefore, adopted a multi-stage stratified random sampling technique in sourcing primary data from internal and international traders in four specialised markets within Lagos metropolis, Nigeria that are known for mainly imported goods. These are ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba, and Balogun markets.

Also, the primary data sources that were contacted are varied. They are oral interviews, Focus Group Discussions (FGD) and In-Depth Interviews (IDIs).

6.1.2 Data Collected

The data that were collected assist in validating the aims and objectives of the research, as follows:

A. Socio-economic Characteristics of Internal & International Traders

(i) The mean age of the traders is high. The mean age is 38.8 years for all the traders and 38.8 and 40.7 years, respectively for internal and international traders. The same applies to the four sampled markets, that is 41.9, 38.7, 39.6 and 36.2 years respectively for ASPAMDA, Computer Village, Alaba and Balogun markets, even though their mean ages vary significantly.

(ii) Male traders (86.5%) dominate the total sampled population and the same applies to internal (85.2%) and international (88.6%) traders. Masculinity could, therefore be adduced as a factor promoting relatively long-distance trading, in particular international trading.

(iii) Majority of the traders are married; be they international (84.9%) or internal (67.8%) traders. The same applies to the four selected markets, of ASPAMDA (91.8%),
Computer Village (85.7%), Alaba (77.6%) and Balogun (53.4%). However, there is significant difference in the marital status of traders in the four markets.

(iv) Marital status is a reflection of the level of maturity and experience that operations of the traders, in particular international traders that transact business in more distant locations outside the country and in goods require: in terms of higher capital, all things being equal, compared to the situation of internal traders.

(v) Majority of traders, be they international (78.9%) or internal (81.2%), are from the South-East geo-political zone of Nigeria that is home to Igbo ethnic group. This is an ethnic group that has been noted for their entrepreneurship and engagement in long-distance trading and commerce. The same pattern applies to marketers in ASPAMDA (87.5%), Computer village (71.1%), Alaba (93.3%) and Balogun (82.4%). However, there is significant difference in the place of origin of traders in the four sampled markets.

(vi) Majority of the traders (58.3%) had secondary education, be they international (52.4%) or internal (67.9%) traders. Traders that had tertiary education are prominent among international traders (42.2%), compared to 25.2 per cent of internal traders with this educational qualification. The latter characteristic points to the fact that the international traders require higher level of awareness and general ability to interact and communicate at global level.

B. Processes of Internal and International Mobility and Trading Activities

(i) Social networks predominates facilitation of international mobility; some of forms of social networking are newly developing. They comprise international trade partners (34.3%), export agencies (30.8%), e-commerce (1.5%), Chambers of Trade and Commerce (0.8%) and masters (0.5%) compared to the conventional ones, of friends (22.7%), self-sponsored (7.8%), relatives/family members (1.5%).

(ii) Family influenced the start off of trading considerably (23.0%), even though perceived lucrative nature of business is more important, as given by 26.3 per cent of internal traders.

(iii) Socio-cultural affinity facilitated trading, as masters-mentors, who are not necessarily related to traders by blood assisted international (47.6%) and internal (58.7%) traders to start to trade. Other sources of help for starting were friends (20.3% and 14.1% respectively for international and internal traders), mentors/masters (9.5%; 8.1%), while self-sponsored (3.2%; 1.2%) and kinsmen (6.7%; 0.4%) feature less.
(iv) Majority of international traders were in possession of a business visa (89.2%) and passed through formal immigration check points (99.1%) during their first international trading trip.

(v) Over half (53.4%) of international traders on their first trading trip went to destinations in South-East Asia; followed by those to West Asia (23.7%). Notably, Northern Europe (6.6%) and North America (3.1%) are not prominent destinations of choice. Specific South-East Asian destination countries of choice are China, Dubai, Japan, and Hong Kong, in a decreasing order of importance.

(vi) South-East Asian countries, as preferred destinations are perceived better markets for sourcing cheaper, manufactured goods and at relative ease of accessing them when compared to destination in either Northern Europe or North America.

(vii) Traders’ spatial international mobility behaviour is a socio-cultural and economic phenomenon. It is influenced by challenges, of language barrier (34.4%), fluctuating exchange rate (32.3%), bank charges (12.7%), and separation from family members (9.7%), multiple taxation (6.6%) and security concerns (4.3%) at destination of choice. The latter two challenges featured more at source than at destination countries.

(viii) Traders’ evaluation of mixed experiences they had at immigration check points during their first and latest international trips do not constitute enough negative, push factor in traders’ mobility.

(ix) Traders’ mobility is frequent; with 46.6 per cent of international traders having moved twice; followed by those who moved once (25.7%), thrice (10.8%) and four times (6.5%) in the year preceding the time of survey. Also, traders’ mobility is time-determined: international traders’ mobility peaks between July and September, while April to June is the period for internal traders.

(x) The average length of stay of traders in destination of their choice is short. The figures for the first and latest trading trips are higher for international traders on their first and latest trips (17.1 days & 12.6 days respectively) than they are for internal traders (7.1 and 6.3 days respectively).

(xi) Main challenges encountered on the first international trading trip are not decisive enough for discontinuing international trading. Language barrier topped the list, in particular for traders that patronised Asian destinations; traders overcome the barrier with the services of Asian contact fellows or agencies in the destination area in subsequent trips and in the use of calculators.
Destinations of first and latest international trading trips reflect dynamism. Percentages of traders increased for East Asia, from 53.4 to 54.5 per cent and for West Asia, from 23.7 to 24.9 per cent respectively. Also, spatial and temporal changes are noticeable in the case of first and latest internal trading trips of internal traders: for South-East geo-political zone destination (from 67.4% to 65.6%); North-Central (from 17.4% to 20.0%) and distantly South-west zone (from 15.2% to 14.4%).

C) Perception of Traders on International Trading Benefitting Mobility and Trade

(i) International traders perceived the Nigerian government gains from their trading activities through taxes levied on them (98.8%), import duties and tariffs (67.3%) and markets dues (46.2%), which they have to pay to different government institutions. Also, 91.9 per cent of internal traders perceived the Nigerian government’s benefits from international trading, in form of taxes, market dues (56.3%) and import duties and tariffs (7.8%).

(ii) Majority of international and internal traders (82.7%; 87.7%) respectively) claimed they do not benefit from government; therefore, they were indifferent as to whether or not the government aided their economic activities.

(iii) Both international and internal traders readily appraise positively the benefits they derive from international mobility, as 35.8 and 42.0 per cent respectively indicated that mobility for trading has enlarged or would enlarge their world view. However, their perceptions of benefits, of enlargement of business network, increased income, and desirous of expanding business outside or within Nigeria vary significantly.

6.2 Conceptualisation of Migration

The contribution of the project to the conceptualisation of dynamics of human mobility is deductive; based on the above highlighted data.

(i) Trader mobility is a super-ordinate of migration

- Trading is mobility over space, as traders need to relocate to places of transaction.
- Traders’ mobility is a targeted process.
- Traders’ mobility is frequent; dictated by market conditions.
- Traders’ mobility is for short period.

(ii) Traders’ mobility is dictated by varied factors
• Traders evaluate exogenous factors, of social, economic, political and environmental factors in the light of their need; drawing on endogenous features of traders.

• Urbanisation and globalisation are on-going determinants that further propel spatial and temporal patterns of traders’ mobility.

• Traders’ international mobility is determined by entry and exit conditions of both the source and destination countries.

• Traders’ mobility is affected by bilateral agreements and establishment of Free Trade Zones (FTZs).

(iii) Traders’ mobility is a dynamic spatial and temporal process

• Traders’ mobility evolves from trading locally to trading internationally.

• Traders’ mobility is drawn by the largeness of urban markets.

• Traders’ mobility is drawn far beyond the local urban market to bigger world market

• Traders’ mobility increases over time with increasing, sustained positive factors.

(iv) Traders’ mobility is a socio-culturally determined phenomenon

• Traders’ mobility is age and sex selective

• Socio-cultural affinity facilitates internal traders’ mobility.

• Social networks facilitate international traders’ mobility

• Social groups develop in both internal and international markets over time.

6.3 Contributions of Findings to Migration Studies and Migration Theory

The major contribution of the project to the overall MacArthur Programme and the IMI Programme is re-conceptualisation of migration; based on primary empirical research that yielded necessary data for the exercise. This brings out clearly the need to modify the concept of migration in order to make it compatible with the nature of human mobility in the country and in Africa and globally as well. The concept of mobility is also to be regarded as a revolutionising concept, as it covers much larger volume of moves than migration; inclusive circulatory, repetitive moves that traders make in a year.
Furthermore, the revolutionising concept presents human mobility as a process to be reckoned with. Economic life in a city, such as Lagos, stimulates human mobility towards the centre and from it to other parts of the country and far beyond the country. The initial phases of migration witnessed the pull of the large market of the city, on people, goods and services within and across the world and also encourage movement across the world. Subsequently, mobility sustains economic activity that is engages quite a lot of people than the conventional professional/administrative sector of the economy. The linkages and destinations that mobility of the former category of labour generates are relatively new and diverse from that of the latter.

Another contribution along this line of thought is that the study enabled us to understand better the flux between mobility and migration and to study internal mobility as an antecedent to international mobility of traders. The analysed dynamics of traders’ mobility reflected the changing processes and patterns that evolved, over space and time, as traders make their decision to move on various factors, and do so with different identities and varied strategies. In most cases, international traders set out with the expectation of buying and or selling in order to make a profitable venture within the shortest time possible. In some other cases, they start off as apprentices internally in the country or workers in the formal sector, to become international mobile traders; or as visitors, migrants in transit, or students only to become international traders.

Moreover, the political economy of Nigeria and development of ICT in newly developed world are turning many Nigerian-would-be emigrants to international trading, either as the primary activity, or as a supplementary, secondary economic activity. Also, the study has enabled us to examine the transformation of their status from circulatory movers to even a reversal of their status to non-movers that depend on the network of traders that they have built up over time.

The study has, therefore, made for the understanding of developing mobility patterns, in terms of the adaptation of new economic survival strategies, duration of stay and metamorphosing of mobile traders from visitors, tourists’, migrants in transit, into temporal and permanent traders (evidenced in secondary data source cited) over time. It has answered the questions on the characteristics of international traders compared with those for internal traders; locations/markets that international and internal traders patronise, the processes and factors involved in their migrations, and of dynamics in their spatial and temporal behaviours.

Furthermore, the three distinctive features of traders present them as having special qualities that make their spatial and temporal mobility behaviours different from those of labour migration in general. The duration of their stay is short; the average length of stay of international traders being relatively longer than that for internal traders; for as soon as they achieve their goal (trading), they return to their base in the country, in preparation of another move. However, continued mobility can be expected, since it is essential for traders’ survival. Therefore, the conventional definition of migration is too restrictive; tending to cut off the
study of mobility of less duration, an economic activity of immense importance and occurrence in the country, Nigeria and in the continent, Africa.

The findings also buttress the fact that some determinants, such as migration policy, treaties/protocols and globalisation are other externalities in the change of human mobility status - from visitors, immigrants, or transit migrants – to international traders.

Moreover, the almost circulatory nature of the mobility of traders is desirable for proponents of migration-friendly policies. This is because it raises a relative low public outcry in contrast to the feelings against labour migration, in particular brain drain, which is perceived as a loss to the source country and or as contending with the interest of workers and tax payers in destination country.

Individuality, as the third distinctive feature of international traders, is depicted as the individual mobile traders take intelligent actions; protect their interests and expectations. The individuality of the mobile traders brings out their intellectual capacity in carrying out certain actions that promote their economic survival strategies; based on the information available to them and the ‘power structure’ of the society they belong to; in this case, the known and acknowledged trading acumen of Igbo in Nigeria. The social network that is in existence serves as a ‘power structure’ in apprenticeship, ‘setting-up’ or providing of initial capital and contacts, the choice of destination, insertion of the traders in their host communities and group bulking, among others.

6.4 Areas of Future Research

The main area of future research is the challenge that re-conceptualising migration brings up. The components of the proposed system model that would adequately represent the salient factors seem difficult. Another herculean fit is to comprehend the interrelatedness of components in such a way that an appropriate descriptive framework can be designed for studying in particular human mobility in Africa, inclusive of Nigeria; thereby, develop new theoretical framework for global migration research.

6.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the project has raised an awareness of trading, as an important aspect of human mobility and the need for a comprehensive picture of components of human migration. These should be sustained and pursued towards an advancement of knowledge on human mobility. Also, it is to get us to the stage of focusing on this aspect of human mobility. Consequently, the phenomenon will be better documented and the development of an appropriate framework for human mobility will be ensured.
REFERENCES


**APPENDIX I: Surveys**

Survey of the Dynamics of International Migrant Traders in Lagos, Nigeria

**Introduction**

We are carrying out a survey of traders in Lagos in four selected markets namely: Auto Spare Parts and Machinery Dealers Association (ASPMDA) Market, Alaba International Market, Balogun Market and Computer Village, Ikeja. The survey is carried out by academicians from the University of Ibadan, University of Lagos and Lagos State University. The survey is an academic research project, aimed at studying the dynamics and pattern of international/internal migrant traders. Also, the survey is towards effective ways of improving trading activities within and outside the country. We are, therefore, soliciting for your cooperation in answering the questions below.

Your answers, views and information would be treated as highly confidential. Thank you.

*Interviewer Please Note: Tick or write in full where appropriate*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section A: Social and Economic Characteristics of Respondent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>Sex:</strong> (1) Male (   ) (2) Female (   )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>Marital Status:</strong> (1) Single/Never Married (   ) (2) Married (   ) (3) Widow/Widower (   ) (4) Divorced/Separated (   ) (5) Others (Specify).................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Spouse’s Occupation</strong> ..................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Religious Faith:</strong> (1) Christianity (....) (2) Islam (....) (3) Traditional Religion (4) Others (Specify) ........................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Age</strong>.................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <strong>Education status:</strong> (1) Primary (   ) (2) Secondary (   ) (3) Tertiary (   ) (4) No Formal Education (   )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <strong>Specify number of years spent in formal schooling:</strong> ..................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <strong>Country of Origin:</strong> ..........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. <strong>Name of Place of Origin:</strong> .......................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. <strong>L.G.A of Place of Origin</strong>..........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. <strong>State of Origin:</strong> .................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. <strong>Were you born in Lagos?</strong> (1) Yes (   ) (2) No (   )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. <strong>If you were not born in Lagos, when did you become a resident in Lagos?</strong> <em>(Specify Year)</em>.............................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section B: Basic Detail of Trading Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. <strong>Is trading your main occupation?</strong> (1) Yes (   ) (2) No (   )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. <strong>If trading is not your main occupation, what other work(s) do you engage in that earn(s) you an income?</strong> .................................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. <strong>If trading is your main occupation, who helped you to start the trading?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Friend (   ) (2) Spouse (   ) (3) Mentor (   ) (4) Master (   ) (5) Relatives (   ) (6) Kinsmen (   ) (7) Others (Specify).........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. <strong>State the form of help you received from the person who assisted you.</strong> <em>(Multiple Responses Allowed)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Financial (   ) (2) Training (   ) (3) Advice (   ) (4) Religious (   ) (5) Others (Specify)..................................................................................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
18. State the location of the person that offered you assistance to start trading
(1) Within Lagos State (   ) (2) Outside Lagos State (   ) (3) Outside Nigeria (   )

19. What is the average number of hours you spend on trading activities daily? ..............

20. Do you own the trading business? 1. Yes (   ) 2. No (   )

21. If you do not own the business, are you employed to run the business? 1. Yes (   ) 2. No (   )

22. If you own the business, state type of ownership: (1) Individual ownership (   ) (2) Partnership (   ) (3) Family business (   ) (4) Others (Specify) ...........................................

23. If you own the business, what are your reasons for going into trading?
(Multiple Responses Accepted)
(1) No employment (   ) (2) For the love of the business (   )
(3) Influence of the family (   ) (4) To supplement income (   )
(5) It is lucrative (   ) (6) It affords me the opportunity to go places (   )
(7) Others (Specify) ............

24. If you own the business, from where do you source the capital to run your trading business?
(Multiple Responses Accepted)
(1) Personal savings (   ) (2) Parent’s assistance (   )
(3) Spouse’s assistance (   ) (4) Friends’ assistance (   )
(5) International trading partners (   ) (6) Bank loan (   )
(7) Government assistance (   ) (8) Others (Specify) ...........................

25. Do you own your business premises? 1. Yes (   ) 2. No (   )

26. If you do not own the premises, how much rent do you pay per year? ............................

27. Do you belong to any trading association? 1. Yes (   ) 2. No (   )

28. If you belong to an association, what is the name of the association? ............................

29. What benefit(s) do you derive from the association?
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................

30. How does your association benefit from your trading?
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................

31. In what commodity do you trade currently? (Multiple Responses Accepted)
(1) Textiles (   ) (2) House hold utensils (   ) (3) Automobile/Machinery spare part (   )
(4) Electronic and household equipment (   ) (5) Imported food commodities (   )
(6) Computers and accessories (   ) (7) GSM Phones and accessories (   )
(8) Others (Specify) ........................................................................

32. Indicate the countries from which your major customers come from. (Multiple Responses Accepted)
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................

33. Indicate the states in Nigeria from which your major customers come from. (Multiple Responses Accepted)
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................

34. If you purchase your goods from outside Nigeria, how often did you travel for business in the last one year?
(1) Once (   ) (2) Twice (   ) (3) Thrice (   ) (4) Quarterly (   )
(5) Others (Specify) ............................................

35. On the average, how long does your trading trip last?
(1) Less than a week (   ) (2) Less than 2 weeks (   ) (3) 1 month (   ) (4) Others (Specify) ....
36 Which places or countries have you visited to carry out your trading activities in the past one year?
( Specify) (Multiple Responses Allowed) 

37 Why do you carry out business outside Lagos?

Section C: First International Business Trading Trip

38 When did you make the first international trip outside Nigeria for trading activities?
Year ............. Month .............

39 Where was your first international trading trip outside Lagos?

40 How long were you away from Nigeria during your first business trip? (Specify Number of Day(s)/Month(s))

41 What commodities did you buy on that first trip? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Textiles ( ) (2) Household utensils ( ) (3) Automobile/Machinery spare part ( )
(4) Electronic and household equipment ( ) (5) Food ( )
(6) Computers and accessories ( ) (7) GSM Phones and accessories ( )
(8) Others (Specify) ..........................................................

42 How was the process of your first international trade trip arranged? (Multiple Responses Allowed) Through:
(1) Friends ( ) (2) International trade partners ( )
(3) Chamber of Commerce ( ) (4) Import and export agents ( )
(5) E-commerce ( ) (6) Others (Specify) .....................

43 Did you have any relation in the country of your last purchase? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

44 If Yes, how many were they? ..............................................................

45 What assistance did they offer your business?
..........................................................................................................

46 If your original aim in your first trip was not to trade, why did you take to trading?
(1) As a supplementary source of income ( )
(2) Failed dreams (unable to meet expectation) ( )
(3) Increasing demand for the commodity ( )
(4) Availability of commodity in the country of destination ( )
(5) Others (Specify) ..........................................................

47 How did you travel?
(1) Air ( ) (2) Sea ( )
(3) Overland-through formal border crossing ( ) (4) Overland-through informal border crossing ( ) (5) Others (Specify)

48 If you travelled through informal border, give reasons ........................................

49 Did you carry an international passport for the journey? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

50 Did you obtain a visa for the journey? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

51 If you obtain a visa for the journey, what sort of visa did you have for the trip?
(1) Transit visa ( ) (2) Tourist visa ( )
(3) Student visa ( ) (4) Residency visa ( )
(5) Diplomatic visa ( ) (6) Business visa ( )
(7) Visitor visa ( ) (8) Others (Specify) ..........................................

52 Did you pass through immigration checkpoints? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

53 If yes, what was your experience? ................................................................

54 In what currency did you conduct your first international trade transactions?
Dynamics of Internal and International Mobility of Traders in Nigeria

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(1) Dollar ( ) (2) Euro ( )
(3) Pounds ( ) (4) Cedi ( )
(5) CFA ( ) (6) Yen ( )
(7) Yuan ( )
(8) Naira (.....) (9) Others (Specify)………………..

What were the major challenges you encountered on your first trip? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Bank charges ( ) (2) Fluctuating Exchange rate ( ) (3) Multiple taxation ( )
(4) Language barrier ( ) (5) Insecurity (.....) (6) Separation from the family
(7) Others (Specify)

How did you bring in goods you imported? Through: (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Airport ( ) Name Location…………..
(2) Seaport ( ) Name Location…………..
(3) Land ( ) Name Location…………..

Section D: Latest International/Internal Business Trading Trip

When did you make the latest trip outside Lagos for trading activities?
Year ……………. Month ………………….

Where was your latest international/internal trading trip outside Lagos?

How long were you away from Lagos during your latest business trip? (Specify Number of Day(s)/Month(s)………………………

What commodities did you buy on the latest trip? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Textiles/Clothing ( ) (2) Foot ware (3) House Hold Utensils ( ) (3)
Automobile/Machinery Spare Parts ( ) (4) Electronic and Electricals ( ) (5) Foods ( ) (6)
Computers and Accessories ( )
(7) GSM Phones and Accessories ( ) (8) Others (Specify)…………………………..

How did you travel?
(1) Air ( ) (2) Sea ( )
(3) Overland-through formal border crossing ( ) (4) Overland-through informal
border crossing ( ) (5) Others (Specify) ………………………………………………………

If you traveled through informal border, give reasons…………………………..

Did you carry an international passport for the journey? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

Did you obtain a visa for the journey? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

If you obtain a visa, what sort of visa did you have for the trip?
(1) Transit visa ( ) (2) Tourist visa ( )
(3) Student visa ( ) (4) Residency visa ( )
(5) Diplomatic visa ( ) (6) Business visa ( )
(7) Visitor visa ( ) (8) Others (Specify)……………………

Did you pass through immigration check points? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

If yes, what was your experience?

In what currency did you conduct your latest international trade transactions?
(1) Dollar ( ) (2) Euro ( )
(3) Pounds ( ) (4) Cedi ( )
(5) CFA ( ) (6) Yen ( )
(7) Yuan ( ) (8) Naira (.....) (9) Others (Specify)………………..

How did you bring in goods you imported? (Multiple Responses Allowed) Through:
(1) Airport ( ) Name Location…………..

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Appendix

(2) Seaport ( ) Name Location………..
(3) Land ( ) Name Location………..

71 How was the process of your latest international trade trip arranged?
Through:
(1) Friends ( ) (2) International trade partners ( )
(3) Chamber of Commerce ( ) (4) Import and export agents ( )
(5) E-commerce ( ) (6) Others (specify)………………………

72 What were the major challenges you encountered on your latest trip? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Bank charges ( ) (2) Fluctuating Exchange rate ( ) (3) Multiple taxations ( ) (4) Language barrier ( ) (5) Insecurity (…..) (6) Separation from the family (8) Others (Specify)

Section E: Changing Trading Pattern Outside Nigeria

73 Are you currently trading in the same commodity as when you started?
1. Yes ( ) 2. No ( )
74 If you are not trading in the same commodity, what type of goods did you change to?
(1) Textiles ( ) (2) Household utensils ( ) (3) Automobile/Machinery spare part ( )
(4) Electronic and household equipment ( ) (5) Imported food commodities ( )
(6) Computers and accessories ( ) (7) GSM Phones and accessories ( )
(8) Others (Specify)……………………………………………………………

75 If you have changed to a new commodity, for how long have you traded in the new commodity?
(1) Less than 1 year ( ) (2) 1-5 years ( )
(3) 6-10 years ( ) (4) 10-15 years ( )
(5) 16-20 years ( ) (6) Over 20 years ( )
76 If you have changed your major commodity in the last one year, where was your former country of destination and where did you change to?
Former country………………………………………………
Country changed to……………………………………………
77 What situations necessitate such a change? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Changing Political Economy ( ) (2) Instability in exchange rate ( )
(3) Government Policy ( ) (4) Fall in demand ( )
(5) High cost of commodity ( ) (6) Low profit margin ( )
(7) Others (Specify)………………………………………………

78 Have you had more than one business trip outside Nigeria to purchase your goods of trade?
(1) Yes (2) No
79 If you had more than one business trip outside Nigeria, have all your business trips been to just same destination?
(1) Yes (2) No
80 If you had more than one trip outside Lagos/Nigeria and not in the same destination, kindly list three (3) destinations to which you have been and the goods you purchased

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trip</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Commodity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st trip</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd trip</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3rd trip

81 If your 2nd destination is different from the 1st, why did you make the change?
   (1) Better availability of goods ( )
   (2) Cheaper price ( )
   (3) Cheaper transportation ( )
   (4) Better travel requirements ( )
   (5) Better quality of commodity ( )
   (6) Better security ( )
   (7) Change in government policy ( )
   (8) Others (Specify)……………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………

82 If your 3rd destination is different from the 2nd, why did you make the change?
   (1) Better availability of goods ( )
   (2) Cheaper price ( )
   (3) Cheaper transportation ( )
   (4) Better travel requirements ( )
   (5) Quality of commodity ( )
   (6) Better security ( )
   (7) Change in government policy ( )
   (8) Others (Specify)……………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………

83 How do you obtain goods you purchase? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
   (1) Pulling resources together ( )
   (2) Friends who travel abroad ( )
   (3) Business acquaintances ( )
   (4) International trading partners ( )
   (5) Order by post, phone, internet ( )
   (6) Others (Specify)……………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………

Section F: Socio-Political Environment and International Trading
84 How does the Nigerian Government benefit from your trading? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
   (1) Taxes ( )
   (2) Import duties and tariffs ( )
   (3) Market dues ( )
   (4) Others (Specify)……………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………

85 What benefits do you derive from the Government? ………………………………………

86 In what ways have you benefited from international trading? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
   (1) Enlarged my world views ( )
   (2) Enlarged my business network ( )
   (3) Increased income ( )
   (4) Learnt and imbibed new cultural traits ( )
   (5) Made me desirous of expanding my business outside Nigeria ( )
   (6) Others (Specify)…………………………………………

88 In your opinion, does international trade have any significant impact on country of destination? ………………………………………

89 In your opinion, does international trade have any significant impact on Nigeria? ………

90 In your opinion in what ways do you think government’s economic policies have affected international trade? ………………………………………

91 As an international migrant trader, do you plan to continue buying goods for sale from outside Nigeria? (1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( )

92 If Yes or No, state your reasons……………………………………………………………………

93 In your opinion, what are your suggestions to government to improve trading activities in Nigeria?……………………………………………………………………

THANK YOU
Dynamics of Internal and International Mobility of Traders in Nigeria

Appendix

Survey of the Dynamics of Internal Traders in Lagos, Nigeria

Introduction
We are carrying out a survey of traders in Lagos in four selected markets namely: Auto Spare Parts and Machinery Dealers Association (ASMDA) Market, Alaba International Market, Balogun Market and Computer Village, Ikeja. The survey is carried out by academicians from the University of Ibadan, University of Lagos and Lagos State University. The survey is an academic research project, aimed at improving our knowledge on the dynamics of international/internal migrant traders. Findings from this survey would also provide data for policy making on international/internal migrant traders in Lagos. We are, therefore, soliciting for your cooperation in answering the questions below. Your answers, views and information would be treated as highly confidential. Thank you.

Interviewer Please Note: Tick or write in full where appropriate

Main Questionnaire

Section A: Social and Economic Characteristics of Respondent
1. Sex: (1) Male (    ) (2) Female (    )
2. Marital Status: (1) Single/Never Married (    ) (2) Married (    ) (3) Widow/Widower (    ) (4) Divorced/Separated (    ) (5) Others (Specify)……………………………
3. Spouse’s Occupation …………………………..
4. Religious Faith: (1) Christianity (……) (2) Islam (……) (3) Traditional Religion (4) Others (Specify)……………………………………………………………
5. Age……………………….
6. Education status: (1) Primary (    ) (2) Secondary (    ) (3) Tertiary (    ) (4) No Formal Education (    )
7. Specify number of years spent in formal schooling: ………………………………
9. Name of Place of Origin: …………………………………………………………………………
10. L.G.A of Place of Origin………………………………………………………………
12. Were you born in Lagos? (1) Yes (    ) (2) No (    )
13. If you were not born in Lagos, when did you become a resident in Lagos? (Specify Year)………………

Section B: Basic Detail of Trading Activities
14. Is trading your main occupation? (1) Yes (    ) (2) No (    )
15. If trading is not your main occupation, what other work(s) do you engage in that earn(s) you an income?…………………………………………………………………………………………
16. If trading is your main occupation, who helped you to start the trading? (1) Friend (    ) (2) Spouse (    ) (3) Mentor (    ) (4) Master (    ) (5) Relatives (    ) (6) Kinsmen (    ) (7) Others (Specify)…………………………………..
17. State the form of help you received from the person who assisted you. (Multiple Responses Allowed) (1) Financial (    ) (2) Training (    ) (3) Advice (    ) (4) Religious (    ) (5) Others (Specify)……………………………………………………………………
18. State the location of the person that offered you assistance to start trading (1) Within Lagos State (    ) (2) Outside Lagos State (    ) (3) Outside Nigeria (    )
19. On the average, how many hours do you spend on trading activities daily? ………………………
20. Do you own the trading business? (1) Yes (    ) (2) No (    )
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>If you do not own the business, are you employed to run the business? (1) Yes (   ) (2) No (   )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>If you own the business, state type of ownership: (1) Individual ownership (   ) (2) Partnership (   ) (3) Family business (   ) (4) Others (Specify) ..........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>If you own the business, what are your reasons for going into trading? (Multiple Responses Allowed) (1) No employment (   ) (2) For the love of the business (   ) (3) Influence of the family (   ) (4) To supplement income (   ) (5) It is lucrative (   ) (6) It affords me the opportunity to go places (   ) (7) Others (Specify) ..................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>If you own the business, from where do you source the capital to run your trading business? (Multiple Responses Allowed) (1) Personal savings (   ) (2) Parent’s assistance (   ) (3) Spouse’s assistance (   ) (4) Friends’ assistance (   ) (5) International trading partners (   ) (6) Bank loan (   ) (7) Government assistance (   ) (8) Others (Specify) ..........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Do you own your business premises? 1. Yes (   ) 2. No (   )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>If you do not own the premises, how much rent do you pay per year? ........................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Do you belong to any trading association? 1. Yes (   ) 2. No (   )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>If you belong to an association, what is the name of the association? ....................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>What benefit(s) do you derive from the association? ................................................................</td>
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<td>..........................................................................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>How does your association benefit from your trading? ...............................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>In what commodity do you trade currently? (Multiple Responses Allowed) (1) Textiles (   ) (2) Household utensils (   ) (3) Automobile/Machinery spare part (   ) (4) Electronic and household equipment (   ) (5) Foods (   ) (6) Computers and accessories (   ) (7) GSM Phones and accessories (   ) (8) Others (Specify) .................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Indicate the countries from which your major customers come from. (Multiple Responses Allowed) .................................................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Indicate the states in Nigeria from which your major customers come from. (Multiple Responses Allowed) ..........................................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>How often did you travel out of Lagos for business in the last one year? (1) Once (   ) (2) Twice (   ) (3) Thrice (   ) (4) Quarterly (   ) (5) Others (Specify) ...........................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>On the average, how long does your trading trip last? (Specify Number of Day(s)/Month(s)) ........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Which places or countries have you visited to carry out your trading activities in the past one year? (Specify) (Multiple Responses Allowed) ..........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Why do you carry out business outside Lagos ..............................................................................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section C: First Internal Business Trading Trip**
38 When did you make the first trip outside Lagos for trading activities?
Year………………………………….Month……………………………
39 Where was your first internal trading trip outside Lagos?………………………………………
41 How long were you away from Lagos during your first business trip? (Specify Number of
Day(s)/Month(s))…………………………………………………………………………………………
41 What commodities did you buy on that first trip? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Textiles ( ) (2) House hold utensils ( ) (3) Automobile/Machinery spare part ( )
(4) Electronic and household equipment ( ) (5) Foods ( )
(6) Computers and accessories ( ) (7) GSM Phones and accessories ( )
(8) Others (Specify)…………………………………………………………………………………………

Section D: Latest Internal Business Trading Trip

42 When did you make the latest trip outside Lagos for trading activities?
Year………………………………….Month……………………………
44 Where was your latest internal trading trip outside Lagos?………………………………………
45 How long were you away from Lagos during your latest business trip? (Specify Number of
Day(s)/Month(s))…………………………………………………………………………………………
46 What commodities did you buy on that last trip? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Textiles/Clothing ( ) (2) Foot ware (3) House Hold Utensils ( ) (3)
Automobile/Machinery Spare Parts ( ) (4) Electronic and Electricals ( ) (5) Foods ( ) (6)
Computers and Accessories ( ) (7) GSM Phones and Accessories ( ) (8) Others
(Specify)……………………………………………………………………………………………

Section E: Changing Trading Pattern within Nigeria

47 Are you currently trading in the same commodity as when you started? (1) Yes ( )
(2) No ( )
48 If you are not trading in the same commodity, what type of goods did you change to?
(1) Textiles ( ) (2) House hold utensils ( ) (3) Automobile/Machinery spare part ( )
(4) Electronic and household equipment ( ) (5) Imported food commodities ( )
(6) Computers and accessories ( ) (7) GSM Phones and accessories ( )
(8) Others (Specify)……………………………………………………………………………………………
49 If you have changed to a new commodity, for how long have you traded in the new
commodity?
(1) Less than 1 year ( ) (2) 1-5 years ( )
(3) 6-10 years ( ) (4) 10 -15years ( )
(5) 16-20 years ( ) (6) Over 20 years ( )
50 If you have changed your major commodity in the last one year, where was your former
place of destination and where did you change to?
Former place…………………………………………………………
Place changed to……………………………………………………
51 What situations necessitate such a change? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Changing Political Economy ( ) (2) Instability in exchange rate ( )
(3) Government Policy ( ) (4) Fall in demand ( )
(5) High cost of commodity ( ) (6) Low profit margin ( )
(7) Others (Specify)……………………………………………………………………………………
52 Have you had more than one business trip outside Lagos to purchase your goods of trade?
(2) Yes (2) No
53 If you had more than one business trip outside Lagos, were all your business trips to just the
same destination? (1)Yes………… (2)No………..
If you had had more than one trip outside Lagos and not to the same destination, kindly list three (3) destinations to which you have been and the goods you purchased

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trip</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Commodity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st trip</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd trip</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd trip</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If your 2nd destination is different from the 1st, why did you make the change?
(1) Better availability of goods ( ) (2) Cheaper price ( ) (3) Cheaper transportation ( )
(4) Better travel requirements ( ) (5) Better quality of commodity ( ) (6) Better security ( )
(7) Change in government policy ( ) (8) Others (Specify) …………………

If your 3rd destination is different from the 2nd, why did you make the change?
(1) Better availability of goods ( ) (2) Cheaper price ( ) (3) Cheaper transportation ( )
(4) Better travel requirements ( ) (5) Quality of commodity ( ) (6) Better security ( )
(7) Change in government policy ( ) (8) Others (Specify) …………………

How do you obtain goods you purchase? (Multiple Responses Allowed) Through:
(1) Pulling resources together ( ) (2) Friends who travel abroad ( )
(3) Business acquaintances ( ) (4) International trading partners ( )
(5) Order by post, phone, internet ( ) (6) Others (Specify) …………………

Section F: Socio-Political Environment and Trading

How does the Nigerian Government benefit from your trading? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Taxes ( ) (2) Import duties and tariffs ( )
(3) Market dues ( ) (4) Others (Specify) …………………

What benefits do you derive from the Government? ………………………………………

What benefits do you think you can derive from international trading if you are into it? (Multiple Responses Allowed)
(1) Can enlarged my world view ( ) (2) enlarged my business network ( )
(3) Increase my income ( ) (4) Learn new culture ( )
(5) Make me desireous of expanding my business outside Nigeria ( )
(6) Others (Specify) …………………………………………………

As an internal migrant trader, do you plan to buy goods for sale from outside Nigeria?
(1) Yes ( ) (2) No ( …………………………………………………

If you plan to buy goods for sale from outside Nigeria, state your reasons ………………………

In your opinion, what are your suggestions to government to improve trading activities in Nigeria? ……………………………………………………………………………

THANK YOU