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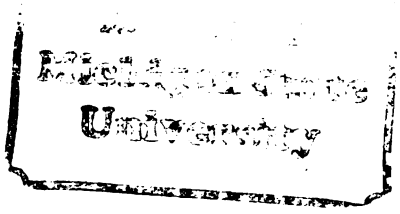

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ABSTRACT

FACTORS RELATED TO MIGRATION PLANS
AMONG MALE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS
IN A RURAL AREA OF LIBYA

presented by

Ramadan Senussi Bel-Hag

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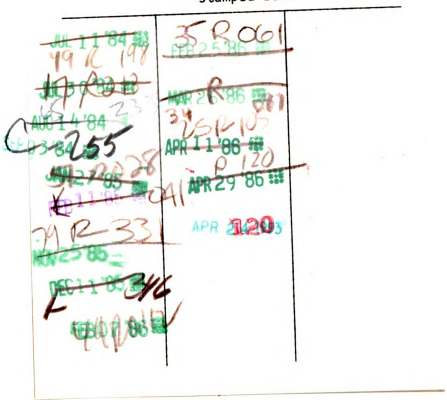

FACTORS RELATED TO MIGRATION PLANS AMONG MALE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN A RURAL AREA OF LIBYA

By

Ramadan Senussi Bel-Hag

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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ABSTRACT

FACTORS RELATED TO MIGRATION PLANS
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Despite the widespread recognition of rural-urban migration as a problem in most developing countries, research has tended to follow the same approach of that of the developed nations, namely, the study of migration from demographic, economic and ecological points of view. Thus, most of the research has emphasized the role of "push" and "pull" factors, and demonstrated the dominance of economic and social forces as causes of migration. On the other hand, subjective factors related to migration have not been highlighted in research, and very little has been done on the attitudes associated with migration.

This study, therefore, is an attempt to examine some of the attitudinal factors involved in the decision making process as related to migration intention on the part of young people from a rural area in Libya. This area has suffered high rates of out-migration for the last twenty years. Given the fact that the country is going through a transition from traditional to a modernized society resulting in the need for professional, skilled and highly trained personnel, many young people have been stimulated

to seek higher education and to aspire to social mobility. Therefore, the migration decision is viewed from the individual's point of view. Four variables are examined in predicting and explaining the migration plans of rural adolescents who have not yet selected a permanent occupation and a permanent place of residence. These variables are: (1) educational and occupational aspirations; (2) community satisfactions; (3) family obligations; and (4) community evaluation.

Should to look at the variables to be examined

The migration variable I will be looking at

Examination of previous research suggests that these four variables are closely related to migration plans. In addition to these findings, however, it was expected: (1) that the instrumental aspirations (educational and occupational aspirations in particular) would be more highly correlated with migration plans than any of the other variables; (2) that low community satisfactions and negative evaluation of the community social provisions would lead to plans to migrate irrespective of whether educational and occupational aspirations could be achieved locally; and (3) that high levels of family obligations would lead to plans to remain in the home community irrespective of whether educational and occupational aspirations could be fulfilled locally.

It is also expected that these variables are structured by the social position of the respondent in the community. That position is assumed to be influenced by: (1) cultural orientation of the respondent's family; (2) social status of the respondent's family; and finally (3) the respondent's birth order.

Data for this study were obtained from 503 male high school students through self-administered questionnaires. The students resided in the Nafusa Mountain area of Libya. Informants at this stage of the life cycle are involved in occupational and migration decision-making.

Empirical findings from this research clearly support most of the hypotheses. Contrary to expectation, however, low regard for community relationships and social provisions as well as high family obligations did not counteract the effects of educational and occupational aspirations in regard to migration. In addition, the hypothesis concerning the respondent's birth order was not supported.

DEDICATION

TO THE SOUL OF MY FATHER

TO MY MOTHER

TO BASHIR, NASSER AND SUAD

whose sacrifices and patience
made the completion of my
graduate study possible.

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CHAPTER I

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AS RELATED TO MIGRATION IN LIBYA: A HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

INTRODUCTION

The focus of this dissertation is on the decision-making process leading to migration or to non-migration on the part of young people in a rapidly modernizing country. The data were obtained from male High School students living in the relatively remote, non-urban part of western Libya. In order to understand the current pattern and process of migration, it is essential that the recent social and economic history of Libya is set forth. This, then, is the goal of the first chapter.

A unique set of geographical features and a past composed of successive domination by foreign powers have been the significant formative elements in Libya's history. The country, covering some 685,000 square miles, extends from the central Mediterranean coast of North Africa across the Sahara to the highlands of north-central Africa. Libya is considered to be the fourth largest country on the African continent. Tripoli and Benghazi are easily the closest all-year harbours for Mali, Niger and Chad in their trade with Europe. Libya is a link between Africa and Europe, and indeed is the natural trading route between these continents, a role played throughout history in which Libya was known as the Gateway of Africa and the

Middle East. It embodies the traditions of these two sections of the Arab World.

The Mediterranean and the Sahara Desert are the two geographical features that have most affected Libyan development, and it has been the country's misfortune that their effects have been so disproportionately strong. The Mediterranean influence predominates only along two narrow coastal enclaves, whereas the Sahara holds sway over the rest of the country, giving rise to the related problems of aridity, a meager supply of ground water, torrid temperatures and frequent droughts. Only 5 percent of the total land area is economically useful, and only 1 percent is regarded as suitable for permanent cultivation.

Until 1951, Libya had experienced independence for only 300 years, and that in the period from 1200 B.C. to 900 B.C. From the end of this period to 1951, the country was under foreign domination. The Turkish-Italian war of 1911-12 brought an end to the period of Turkish control. Bound together by the Islamic religion, Libyans and Turks fought together against the Italians. The Italians were unable to suppress Libyan resistance until 1932, when the Italians succeeded in occupying all of Libya. It was in control of the entire country for only seven years before Libya came under British control in 1943. In 1951, Libya gained independence. For the first time in its history, Libya had its own government, but it had neither the human and material resources nor the institutional base to function as a viable economic unit.

Libya's brief history as an independent state, as one Libyan scholar puts it "reads much like a tale from Arabian Nights, born

a poor orphan in the wake of World War II" (El Fathaly et al., 1977:1). Nearly any indicator of economic development that one chooses demonstrates that Libya was one of the poorest and most backward countries in the world at the time of independence (Lindberg, 1952:32). Libya was described by Benjamin Higgins as the

> prototype of a poor country...the bulk of the people lived on a subsistence level...no sources of power and mineral resources, where agricultural expansion is severly limited by climate conditions, where capital formation is zero or less, where there is no skilled labor supply and no indigenous entrepreneurship... Libya is at the bottom of the range in income and resources (1968:26).

In 1952, per capita income was estimated at $30 per annum. Given this low income, the levels of nutrition and health were very poor. In this same year, the birth rate among Libyans was 5.3 percent per annum. The natural rate of population growth was kept down to 1.1 percent by a death rate of 4.2 percent, which reflects an extremely high death rate (Higgins, 1953:4). A high infant mortality rate was related to the poor quality and level of diet and nutrition. At the time of independence, studies revealed that the percentage of total family expenditure for food amounted to 80 percent for city dwellers (Lindberg, 1952:31).

Following the discovery of massive oil resources in the late 1950s, Libya was dramatically transformed by its petroleum wealth into one of the richest nations in the world. Per capita income in 1960 for example was $100 but suddenly rose to $5,178, and in 1981 it is estimated to be more than $5,359 (Ministry of Planning, 1976).

In 1980, Libya was exceptional among developing countries in having a capital surplus rather than a capital deficit economy. The

Cinderella of the developing world in the 1960s and the 1970s, Libya has risen meteorically from deep poverty at the time of independence in 1951 to great wealth at the present time. Furthermore, the possibility exists that there may be even greater wealth in store in terms of mineral deposits. As a consequence, Libya in the 1970s stood as an anomaly among Third World countries, a relatively underpopulated state with a very strong economic clout. In 1978, Libya was no longer included in the list of developing countries by such international agencies as the World Bank (IBRD, 1979). Rather it was defined as a capital surplus nation.

The nation's post independence social and economic progress can be divided into three periods, the first being the time from independence until oil was discovered. In the second period, the start of oil exports in 1961 moved it out of the "have not" into the "have" column among the world's economies. The First of September Revolution in 1969 marking the start of the third period is characterized by the creation of a balanced economy.

The economy at the time of independence was based essentially upon agriculture, which was divided more or less evenly between field crops and livestock products. Agriculture provided the raw materials for much of the country's industrial sector, and for export and trade. The agriculture sector in its two branches absorbed more than 70 percent of the labor force and contributed about 30 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP).

The second period preceding the discovery of oil changed dramatically the face of the first period. The outstanding characteristics

of the economy within this period are the transformation of the country from stagnant to rapidly growing, and the predominance of the oil sector in the Nation's economy. The increase in oil revenue and its ratio to total revenue, accompanied by an unfortunate decrease in other sectors of the economy, especially agriculture which was neglected. Agriculture, according to Attiga "was left to stagnate in its low level of development, and the consumer turned to the world markets for the purchase of his daily food" (Attiga, 1973:9). Wealth, however, does not produce social, economic and political modernization. As the early history of Libya's oil boom illustrates, excessive unguided wealth tends to generate corruption, waste, massive rural to urban migration and the decay of the agricultural sector.

Some developmental specialists believe that development in countries such as Libya should not be based on oil alone. Instead, the oil revenues should be utilized to dramatically broaden the base of the Libyan economy by creating other industries and by modernizing and expanding the existing agricultural potential. Thus the economy can be diversified (El Malakh, 1973:28-46).

In light of the above recommendation, the third period is characterized by a radical social and economic change. The revolutionary leaders drastically reordered the development priorities established by the previous regime by placing strong emphasis on the development of the agricultural sector, the development and diversification of industry and the general lessening of the dependence of the economy on the oil sector. The five year (1976-1980)

development plan projected that the oil sector would account for less than 50 percent of the national income. Similar transformations have also been projected in the social arena. Health care, housing and education are guaranteed to all Libyans. Recent laws provide for the mandatory education of children up to the Junior High School age and compulsory adult education programs for individuals in selected occupations (El Fathaly et al., 1977:2).

The focus of the next section of this chapter is to discuss the social and economic changes that Libya went through and the implications of these changes for the process of migration. The discussion will be limited to the second and third periods only since they are of greater importance to the subject of this dissertation.

The Period Following the Oil Discovery: 1961-1969

The country's prospects for development were far from bright in 1951. Recurring environmental problems told part of the story. Literacy was almost non-existent and poverty was extreme, as evidenced by the per capital income. No industrial base had been developed and the availability of mineral resources was thought to be extremely limited. This situation prevailed until the early 1960s, and until 1961 Libya was greatly indebted for its economic and political viability to the international donors who participated in programs of technical and financial aid.

With the discovery of oil the bleak picture of the period following independence changed dramatically. As previously suggested, the Libyan economy was transformed from a stagnant to a rapidly growing economy, with petroleum predomiant (El Fathaly et al., 1977: 16).

The dramatic development of the oil industry also opened new vistas for national development. This was reflected in the government budget and national economy. Within a few years, Libya had become one of the world's largest exporters of crude oil and had moved from the status of a capital-deficit nation to a capital-surplus nation and from an aid recipient to an aid extender (El-Malakh, 1969:308).

As the oil revenues began to mount and the prospects for continued growth were excellent, the government moved quickly to modernize the infrastructure, develop the country's social overhead, and to improve the living conditions.

The First Five-Year Social and Economic Development Plan

The 1963-1968 development plan was the first comprehensive socio-economic plan ever to be taken by an emerging nation, and it was the first to be introduced in Libya's history. The plan was designed to spend about $922 million over a period of five years. As seen in Table 1, this plan heavily emphasized the infrastructure, including power, transport and municipal improvements. Infrastructure absorbed 44 percent of the total amount budgeted, compared with 9.5 percent for agriculture, 8.5 percent for education, 5.5 percent for industry, 3.5 percent for public health and 11 percent for housing. It is evident that agriculture and industry did not receive high proportions of the development allocations. Instead, public work received the largest allocations.

Table 1

The first five-year social and economic development plan (1963-1968)

(In millions of US dollars)

Sector of Development	Total Expenditure	Percentage of Total
Public Works	211,288,000	23
Transport and Communication	195,823,000	21
Housing	103,600,000	11
Agriculture	88,169,200	9.5
Industry	47,465,600	5.5
Economy and Trade	10,029,600	1
Education and National Guidance	80,668,000	8.5
Health	34,042,400	3.5
Labour and Social Affairs	55,048,800	7
Culture and Information	11,032,000	1
Planning and Development Studies	48,946,800	5.5
Interior Affairs	34,300,000	3.5
Other	1,890,000	-
Total	922,303,400	100.0

The lack of emphasis on agricultural and industrial development affected these two important sectors negatively and led to their gradual decline by the middle of the five-year plan (1965-66). The

money allocated for industry, however, did not even carry this sector to the take-off stage, as described by Rostow (1956).

Despite notable allocations of oil revenues into the programs and projects, the sudden infusion of so much wealth into the economy was difficult to absorb. The country's narrow industrial base, small labour force and limited administrative machinery were hard pressed to implement such a comprehensive program in so short a time. The first plan "demonstrated among other things, the shortsightedness and poor planning and management capabilities of the government agencies" (El Fathaly et al., 1977:18).

Per capita income as an indicator of modernization (development) was estimated to have increased about 600 percent over this period, or from about $262 in 1962 to approximately $1,840 in 1968, as compared with figures from the first period of $30 to $40 from the year of independence until oil was discovered. It should be noted, however, that the figures of the latter period, although they increased dramatically, do not reflect the inequalities in income distribution that lie behind these average figures (NYROP et al., 1973).

Despite the large amount of wealth generated by oil revenues, and the amount of money allocated by the first plan for welfare and development, conditions of life for the bulk of ordinary Libyans remained untouched in many areas. Only a small segment of the population has benefited from the new wealth. Distribution of this wealth has been far from uniform, even taking into account the distributive effort of government development programs. It was estimated that until late 1968 only 50 percent of the total income accrued to some

10 percent of the population. As late as 1966 it was estimated that one-third of the population lived in primitive conditions. The government estimated that in 1966 about 11,200 households including more than 49,000 people, were located in caves while 296,000 people (70,242 households) inhabited shanties. At the same time, about 65,000 families, including approximately 313,000 people, were estimated to live in tents and were presumably nomadic. Furthermore, between 1961 and 1969 the gross national product (GNP) increased by 289 percent but the income of the bottom 90 percent of the population increased only 90 percent in the same period.

The Impact of Oil on the Economy

The first oil exports took place in 1961, and the revenues generated by this wealth in that year totaled $3.2 million but by 1969 they exceeded $1.1 billion. This increase in oil revenues reflected a ten-fold increase in the GNP, a nine-fold increase in the gross national product (GNP). Exports grew from almost $12 million in 1961 to better than $2,796 million in 1969 while imports increased from $207 million to an estimated $779 million. Non-oil exports declined from 100 percent to less than 1 percent of total exports for the same period.

During this decade Libya became a classic example of a dual economy, in which two separate economies (oil and non-oil) operated side by side. No connection existed between them except that the oil sector employed limited quantities of local labour. The non-oil sector consists of two types of economies. On one hand, there is a predominantly primitive rural economy supported by nomadic livestock,

breeders and subsistence farmers. On the other hand, there is a growing small industry and market economy, which acts as a powerful magnet to the rural population. Thousands of Libyans have left the rural hinterland for the urban centers. It has been estimated that while Libya's population in 1956 was 80 percent rural, it had become 80 percent urban by 1968.

The increase in oil revenues and its ratio to total revenue, (accompanied by an unfortunate decrease in other sectors of the economy, especially agriculture) promoted at first the idea that oil was the key to the dynamic character of the Libyan economy and its vitality for the development of the country (Wright, 1969:257-258). Table 2 dramatizes this condition. The contribution of the oil revenue to the total revenue overwhelms the contribution of the non-oil sectors.

Before the advent of petroleum, agriculture was the largest productive sector in the economy, employing 70 percent of the labour force and contributing 30 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP). By 1969 agriculture accounted for only 3 percent of the GDP and absorbed only about 30 percent of the labour force (NYROP et al., 1973). Revenue from agriculture declined from 28 percent in 1963 to 18.5 percent in 1967. Revenue from industry grew very slowly and represented less than 5 percent of Libya's total revenue in 1967 (Ministry of Economy, 1968). Libya's agriculture, explained Dr. Attiga, then Libya's Minister of Development and Planning, "was left to stagnate in its low level of development and the consumer turned to the world markets for the purchase of his daily food...At the beginning of oil

exploration the total value of imported food and food produce was about $1,700,000. By 1969 it was $95,000,000" (Attiga, 1973:9-18). At the same time "agricultural exports had declined from a value of $4,180,000 in 1956 to $2,040,000 in 1961 and to only about $108,000 in 1968. The last figure was not enough to pay for Libya's import of food for one-third of a single year" (First, 1974:145).

Table 2

Libya's oil revenue and its contribution to the total revenue

(in US dollars)

Fiscal Year	Total Revenue	Oil Revenue	Oil Revenue as Percentage of Total
1958-59	47,465,600	254,800	0.54
1959-60	51,416,400	271,600	0.53
1960-61	62,596,800	322,000	0.52
1961-62	71,968,400	5,577,600	7.8
1962-63	100,875,601	20,132,000	20.0
1963-64	177,433,200	66,752,000	37.6
1964-65	240,256,000	153,213,200	63.6
1965-66	373,668,400	234,130,400	62.7
1966-67	534,592,300	379,210,800	74.3
1967-68	820,400,000	776,227,000	94.6

Source: Data presented in Tables 1 and 2 was compiled from different governmental publications.

Socio-Economic Development and Migration

During the period of rapid urban growth, migration was the significant mechanism of demographic change, a reaction to the social and economic conditions. As such, migration was a necessary element of normal demographic, social and economic adjustment to a new equilibrium.

Migration from the rural to urban areas of Libya in the 1951-61 period assumed such proportions that it became more important than traditional tribal movements as a factor in defining the population structure. These movements used to be temporary phenomena and were regarded as a useful means of supplementing low and uncertain agricultural incomes. However, the real and imagined employment opportunities resulting from the discovery of oil have made many of the migration streams permanent following the discovery of oil. Since 1959, movement from the land has amounted to a virtual exodus.

Since the discovery of oil the population of Libya has become increasingly urbanized as rural people moved to the cities in growing numbers, hoping for better employment and benefiting from housing and other programs financed by oil revenues. Tripoli and Benghazi have been the recipients of the mainstream of this rural-urban movement, their populations growing at annual rates of 6.5 and 7 percent, respectively, during the late 1960s.

The migration streams toward the big cities were a reaction to the dramatic changes in the agricultural sector brought about by the discovery of oil. After centuries of predominance, agriculture rapidly became a lagging sector. Massive labour movements from

rural areas to urban centers and the oil fields have left agriculture seriously undermanned.

The movement of rural populations to urban areas in advanced countries has represented a necessary adjustment to rising productivity in agriculture and in the country as a whole. Yet the movement of labour out of agriculture is a major phenomenon in most developing countries as well. Obviously, there are several reasons why people leave agriculture. These reasons include better pay, shorter hours, better education and services, and the shortage of rural housing. Along with these reasons there are two more reasons explaining the rural migration phenomenon in Libya, namely, the level of income and the opportunities for non-agricultural employment.

The income from agriculture was among the lowest income as compared to other sectors of the economy during this period (1961-69). The per capita income in the agricultural sector in the late 1960s was $350, whereas the overall per capita income reached $1,510 in the same year (World Bank, 1972:112). Many agriculturalists were attracted by the wages in developing new industries and the expanding employment, especially in the state bureauracy.

Some social scientists in trying to explain the mass rural migration to urban centers in a country such as Libya which is experiencing a transition from an economy based primarily on agriculture to a more industrialized economy, have viewed the migrants as surplus labour resulting from the introduction of modern technology in the agricultural sector (Rogers, 1960; Toshio, 1968). However, the evidence shows that the agricultural sector was neglected by the government and that emphasis was put on the development of

infrastructure. Therefore, the above explanation is not applicable in the Libyan case.

It appears from a survey conducted by the Ministry of Agriculture that technology in the form of modern machinery at least was not replacing the farm labourers. Hence, the explanation of migration in terms of a surplus farm labour force must be rejected. The primitive conditions of life, however, when considered in relation to other factors, offer a better explanation. This was manifested in the early discussion of the five year plan and the impact of the actual plan on the different segments of the population. The social welfare programs of the government benefited the urban population but improved conditions only to a limited extent for the inhabitants of rural communities (SRI, 1969:87).

In sum, we can see that the rural migration to the urban centers during this period was a complex phenomenon. One perspective on migration suggests that there is a kind of "push-pull" effect where the deteriorating conditions in the countryside are matched by the attraction, both economic and social, of the cities.

The Post 1969 September 1st Revolution Period

The rapidly growing oil industry drastically changed the social and economic structure of the Libyan society. Unfortunately, the tremendous wealth generated by this industry was not utilized properly by the regime of the monarchy (see discussion in the Second Period of this chapter). Much of it was wasted in unproductive sectors. There was little or no attempt to direct the national economy on a sound basis. There was a boom in the building industry but a

disastrous decline in agriculture. Industry, along with agriculture, was neglected and the amounts spent on development budgets were below those made in the ordinary budgets. Agriculture, industry and education received low allocations (See Tables 2, 4).

"Libya's society, administration and economy were unprepared to utilize and absorb the new wealth" (El Fathaly et al., 1977:17). The unmanageable effects of the abundant oil production on the part of the monarchy is described by a Libyan economist. One effect on the economy was the creation of rapid waves of one-way migration from rural areas to urban centers by farm labourers who were seeking higher wages. This migration added to the growing deterioration and depletion of the agricultural sector during the period following the oil discovery. The result was crowded urban centers and deserted farmlands in many parts of the country. As a result of increased urban population and increased per capita income, there was a sudden increase in the demand for food and agricultural products (Attiga, 1973).

In sum, the monarchy's economic policy since 1951 led to a wide gap between the oil sector and the agricultural and industrial sectors. The policy of the revolutionary regime after 1969 was to bridge this gap and to integrate wealth from oil into both agricultural and industrial activities.

In 1969, the September 1 Revolution marked the start of the third period. There were changes in the priorities of development strategy. The main goal of the new regime has been to change the situation of the national economy from full dependence on oil to balanced growth among all sectors. Oil was no longer just a sector

Table 3

Government expenditures 1963-64 to 1970-71

(In millions of Libyan Dinars)*

Fiscal Year	Ordinary Budget	Development Budget
1963-64	50.2	12.5
1964-65	64.2	23.0
1965-66	83.0	52.4
1966-67	112.6	82.3
1967-68	170.0	92.0
1968-69	222.0	123.0
1969-70	190.3	145.0
1970-71	182.8	200.0

Source: Ministry of Petroleum, 1972:138.

*Before August 15, 1971 the Libyan dinar equaled US $2.80. After December 18, 1971, it equaled US $3.04.

of the economy with a predetermined income for the country. But it did have a leading role among all sectors of the economy in bringing a closer integration of the different economic sectors and in producing a sound basis for a balanced growth of the national economy. There was a greater pressure in this period to create alternative productive assets to substitute for the revenue earning capacity of the oil sector. In this respect the revolutionary regime has particularly emphasized the creation of sound agricultural and industrial sectors at any cost.

To achieve these overall goals, as a first step on the path of

sound growth, a series of laws resulted in the nationalization of many agricultural, industrial, commercial and service institutions and placed them under the direct control of the state. By 1972, the nationalization program was supplemented by a policy of economic modernization (development) and independence. The middle term future of the economy was one in which petroleum would provide the revenues for development projects with increased emphasis on agriculture and industrialization, particularly petro-chemicals.

New Prospects on the Path of Social and Economic Development

By 1972 the revolutionary government's role in the economy was overwhelmingly predominant and the state became the major organ for both the private and public sectors of the economy. The changes in petroleum, agriculture and industrial policies came as a result of this new role assumed by the state. On the basis of socialist principles, the revolutionary government exerted every possible effort to achieve self-sufficiency in production and justice in distribution, to liberate the national economy from dependence and foreign influence, and to provide education and medical treatment for all citizens free of charge.

The 1972-73 social and economic development was designed to fulfill these objectives and it was drawn on the following fundamentals:

(1) Rectification of flows and weak points in the economic structure of the sixties in a manner that would bring about an equilibrium and integration of various economic activities that would narrow the gap of social differences.

(2) Achievement of the maximum rate of growth in the national economy.

(3) Diversification of economic activities with emphasis on agriculture and industry.

(4) Reasonable rate of oil production so that oil resources will not be exhausted in a short period of time.

(5) Extension of social services to cover the remote areas which suffered much deprivation and neglect in the past.

(6) Education and medical treatment for all citizens free of charge.

(7) Provide every citizen with a proper house (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1976:88).

Comparing the pre-revolutionary Five-Year Plan (1963-68) with the Three-Year Plan (1973-75) set by the revolutionary regime, the latter showed greater readjustment of priorities (See Tables 1, 4 and 5). Transport and communications declined to 10 percent and industry (including mining but not petroleum) increased 7 percent. Electrification appeared for the first time as a separate budget category (9 percent) as did petroleum (9 percent). This reflected increased preoccupation with extending the power network as well as the government's purpose to take greater part in the exploration, production and processing aspects of the petroleum industry and its petro chemical and other by-products. Agriculture received the highest allocation; there was a boost of 34 million dinars in just over a year (Table 5). Allocation for education reached almost 9 percent; there was a 15,600,000 dinars increase over a period of two years (Table 5).

Table 4

Allocation for the 1973-75 Development Plan

(In Libyan Dinars)

Sector	Allocation	Percentage of Total
Agriculture and Agricultural Reclamation	137,906,000	7.0
Agricultural Integrated Development	278,128,000	14.2
Industry and Mineral Resources	238,154,000	12.1
Petroleum	164,564,000	8.4
Electricity	190,513,000	9.6
Transport and Communication	190,332,000	9.6
Education	189,290,000	9.6
Public Health	070,963,000	3.6
Labour	024,343,000	1.2
Youth and Social Affairs	014,046,000	.7
Housing and Public Utilities	277,850,000	14.1
Economy and Tourism	009,280,000	.5
Information and Culture	029,365,000	1.5
Local Administration	129,968,000	6.6
Planning	003,900,000	.1
Administration Development	002,515,000	.1
Reserves for Projects	023,883,000	1.2
TOTAL	1,965,000,000	100.0

Source: Ministry of Information and Culture, 1974: 9.

Table 5

Development Appropriations in Libyan Dinars

Sector	1967-1968	1968-1969	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972
Agriculture	7,918,000	11,100,000	16,420,000	50,000,000	50,400,000
Industry	5,300,000	7,700,000	7,860,000	20,480,000	32,000,000
Petroleum	-	-	-	-	21,600,000
Economy & Trade	280,000	300,000	260,000	30,000	7,000,000
Tourism & Archeology	-	900,000	750,000	710,000	
Education	9,800,000	13,850,000	14,600,000	11,418,814	30,200,000
Civil Service	400,000	650,000	440,000	240,367	500,000
Information & Culture	1,370,000	2,700,000	3,280,000	2,161,791	not available
Labour & Social Affairs	5,272,000	2,300,000	2,000,000	1,340,000	5,100,000
Public Health	2,720,000	4,000,000	7,420,000	5,904,000	17,000,000
Youth & Sports		3,500,000	5,000,000	20,000	-
Transport & Communications	19,506,000	23,750,000	22,650,000	27,144,526	39,800,000
Municipalities	-	6,000,000	13,000,000	25,493,296	-
Housing	1,900,000	12,000,000	22,220,000	32,816,000	40,000,000
Public Works	23,590,000	29,500,000	24,900,000	18,410,185	21,500,000
Interior	5,250,000	1,250,000	1,500,000	1,000,000	31,800,000
Planning & Development	4,594,000	3,500,000	700,000	417,000	1,600,000
Projects' Reserves	-	-	2,000,000	2,414,021	1,500,000
Total	105,000,000	123,000,000	145,000,000	200,000,000	300,000,000

Source: Habib, 1979: 255.

The second development plan (1976-80), called the Five-Year Economic and Social Transformation Plan, was a continuation of the three-year plan with a long term scope. This plan assumed an annual increase of nearly 11 percent in the gross national product (GNP) and an increase in a per capita income of 5.6 percent annually. Priorities were given to agriculture, industry, electricity, education, municipalities and housing. As of 1978 the 1976-80 plan had been revised upward to LD 9.25 million from an original level of just over LD 7 billion (See Table 6).

Policy in regard to the industrialization program had several goals: diversification of income sources, substitution for consumer goods imports, and processing of agricultural products. Plans for industrial development stated by the Three-Year Development Plan of 1973-75 called for an annual growth of 24.5 percent in real terms as against 11 percent for the economy as a whole and 5 percent in the petroleum sector. The number of plants completed and in production by 1979 was 58, and another 36 different projects were under construction. In addition, contracts and studies for 34 more projects were in progress (Ministry of Information, 1979:137). To meet the demands of these industrial projects for skilled and technical personnel, some twenty-eight technical schools were in operation in the late 1970s as compared with only four such schools before 1969. Six of these schools are industrial institutes with a capacity of over 3000 per year, and two are advanced oil institutes (Ministry of Information, 1979:35).

Along with industry, the revolutionary regime regarded the agricultural sector as of prime importance, and it was given very high

Table 6

1976-80 Development Plan and Expenditure for 1978

(In millions of Libyan Dinars)

	Original Allocations 1976-80	Revised Allocations	Revised Allocations
Agriculture and agrarian reform	412,269	498,000	109,000
Integral agricultural development	857,760	977,660	227,600
Dams and water resources	80,040	139,115	26,000
Nutrition and marine wealth	49,161	63,673	157,500
Industry and mineral wealth	1,149,418	1,204,980	221,500
Oil and gas exploitation	670,000	670,000	90,000
Electricity	683,195	896,825	170,000
Education	491,655	521,820	122,000
Information and culture	99,168	121,925	24,500
Manpower	56,002	62,712	13,000
Public health	197,655	273,640	62,700
Social affairs and social insurance	13,157	33,757	62,500
Youth and sports	52,020	62,000	16,000
Housing	794,236	1,131,040	211,000
Security services	35,000	60,000	13,500
Municipalities	565,108	755,729	170,000
Transport and communications	659,854	929,798	144,200
Marine transport	353,500	373,500	60,000
Trade and marketing	36,730	44,740	65,000
Planning and scientific research	13,045	16,800	35,000
Reserve for projects	230,027	409,586	72,000
Total (incl. others)	7,525,000	9,250,000	1,785,000

Source: Ministry of Planning, 1976.

priority. Two plans were adopted (1973-75, 1976-80) to carry into effect the agricultural policy, based on the following principles: (1) to safeguard natural resources and utilize available soil and water; (2) to reclaim new areas which were to be divided into productive farms; (3) to establish settlements supplied with all required services, and (4) to ensure the participation of the agricultural sector in the progress of the national economy by means of increasing agricultural productivity (Ministry of Information, 1976:96).

In the mid 1970s all Italian-owned farms in Libya were returned to the government, which in turn were distributed among the Libyan farmers with government credits for seeds, fertilizers and machinery. The area under irrigation has increased and according to 1976 figures had reached 300,000 hectares. A number of very large contracts were awarded for reclamation and irrigation work in various scheduled areas. All agricultural projects were meant to be fully integrated, providing for the establishment of farms, the building of rural roads, etc. and in some cases, the introduction of agricultural industries. Of particular importance as a way to keep farmers in the countryside, as well as to increase agricultural output, was an extremely ambitious ten-year agricultural land reclamation and farmer resettlement scheme initiated in 1972. The aim of this project was to reclaim one million hectares of land and provide farms for tens of thousands of rural families.

Development in this sector brought modernization to the villages and rural communities in the form of schools, hospitals, electric lights and other twentieth century adornments. Furthermore, in an increasing number of rural localities, former farm labourers

received titles to farms and owned houses in which electricity water, and modern appliances made their residences almost indistinguishable from those of prosperous urban dwellers.

Education under the monarchy exhibited much more influence from religious elements than in any previous period. Even with relative expansion, the educational system did not meet the country's need for trained, managerial and skilled personnel (El Fathaly et al., 1977: 13). The small and inadequate school system suffered from a limited curriculum, a lack of qualified teachers. The new regime, however, continued the quantitative expansion of the educational system, and has effected tremendous changes in the quality and level of education. The revolutionary regime realized the fact that it has to relate the educational system to current and ambitious needs of the development projects in different sectors of the economy. The following major changes were made. First, an emphasis was placed on vocational and technical training. In this regard, an expansion and upgrading of vocational education was given special priority in order to provide the country with the most needed skills in such fields as agriculture and industry. Second, stress was given to higher education in applied sciences and technology with immediate usefulness to the economy. Third, school attendance was made compulsory between the ages of six and fifteen years,or until completion of the preparatory cycle of High School. In addition, changes in the requirements and in teaching methods were also made at this level. And fourth, an expansion took place in the number and geographical distribution of schools. Assembly line school buildings were erected in rural areas

and desert oases to bring every citizen in contact with education (El Fathaly et al., 1977:13). As a result, the total school enrollment increased tremendously during this period (See Table 7). The total enrollment rose from nearly 150,000 in 1962 to 360,000 at the time of the 1969 revolution. By 1977 a total student population of about 780,000 included more than 200,000 above the primary level. The enrollment of one million, or nearly one-third of the population, was expected in the scholastic year of 1980-81.

In sum, oil made capital available for social and economic development and changes in priorities during this period made for significant alterations in the Libyan social and economic structure. The tremendous investment for agricultural and industrial development resulted in a great number of new projects and enterprises. These changes created the need for mass education in order to supply skilled workers and specialists needed for these new projects. Also these changes enhanced the division of labour and provided a foundation for the rise of professional groups which inspired many young people who are ambitious for status and emphasized dignity and prestige of occupation more than monetary rewards.

Social and economic development, therefore, stimulated the nature and pattern of employment, which in turn created the heavy and continuing flow of rural-to-urban migration, especially among the young and educated. Statistics for the mid 1970s revealed that almost one-half of the economically active population was employed in either public administration, construction or industry. Planners predicted that the proportion employed in non-agricultural sectors would continue to increase slightly through 1980 and that it would

Table 7

School Enrollment Between 1961-62 and 1977-78

Level	1961-62	1963-64	1965-66	1967-68	1969-70	1971-72	1973-74	1975-76	1977-78
Primary	131,098	154,592	192,293	248,731	310,846	405,435	484,986	556,176	568,781
Preparatory	11,216	14,286	18,720	26,414	36,316	43,346	73,928	122,359	))172,250
Secondary	2,284	2,214	4,326	5,995	8,304	9,426	13,417	18,158	)
Technical	1,155	1,190	933	909	1,457	3,202	3,411	4,033	4,990
Teaching Institution	2,162	2,407	3,330	5,254	4,725	5,984	15,605	21,377	21,719
Higher	942	1,280	1,891	2,522	3,633	6,291	9,590	11,243	12,459
Total	148,857	175,969	221,493	289,825	365,281	473,684	600,937	733,346	780,199

Source: Adopted from (Al Fathaly et al., 1977), (Attir, 1980) and (Nelson, 1979).

exceed agriculture by the year 2000 (See Table 8). The new influence on employment has been making itself felt not only in urban centers but in many of the villages as well as the desert oasis towns.

Table 8

Projections of industrial compositions of labour force in Libya: 1980-2000

(All Numbers in Thousands)

Sector	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
Agriculture	231	263	298	336	375
Industry	175	220	273	335	409
Services	343	400	464	536	617

Source: (Tsui et al., 1979:37).

It is evident from our previous discussion that tremendous social and economic changes have been brought about by the new strategies of development adopted by the revolutionary regime. The demand for skilled and professional personnel accompanying these changes inspired many young people to seek higher education and consequently higher social status. These attractions were sufficient to cause those residing in the hinterland to move toward the cities seeking higher education and a better life style. This migration in our view was inspired more by social psychological factors such as higher prestige and higher status rather than by the economic factors.

Consequently, the migration phenomenon in Libya can be best understood from a micro level whereas most of the research that has

been conducted in most developing countries was on a macro level, mainly by demographers, economists or ecologists. They were concerned primarily with three things, the rate, concentration, and composition of migration streams. Hence, the migration decision in Libya will be viewed from a social psychological point of view in which the framework supplied by Beegle et al. (1957) will be utilized.

At this point, it is appropriate to state the organization of the thesis. Chapter One dealt with the social and economic background of Libya and the conditions under which the process of migration prevails. The theoretical framework will be discussed in Chapter Two along with the definition of the major variables and the formulation of major hypotheses to be tested. Chapter Three deals with the research design, data collection, description of the test population and the measurement of the major variables. Method of analysis, results and tests of the major hypotheses will be presented in Chapter Four. In the last chapter, Chapter Five, summary of the results will be discussed against the theoretical framework.

CHAPTER II

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

The subject of migration is a very broad one indeed. A whole set of complex factors are involved in migration phenomena which cut across many disciplines, including sociology, economics, geography, demography, public health and public planning and policy. The study of this subject is often diffuse because of its multi-faceted dimensions, and one is often tempted to treat it broadly with little in-depth analysis.

The development of migration theory has been less promising than in other areas of demographic theory. There has been a proliferation of concepts vis-a-vis migration, but they have not been combined into a comprehensive framework. Researchers have tended to limit their studies to certain variables and have ignored others. We have such concepts as intervening opportunities, the income gap, expected income, and so forth but they have not been adequately refined and related to a broad theoretical framework, or discarded as inappropriate. Hence, migration theory may be characterized as a collection of empirical generalizations and typologies.

Some writers on migration, for instance, have classified the factors influencing migration as "pull factors" and "push factors" (Lee, 1966). With regard to rural-urban migration, therefore, it is

argued that general poverty conditions, relatively low levels of income, demographic pressures on the available agricultural land, and the stagnation of the agriculture economy, create "push" pressures on the rural population which lead to exodus to towns. Towns, on the other hand, are said to exert a "pull" by virtue of their superior social and economic conditions and higher wages which favor improvement in the life of individuals as compared with those who stay in the rural areas.

Some other authors such as Mitchell (1970) have argued that a single factor motivating migration is inadequate; on the other hand, the listing of all possible motivations is equally untenable. According to Mitchell, the multiple causes should be linked in a logical framework and classified under two headings, "the nexus of centrifugal tendencies" and "the nexus of centripetal tendencies" subdivided by social, psychological and economic factors.

The most important handicap in the study of migration, however, is its lack of a general theory. A great number of works have been compiled on the subject but a satisfactory integration has not yet been made (Mangalam, 1968).

> Theoretical statements that do exist in the contemporary literature, while useful and adequate for interpreting specific segments of the migration field or for making sense out of specific data in each instance, largely fail to provide a general framework within the vast amount of existing facts from different migration studies that can be integrated and given meaning... The ideal of comprehensive theory of migration is not only possible but must be an important concern in the future (1963:1).

The first systematic attempt to study the problem of migration was done by Ravenstein (1885). He developed the thesis that the decision

to move is never completely "rational" and that not all persons decide by themselves to migrate. Ravenstein concluded from his studies that the characteristics of the migration process, which he called the "laws of migration," are: (1) migration is influenced by distance to be covered; (2) it occurs in stages; (3) streams and counter streams are always present; (4) there are very important rural differences in the propensity to migrate; (5) females predominate among the short distance migrants; (6) technology affects migration; and (7) in all migrations the economic motive is the most important. Some of these broad generalizations about migration in the nineteenth century have been confirmed by some studies while some recent studies have modified these early generalizations.

Since Ravenstein's early work, most subsequent researchers have focused their studies on specific aspects of the migration process. Among them, for instance, was George K. Zipf (1946) who sought to explain migration by the "principle of least effort." Zipf aserted that the number of persons going from one city to another should be a function of the distance separating them, since the effort required to cover greater distances would presumably increase as does the distance. Some other authors, however, argue that migration is not a mere function of distance and that distance is not of overpowering importance.

Stouffer (1940) continued the effort to state empirical generalizations and presumably injected a greater degree of precision by introducing the notion of proportionality in his theory of intervening opportunities: "The number of persons going a given distance

is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities" (1940:845). In a paper published in 1960, Stouffer introduced a further variable, namely, "competing migrants." Thus, his original model became an attempt to express for a specific time interval, the number of migrants from city A to city B as a direct function of the number of opportunities in city B, and an inverse function of the number of opportunities intervening between city A and city B as well as the number of other migrants competing for opportunities in city B.

With regard to distance and migration streams, Rose (1970) examined the socio-economic status of migrants in relation to how far they migrate. He found that on the average, upper class migrants move greater distances than lower class migrants. His hypothesis was based on the notion of opportunities, that is, those with high aspirations seek better opportunity and must move greater distances while those with fewer skills and aspirations look for less desirable opportunities and move shorter distances.

More recently, Lee (1966) has built upon the earlier work of Ravenstein and others by developing a more comprehensive set of generalizations which include the following: "the volume of migration within a given territory varies with the degree of diversity of areas included in that territory" and "the volume of migration varies with the diversity of people." He proposed that "no matter how short or how long, how easy or how difficult, every act of migration involves an origin, a destination and an intervening obstacle"

(1966:48). Lee summarized the factors involved in the process of migration as being (1) factors associated with the area of origin; (2) factors associated with the area of destination; (3) intervening obstacles and (4) personal factors (1970). Bogue further elaborated on the attributes of places in relation to in and out migrations. He stated that "selectivity of out migrants from any community tends to vary directly with the strength of attractive 'pulls' from other communities and inversely with the explosive 'pushes' from the community of origin" (1961:12).

Another attempt in the direction of building a general theory of migration made by those studying the migration process is to establish a universal migrant prototype. The term "selectivity" used by these scholars refers to the characteristics of a group of individuals who tend to be more migratory than others. These characteristics are identified as migration differentials in the literature and include age, sex, level of education, occupation and socio-economic status, among others. White and Woods (1980) proposed two generalizations with regard to these attributes: first, that migrants are not randomly selected from the population at the place of origin, and second, that migrants at a certain destination do not form a random cross-section addition to the population. Furthermore, Bogue (1961) suggested that when testing hypotheses related to migration selectivity, consideration should be given to population and environmental conditions both at the place of origin and place of destination.

The proposition that migration is selective or that differential in migration exists is well documented in the literature, although some of the characteristics that differentiate migrants from non-migrants do not withstand the test of generalizability.

At present, at least four approaches to the study of migration differentials are found in the literature. They include:

(1) The ecological approach focuses on the movement and distribution of persons in space by characteristics of place rather than by characteristics of persons.

(2) The demographic approach focuses on characteristics or groups of characteristics of persons rather than places.

(3) The sociological approach attempts to connect observed significant characteristics of migrants with particular social systems and their functions. Migration behavior is related to patterns of formal and informal organizational participation, to value systems of culture and its subcultures.

(4) The social psychological approach recognizes migration as an individual decision-making process and focuses on attitudes and motivation of migrants. Migration behavior may be linked to personality adjustment or personality types.

Work in the area of migration has thus remained at the level of empirical generalizations. Such generalizations are worthwhile, in that they provide evidence for the relevance of particular concepts and specify relations among them. As long as they remain unconnected

to form a body of theory, however, they are of limited value since the specific conditions under which they operate are unknown and they cannot be used for prediction or deductive explanation (Byrne, 1972:2-3).

Migration, as we have seen, has been studied mainly by demographers whose analyses have typically been on the macro structural level since they were primarily concerned with migration streams and migration differentials. Demographers, however, did not analyze their data at either the individual or the social psychological level, nor more specifically from the attitudinal point of view. Therefore, we find a wealth of material dealing with demographic and ecological explanations of migration but virtually none on attitudes associated with migration.

The Scope of the Study

In most developing countries there has been a large, continuous movement from rural areas to urban centers in recent decades. In describing modern population migration, it has been observed that Western world migration represents an equilibrium type of movement, whereas in the Third World, especially West Africa, migration represents a disequilibrium type of movement. It is the rapid improvement in the areas of health, education, employment, social welfare and other amenities of the new modernization occurring in the major cities and towns of the Third World that has motivated rural people to migrate. Few of these services have yet reached the village level (Kempinski, 1961).

The general patterns of rural-urban migration in the developing countries are far from being uniform. In Africa, studies indicate

that migration streams historically have developed from a tribal-based to a traditional, state-based type (Harvey, 1969). Mobogunje (1972) described migration in Africa as being primarily regional, where individuals or groups of people cross ethnic or national boundaries. For the most part, rural-urban migration in Africa resembles a labour-force type of movement (Prothero, 1976).

In Asia, although rural to urban migration is pronounced, various patterns were manifested in some countries of this continent. In Malaysia, for instance, rural people are attracted to new settlements (Witraileke, 1965). In Indonesia people were transported from crowded Java to frontier lands (Withington, 1963). Due to social and economic developments that are taking place in these and other countries, settlement schemes are becoming increasingly commonplace.

In Latin America, the Andean uplands are the frequent locus of internal migration toward the lowlands east of the Andes (Butland, 1966; Dozier, 1969). It has been estimated that about 60 percent of Latin American population is living in cities (Brunn and Thomas, 1970). The patterns of step-wise and of direct movements toward the cities is well documented in the literature (Thomas and Mulvihill, 1980; Thomas and Catau, 1974).

Two types of movements are recognized in the Arab countries, namely, nomad migration and rural to urban migration. Due to various settlement projects and voluntary settling, the former type has been drastically reduced (Awad, 1962; Shamekh, 1975). The direction of the rural migration, on the other hand, was mainly toward major cities and the oil fields. The discovery of oil and improvements in health,

education, transportation and economic opportunities accompanying the oil exploration, has accelerated the process of rural migration. Nevertheless, rural to urban migration exists also in countries that have more agricultural potential, such as Egypt, Sudan, Iraq, Libya and Syria (Clark and Fisher, 1972).

Research in migration in most developing countries, however, has followed the same foci as that of the developed nations, namely, the explanation of migration from demographic, economic and ecological points of view. Literature on Africa and Latin America, for instance, reveals the importance and recognition of this problem by policy makers and planners. But most research conducted in this part of the world concentrated on only three dimensions of the problem, namely: (1) the rate and causes of migration; (2) the concentration in certain centers, and (3) the composition of migrants (characteristics of migrants). The rate of migration might be too high for both economic and social reasons. Numerous authors (e.g. Eicher et al., 1970), Byerlee (1974), and Todaro (1971) have noted various price distortions such as high urban wage rates and low agricultural prices which act to increase rural-urban income differentials and hence increase migration. Some other researchers have attributed rural-urban migration to population pressure in the rural areas (McGee, 1971).

The problem created by high rates of migration are compounded by the concentration of migrants in one or two large cities. As Hance (1970) notes, most African countries have one "primate" city--usually the capital--which is also the fastest growing city in the country.

The composition of rural-urban migrants is a further dimension of the rural-urban migration problem, as the literature reveals. Rural-urban migrants, on the average, come younger and better educated than the rural population from which they originate (Elizaga, 1966; Browning and Feindt, 1969; Bock and Iutaka, 1967). In Ibadan, Nigeria, Callaway (1969) reported that about 70 percent of all migrants were 15-25 years old. In Kenya, the majority of migrants were 20-25 (Rempel, 1970). Generally, studies in Africa reveal that most migrants are young adult males or school leavers (Byerlee, 1974; Callaway, 1969).

The picture of rural to urban migration in the Arab countries is not well documented and there is a scarcity of literature due to the lack of reliable statistical data. The few studies conducted in some countries of the Arab world, however, reveal that the process of rural migration is similar to that of Latin America with few exceptions. Needless to say, these studies also concentrate on the three dimensions mentioned earlier. Most migrants are attracted by economic opportunities in the urban centers and oil fields. Philips (1959) observed that the deterioration of rural conditions act as the push and the nature and expansion of urban centers as the pull. In Libya (See Chapter One), Hartley (1972) described the massive rural migration between 1954 and 1964 as due to the decline in the agricultural sector and the expansion of the construction industry in the urban centers as the main causes. These findings, however, reveal that seeking work or better jobs and wages in urban centers and the declining of the agricultural sector are the major reasons

for rural migration. Other researchers have indicated that population pressure in rural areas is another explanation for rural-urban migration. This is true in Lebanon where the population increase in the rural areas exceeded the availability of land and farm employment (Tannous, 1942; Khuri, 1967). In Morocco, the most fundamental cause of rural migration is the poverty and population pressure in the regions from which most of the migrants are drawn (Blake, 1972). With respect to the selectivity of migration, studies in Iraq, Lebanon, and Egypt have shown that younger persons, mostly males, are the most frequent migrants (Baali, 1966; Khuri, 1967; Abu-Lughod, 1961).

Despite the widespread recognition of rural-urban migration as a problem in most developing countries, research in this area has emphasized the role of "push" and "pull" factors, and demonstrated the dominant position of economic, and social objectives as causes of migration. On the other hand, subjective factors related to migration have not been recognized, and very little if anything has been done on the attitudes associated with migration.

It is evident that migration cannot be fully understood solely from the demographic viewpoint. As Schulze (1960:4) pointed out: "Man is bound by culturally prescribed limits and subject to attitudes and goals furnished by his social environment which are not evident from the study of demographic data alone. To reach an understanding of migration we must delve deeper than the level of population statistics. We must explore the impetus to migrate from the attitudinal frame of reference also."

According to Bogue, migration is a response of human organisms

to economic, social (psychological) and demographic forces in the (social) environment (1969:753). Human beings are motivated to act to fulfill certain needs or to escape discomfort or pain. It is a subjective evaluation of the individual about his social environment that leads him either to migrate or not to migrate rather than the objective factors of that environment. As long as his wants and his aspirations are met, an individual will have the tendency to stay in the same community. Migration, therefore, for Bogue is:

> "...either a response to some impelling need that the person believes he cannot satisfy in his present residence or a flight from a situation that for some reason has become undesirable, unpleasant or intolerable" (1969:753).

The lack of social-psychological "explanations" of migration has been one of the chief factors in the development of research by Eicher (1959), Beegle (1957), Goldsmith (1961) and Beegle and Goldsmith (1962). These authors have dealt with the migration of young people from rural areas. In doing so, they have used the suggested frame of reference of the NC-18 report, which consists of a theoretical framework for the field studies done in the North Central States and Kentucky, and also the instruments to be used in the field. This report viewed the phenomenon of migration as:

> "an on-going process of decision-making in which satisfactions with the life in the community of residence are weighed against the social costs of leaving the community of residence. This evaluation process occurs in relation to the level of aspirations, rooted in the value orientation, range of knowledge, and experience of groups and individuals."

Thus, the report stated that three major variables are related to the plans of migration among young people, namely: (1) community satisfactions; (2) aspirations; and (3) social costs.

A major purpose of this study, therefore, is an attempt to extend the use of the conceptual and operational model used in these studies and its modification by Hannan (1967), and to test it in a very different cultural setting. This study, hence, is not a traditional demographic analysis. Instead it incorporates the sociological aspects of an individual's background with psychological reasons for migrating. Critical questions addressed in this study are: (1) Are the young people satisfied with their community? Why or why not? (2) Have they thought of moving? (3) What are their occupational and educational aspirations? (4) What are their attitudes toward their community? (5) What are their family obligations? (6) How do they view the process of migration?

This study thus is an attempt to examine some of the attitudinal factors involved in the decision-making process as related to migration of young people from areas of constant migration. The importance of the study is twofold:

(1) By testing the frame of reference used in a completely different culture will give some insights into its validity and hence will contribute to its theoretical and methodological substance.

(2) The findings from this proposed study would be highly useful in public policy decisions in Libya, as it has been in the U.S. It would provide evidence in answering such questions as: should youth be permitted to freely leave the more remote rural parts of the country--which is under rapid development--to reside in the burgeoning

cities? Should the government devise policies to control the outward flow of young people? Will the labor market opportunities match the educational and occupational aspirations and plans of young people? Assuming that many young people wish to leave for the city, is the current school curriculum providing the best possible preparation for the urban environment? What changes should be made in the school curriculum given the aspirations and plans of young people?

Theoretical Framework and Relevant Literature

While Sorokin and Zimmerman (1932) must be credited with being among the first to suggest that the subjective evaluations of individuals can affect their decisions to migrate, Kiser (1932) was among the first scholars to carry out a study specifically designed to determine the extent to which subjective factors affect such decisions. Thomas (1938) attempted to summarize the migration literature up to that time. She made several important contributions in conceptualizing the place that motivational orientations have in an explanation of the process of migration. While her major empirical work was concerned with the imbalance hypothesis, she explicitly stated, however, that to understand the initial motivations that lead individuals to migrate, one must consider the motives which attract individuals to new areas, and sources of dissatisfactions which drive them away from old communities.

The writings of Lively and Taeuber (1939), Webb and Brown (1938) and Jamiesen (1942) are indicative of the growing awareness among

scholars studying migration that comprehensive knowledge about the motivational orientations is a prerequisite to an adequate understanding of the total migration process.

The most useful theoretical approach to the study of the motivations of migrants, however, was that provided by Lively and Taeuber (1939) and Williams (1961). Like other authors they recognized the fact that while socio-economic conditions are important factors affecting migration, they cannot alone account for migration. These "conditions" are experienced differently and the responses vary depending on the cultural context. On the basis of empirical evidence, Lively and Taeuber stated that it is simply not true "that when problems are sufficiently acute in any area people will move to some place where living conditions are considered more nearly adequate" (1939:79). They noted: "there are few rural areas so poor that there are not some people at some time who are willing to live there" (Lively and Taeuber, 1939:79). In order to understand why not all persons who are exposed to similar objective conditions migrate, they contend that it is necessary to consider subjective factors. They stated:

> The controlling element in the decision whether or not to move is not the objective reality per se, but the individual's subjective evaluation of the various alternatives which he is considering (Ibid:80).

Because residents of well provided communities may use a wider series of more advantaged reference groups in evaluating alternatives, such communities often lose their populations as rapidly or more rapidly than poorer areas. In the latter case, there is a much narrower universe of comparison and as a consequence, residents may feel

relatively less deprived. Some of the poorest areas are also those in which there is a tradition of stable residence, of family solidarity, of unwillingness to move, and of extremely low regard for the usual canons of material success (Lively & Taeuber, 1939). Migration planning, therefore, was viewed as prompted by economic motives, but as taking place within a socially and culturally defined frame of reference. Other non-economic motives might be important but occupied a residual position in their discussion (Williams, 1961:301-302). Such approaches to the motives of migrants, however, were very sketchily developed, and it was not until the 1950s that more useful models were proposed. At that time a number of authors proposed motivational models for migration planning, including those of Eisenstadt (1954) and Beegle et al. (1957). The latter appears to be the most relevant and fruitful for the present study.

Eisenstadt proposed that plans to leave the community of residence are dependent on the individual's feelings of "frustration, of inability to attain some level of aspiration in his original society where he is unable to gratify all his expectations" (1954:1). But this motive is not necessarily "a feeling of insecurity and inadequacy in every sphere of social life. The immigrant, as has often been pointed out, may remain attached to his original society and culture in various ways" (Eisenstadt, 1954:2).

Eisenstadt presented four types of aspirations which may lead to an act of migration. They are the following:

(1) A potential migrant may feel that his original society does not provide him with enough facilities for and

possibilities of survival within it.

(2) Migration may be promoted by the feeling that certain goals, mainly instrumental in nature, cannot be attained within the institutional structure of his society of origin.

(3) The migrant may feel that within the old society he cannot fully gratify his aspirations for solidarity.

(4) The migrant may feel that his society of origin does not afford him the chance of attaining a worthwhile and sincere pattern of life, or of following out a progressive social theory (Eisenstadt, 1954:6).

Using essentially the same approach as that of Eisenstadt, Beegle proposed a specific system of variables to predict migration planning (1957:2-3). The migration phenomenon hence, "is viewed as an ongoing process of decision making in which satisfactions with the life in the community of residence are weighed against the social cost of leaving the community of residence. The evaluation process occurs in relation to the level of aspirations, rooted in the value orientation, range of knowledge, and experience of groups and individuals" (Report of Procedures Committee NC-18; 1957:2).

Satisfactions result from group and structural ties. Cohesiveness with the community which the individuals perceive and/or feel arises from the patterned relations of those ties (ROPC NC-18; 1957:2-3). The satisfactions may be viewed as the net which binds to the area individuals who like living there, who are secure, and integrated. Their meaningful relationships with the community are

too important to sever. Conversely, dissatisfaction with the community indicates disagreeable or fragmentary group ties. If satisfaction were the only factor, we could assume that high community satisfaction means preference not to migrate and low community satisfaction, preference to migrate.

However, satisfactions are only one facet of the ongoing decision-making process. Aspirations too affect personal satisfaction. Aspiration viewed as desired states or conditions includes desires for material objects, further education, jobs or places to live. If the aspirations can be fulfilled within the community they reinforce the satisfactions with the community (ROPC NC-18; 1957:2-3), and help confirm a decision not to migrate. If aspirations are not obtainable within the community, these wishes may change or influence the satisfactions or offset them, for if the pull of aspiration is stronger or more urgent than community satisfaction, migration may result.

The third component of the decision-making process presented by this framework is an appraisal of the social costs. When individuals decide to migrate, the affiliations at the community of origin are at least partially severed and must be replaced at the community of destination. Therefore, migration is viewed as a socially costly process. If an individual perceives moving away as an act disturbing group ties which he cherishes, then the social cost of moving will be appraised as high. If, on the other hand, he perceives that moving will release him from groups he dislikes, or if he has few important group ties, then the perceived social cost of moving may be low. One who views social costs as high will have less inclination to leave than

one who views social costs as low. The third factor can tip the balance when the other two factors cancel each other out.

Provided with this frame of reference, a subsequent series of field studies were carried out using these variables to explain and predict the migration plans of rural adolescents, Schulze (1960); Cowhig et al. (1960); Goldsmith (1961); Goldsmith and Beegle (1962); Schulze et al. (1963), as well as the plans of rural adults to remain in the community of origin, Eicher (1960).*

From a structural perspective, Hannan critically reviewed these studies and pointed out that "the studies simply related variations in certain attitudinal type variables to variations in plans to migrate, or to remain in the community of origin. It is apparent that most of these independent variables are equally demanding of explanation" (1967:6-7). He contended that "unless (the) variables used are solidly grounded in structure, they cannot provide a satisfactory sociological explanation of migration planning. Thus, the variations in attitudes to the home community are not an adequate explanation of migration motives, until it is shown how these attitudes are related to different social structural positions of respondents" (Hannan, 1967:6-7).

The present study, therefore, utilizes the Michigan studies by Beegle and others with the viewpoint of Hannan as the take off point in developing specific hypotheses which would conform to the Libyan situation. In so doing, the focus of the study--like most of the Michigan

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*These studies discontinued the use of the variable social costs as such or incorporated it into other variables.

studies--is on the rural migration of adolescents toward the urban centers, assuming that migration planning can be explained best in terms of a minimum number of attitudinal variables, and that these variables should be examined from a structural point of view, that is, whether these variables vary in predictive importance in any systematic way among adolescents from different positions in the community's social structure (Hannan, 1967).

An overriding assumption in this study is that the migration planning or migration intent and the decision to migrate are voluntary in nature. Hence, the decision is made by the individual and he is not migrating with the family in accordance with decisions made by parents. It is also assumed that parents and many other family members are remaining on in the home community. It is expected, however, that family expectations, as perceived by the individual himself, are important factors in the migration decision. Furthermore, the potential migrants have extensive "knowledge" of conditions in his own community and other communities. It is assumed then that the decision to migrate results from an evaluation by the potential migrant on the basis of beliefs about the ability of his own and other communities to satisfy his aspirations. Therefore, the migration decision can be best understood when viewed from a social psychological point of view, and hence the most useful approach to the problem is that supplied by Beegle et al. (1957).

As the study concerns an area which has suffered high rates of out-migration for the last twenty years, and given the social, economic changes and political mobilization of the people in Libya which resulted in the need for professional, skilled and

highly trained personnel, which in turn inspired many young people to seek higher education and consequently to aspire to social mobility, the migration decision, therefore, can be best understood when viewed from the individual's point of view.

Four independent variables will be examined in predicting and explaining the migration plans of rural adolescents who have not yet selected a permanent occupation and a permanent place of residence. These variables are: (1) educational and occupational aspirations; (2) community satisfactions; (3) family obligations; and (4) community evaluation.

Do these factors vary in predictive importance in any systematic way among adolescents from different positions in the community? We assume that these variables are structured by the social position of the individual in the community. Therefore, the influence of three variables on the independent variables and thereafter on the migration plans will be examined, namely: (a) cultural orientation of the individual's family; (b) social status level of the individual's family; and (c) the birth order of the individual in the family.

Before discussing the definition of the major independent variables and their relationship to migration, it is useful at this point to summarize the present evidence on migration among rural youth. High school seniors must either make or be prepared to implement plans which will be of lasting consequences to themselves and to the society of which they are a part. This is particularly true of the plans they make concerning the occupations in which they will engage and the amount and type of additional formal education they will seek.

First, it would appear that migration of young people from their rural communities after they finish high schools tends to be the predominant pattern (Blau and Duncan, 1967; Schulze et al., 1963; Hannan, 1967; Bohlen and Wakeley, 1950; Pihlblad and Georgy, 1954; Taves and Coller, 1964). Most of those who leave their home community apparently migrate to urban areas (Andrews and Sardo, 1965; Blau and Duncan, 1967; Leuthold, Farmer and Badenhop, 1967; Schwarzweller, 1963; Taves and Coller, 1964). Ambitious rural youth eager to obtain further education and occupation of higher prestige and aware of the limitations of the local community should anticipate the necessity to migrate in pursuit of these goals (Drabick, 1965:30).

Drabick (1970), in a study of the relationship between migration intention and educational and occupational expectation, stated that his data showed a greater proportion of students who intended to migrate expected to engage in further education and in occupations of higher prestige than those students who did not foresee migration. Drabick further elaborated that:

> The student who evidences an expectation of advanced educational achievement may be considered more ambitious, more desirous of social mobility, than his [peer] who does not set his educational goals as high. Associated with that ambition might be a perceived necessity to migrating from his home community (1970:5).

In his 1974 study, Drabick also found that plans to migrate from the area of present residence among rural high school seniors were associated with expectation of college entry (1974:17).

Goldsmith and Beegle (1962); Hannan (1967); Yoesting and Bohlen (1970); Taves and Coller (1964) found that a direct relationship existed between educational and occupational aspirations and plans

to migrate. In a series of studies in Indiana (Olson, 1960; Geschwind and Ruttan, 1961; Cohen and Schuh, 1963) showed that high educational aspiration level among rural youth was found to be strongly related to migration. In a study of rural youth in Louisiana, it was found that 7 out of every 10 plan to continue their education and, therefore, plan to migrate (Hernandez, 1969).

Community satisfaction as a topic of sociological research can be traced to Davis' (1945) research on attitudes toward community. Following Davis' work, Goldsmith (1961), Goldsmith and Beegle (1963), Schulze et al. (1963) attempted to relate community satisfaction and the desire to migrate. In this manner, community satisfaction is often advanced as a possible restraint to both actual migration and an individual's willingness to move. It was used as a social-psychological variable that indicates the individual's perception of capability of his own community to fulfill his ambitions. Low satisfaction may increase individual's willingness to move, whereas high satisfaction may increase subjective investment in the community and may, therefore, discourage migration (Swanson et al., 1979).

Goldsmith and Beegle (1963), Schulze et al. (1963) using community satisfaction as a broad concept, including a variety of sub-concepts such as satisfaction with physical community, satisfaction with the social environment of the community, ethnocentrism and other related factors, found that an inverse relationship existed between community satisfaction and desire to migrate among high school seniors. The positive or negative assessment that the individual had toward his perceived alternative communities as a place

to live helped determine whether or not migration took place.

Other studies that treated community satisfaction and measured it as a form of community attachment predicting whether or not the individual would move found an inverse relationship, Jessor (1967); Kasarda and Janowitz (1974) and Rojeck et al. (1975). Fernandez and Dillman (1979) in their study tried to associate the actual mobility rather than the individual expectation of moving and community attachment and found a moderate association in which community attachment influences mobility. In another instance, Spear (1974), Bach and Smith (1977) used elaborate personal decision-making models to determine if community satisfaction acts as an intervening factor between community attributes and both the intention to migrate and actual migration. In their longitudinal study of Durham, North Carolina, Bach and Smith (1977) observe that while high satisfaction does not appear to influence migration, low satisfaction does.

Using community satisfaction as a "specifying variable" indicating conditions of the relationship between the frustration of aspiration and migration plans, Hannan, in his study of Irish adolescents, found that those who felt estranged from the local community planned to migrate irrespective of their belief about their ability to satisfy their aspirations locally. On the other hand, those who felt that they were highly attached to their local community, the beliefs about the local fulfillment of aspiration played a stronger role in migration plans (1967:130-131).

Even where people perceive that their aspirations cannot be achieved locally, however, other community and family factors may

rule out migration. While many studies have overemphasized the influence of community satisfaction and individual aspirations, family obligations which necessitate staying and working in the home community, with some exception, have not been given sufficient attention. Goldsmith (1961), Goldsmith and Beegle (1963) found that obligations at home have significant importance in determining migration plans. Such obligations to the family took precedence over any personal aspirations. Hannan (1967) also found a strong relationship between family obligations and plans to migrate. He found that one-third (34%-45%) of those with very slight or no obligations plan to migrate while only (20%-25%) of those with medium to high obligations plan to migrate. Crawford stated that family obligations are believed to outweigh possible gains which the potential migrant may perceive as accruing from a move (1966:294).

Attitude toward the community's social provisions is also a variable that has received little attention in determining plans for migration among young people in the United States. On the other hand, it is overemphasized in studies carried out in Ireland, as Hannan states (1967:37). Dissatisfaction with such community provisions as educational and shopping facilities, roads, recreation and entertainment facilities was found to be related to migration plans among rural adolescents in Ireland (Hannan, 1967:125).

The extent to which educational and occupational aspirations are structured by the social context in which the individual lives is widely documented in the literature. Much of the research on the mechanisms determining the educational goals and occupational

plans of high school students has concentrated upon social factors influencing achievement motivation. Attention is increasingly focused on the effects of social environments and contexts (Schwarzweller, 1973). A number of studies show a positive correlation between the youth's levels of educational and occupational aspirations on one hand and various measures of the social status of the individual's family on the other (Willson, 1959, Michael, 1961; Sewell, 1964, Sewell and Armer, 1966). Other studies which showed the effect of the social and economic status are those of Sewell (1957); Rosen (1956), Empy (1965); Schwarzweller (1960, 1973); Youmans, 1959); and Burchinal (1962). These scholars have consistently shown that the higher the social economic status of student's family the better the base he has from which to build a satisfactory career.

The prestige level of father's occupation as a measure of social and economic status of the adolescent's family was found to be positively associated with the educational and occupational aspirations and further with migration plans of high school seniors (Drabick, 1965, 1970, 1974; Hannan, 1967; Olson, 1960; Geschwind and Ruttan, 1961; Cohen and Schuh, 1963).

Cultural background of the individual's family is another factor which is believed to affect educational and occupational aspirations and migration of high school seniors. Hannan (1967) found a strong relationship between cultural orientation on one hand and occupational and educational aspirations on the other.

The Major Independent Variables and Their Relationship to Migration

Three variables are proposed by Beegle et al. as factors related to migration plans. One of the major factors in migration planning is community satisfactions, defined as "feelings of cohesiveness and security rooted in identification with groups and structures" (1957:2). When satisfaction is high, it increases residential stability. The second variable is social costs which refers to the rootlessness that attends migration and which results from the severance of group ties and some patterned relationships. The third variable, aspirations, refers to the future, largely instrumental goals which are desired. In the decision-making process, satisfactions with life in the community of residence are weighed against the social costs of moving elsewhere. This evaluation takes place in relation to the level of aspiration sought. If aspirations are such that they may be fulfilled locally, they would be expected to weaken satisfactions and reduce social costs attending migration (Beegle, 1959).

In this and other studies, community satisfactions was maintained as one of the major independent variables, but it came to assume a meaning different from the original usage. Here, however, community satisfaction will be broader than Beegle's definition, and will include feelings of liking or disliking of the home community. Such feelings are hypothesized to spring from attachments to or rejection of one's particularistic relationships, or the style of structure of relationships in the local community. That is, an evaluation of the satisfactoriness of one's family and other primary and secondary group relationships, as well

as the structural forms that these relationships take. High satisfaction would arise from having a highly positive evaluation of these relationships and structures, while low satisfaction would result from a history of unsatisfactory personal relationships, or a low evaluation of the structural forms that these relationships take. The latter would result from differences in values between respondents and most community members. However, using this definition of community satisfaction, the suggestion provided by Hannan (1967) also will be taken into consideration. He critically reviewed the definition and pointed out the fact that the conceptualization of the variable as a summary evaluative attitude toward the community has been too remote from a structural orientation. Hannan suggested if community satisfaction maintains its definition which is provided above and as evaluation of local community structures in terms of traditional vs. modern, it becomes more explicit and more sociologically relevant (1967:20).

This distinction, however, leads to treatment of community satisfaction as two variables, one which views it as a composite measure of the attachment to local particularistic relations; the other is what we will call satisfactions with community social provisions, such as educational facilities, roads, shopping facilities etc.

Aspiration level in Goldsmith's study was operationally expressed as two variables. The first, specification level, referred to the extent to which respondents feel that their occupational and "way of life" aspirations could be satisfied in their home communities (1961:11). The second, obligations, referred to the extent to which respondents felt that their post-high school education plans

could be achieved in the local community. If they had no further educational plans, it referred to the extent to which they felt that their home community would be "a good place" in which their occupational aspirations could be fulfilled. Alternatively, it referred to the extent to which they considered the home community to be "a good place" to find someone "they would like to marry" (Goldsmith, 1961:114-117).

Pursuing further education and reaching desired occupation, as used in Goldsmith and other studies, are considered here to be important variables. These aspirations are socially defined, socially structured, and socially sanctioned by group members for adolescents who occupy different positions in the social structure.

The great majority of studies on the motivations of adolescent rural migrants show instrumental aspirations to be more predictive of migration plans than any other variable. Other studies in this area demonstrate the overriding importance of economic, educational and social mobility aspirations in migration planning. Educational aspirations generally refers to plans to pursue further education beyond high school in particular and attending college on the part of high school seniors is believed to be very important under Libyan conditions.

Given the social and economic changes that Libya is going through, discussed earlier in Chapter I, it is expected that instrumental aspirations such as educational and occupational aspirations, will be more predictive of migration plans than such non-instrumental variables such as community satisfaction and satisfactions with the community social provisions.

Up to this point, certain instrumental aspirations which have been referred to as "desired future conditions or situations" are proposed to be the major variables affecting decision to migrate. If respondents think that such aspirations cannot adequately be satisfied locally, they will tend to migrate elsewhere to satisfy their aspirations. Conversely, if their aspirations are attainable within the community, they will tend to stay. But certain non-instrumental variables, notably community satisfaction, which is taken to measure both the degree of attachment to local particularistic relations as well as an evaluation of the satisfactoriness of local community social provisions, will determine the migration decision.

Community satisfaction, hence, will be used as a specifying variable indicating conditions under which the respondent's aspirations and migration plans are related. When respondents are dissatisfied with their community, they will plan to migrate irrespective of their ability to satisfy their aspirations locally. On the other hand, when they are highly attached to their community, the ability of the local area to fulfill aspirations plays a crucial role in migration. In other words, for those who are highly attached to their home community relations, such attachments do not necessarily lead to plans to stay, if aspirations cannot be fulfilled locally.

In regard to the evaluation of the local community's structures and their role in the decision of migration, it is proposed that where aspirations can be satisfied, dissatisfaction with such community structures as educational and shopping facilities, roads, recreation and

entertainment facilities, for example, may be sufficient to bring about migration to places where these facilities are better provided. But it is expected here that the instrumental factors should account for most of the variations. It is expected that if the effects of occupational and educational aspirations are controlled, the evaluation of or attitude toward the community's social provisions will have very low correlation with migration plans.

While individual's aspirations might necessitate migration if these aspirations cannot be fulfilled locally, individual and family factors may rule out migration. Family obligations as a non-instrumental variable are also expected to outweigh any personal gains which the adolescent may perceive accruing from a move. It is expected that in the case of those adolescents who have high obligations toward their families, such aspirations would be less predictive of migration plans than primary role obligations to the family that necessitate staying at home. Such obligations would include binding expectations on family members to stay and help out in household matters. It is likely to be highly important in Libya where rural family structure in particular is more patriarchal and the father has much greater control over family members. For adolescents who have high family obligations, it is expected that the relationship between such individual aspirations and migration will not hold true. It is hypothesized, however, that family obligations will take precedence over personal aspirations in determining migration.

As indicated above, it is expected that educational and occupational aspirations are closely related to plans to migrate. It is expected that the higher the level of occupational and educational aspirations, the greater the proportion of respondents who believe their occupational and educational aspirations cannot be fulfilled locally and plan to migrate. However, the level of these aspirations is expected to be influenced by three intervening variables. The first is the social status of the respondent's family in which aspiration level is expected to be closely related to the family's social status; the second is the cultural orientation of the respondent's family. The variation in the cultural orientation of the individual's family, whether of traditional, non-materialistic orientation or of a modern, urbanized orientation, is expected to account for the variation of the aspiration levels among adolescents. However, since education is free in Libya for all citizens, the expected influence of these two variables was not taken from a stratification point of view; rather, the idea of how the respondent's family values education and views the occupational structure will in turn influence the individual's level of aspirations. The third intervening variable which is expected to influence the level of aspirations is the individual's birth order. It is expected that an inverse relationship will be found to exist between the level of educational and occupational aspirations and the birth order of the respondent. Those who are the oldest are expected to be more likely to discontinue their education after high school and help to support their families.

Definition of Major Variables and Hypotheses to be Tested

1. Educational and Occupational Aspirations

These aspirations refer to the quality and quantity of education aspired to and the ranking or level of occupation desired. The educational aspirations are ascertained on the basis of the subject's response to a question as to the type and amount of further education desired (beyond high school graduation) which will be classified and ordered into a four category scale ranging from high to low educational aspirations.

The occupational aspirations will be determined in a similar fashion. The responses to the following two questions will be used: (1) ideal occupational choice (aspired); and (2) realistic occupational choice (expected). These responses are then ordered on a scale developed to measure relative prestige status in the area under investigation. The scale ranges from (1) the highest status to which the respondents aspired; and (2) the lowest status group to which the respondents aspired.

2. Community Satisfactions

Community satisfaction refers to the extent to which the respondent's concrete situation is perceived by him as satisfactory or unsatisfactory. In other words, it refers to the level of attachment of the individual to his home community as measured by his evaluation--negative or positive--of his primary relationships (Goldsmith and Beegle, 1962; Hannan, 1967).

This will be measured by using a substantial modification of

the Schulze et al. (1963); Hannan (1967); and the Vernon Davis scale (1945) items. These changes are necessitated by the differences in the cultural environment.

3. Community Social Provisions Evaluation

This evaluation refers to the student's assessment of the adequacy of his local community's facilities such as schools, libraries, roads, etc. This assessment may range from positive to negative. As in the case of community satisfactions, this variable will be measured by a scale consisting of certain facilities and institutions present in the community and other nearby communities.

4. Family Obligations

Family obligations refer to the student's assessment of the level of obligations that he has toward his family. It ranges from high obligations, those obligations that have to be carried out by the student only if he remains in the home community, to low obligations, those which do not require his presence in the home community in that someone else could take over these obligations.

5. Migration Plans

Migration plans refer to the respondent's intentions to migrate or remain in the home community. His intentions range from a firm intention to migrate to a definite intention to stay.

Hypotheses:

A. Relationship between independent and dependent variables.

Hypothesis 1: A direct relationship exists between educational aspirations and plans to migrate.

Hypothesis 2: A direct relationship exists between occupational aspirations and plans to migrate.

Hypothesis 3: An inverse relationship exists between community satisfaction and plans to migrate.

Hypothesis 4: An inverse relationship exists between community evaluation and plans to migrate.

Hypothesis 5: An inverse relationship exists between family obligation and plans to migrate.

B. The relative predictiveness of the independent variables.

Hypothesis 6: The instrumental variables (educational and occupational aspirations) will be more highly related to migration than will any of the other variables.

Hypothesis 7: Controlling for the levels of community satisfaction, the lower the level of satisfaction, the less predictive are the educational and occupational aspirations on the part of those who plan to migrate.

Hypothesis 8: Controlling for the levels of family obligations, the higher the level of family obligations, the less predictive are educational and occupational aspirations on the part of those who plan to migrate.

Hypothesis 9: Controlling for the levels of satisfactoriness with the community social provisions, the less predictive are educational and occupational aspirations on the part of those who plan to migrate.

Hypothesis 10: The total proportion of migration plans explained by low levels of community satisfaction (those who plan

to migrate irrespective of other factors) and by high levels of family obligations (those who plan to stay irrespective of other factors) will be considerably less than that explained by the educational and occupational aspirations.

Hypothesis 11: Educational aspirations will be directly related to occupational aspirations.

Hypothesis 12: The higher the level of occupational aspirations, the higher the level of educational aspirations and, therefore, the greater the tendency to plan to migrate.

C. Structural (intervening) variables influence on the independent variables.

(1) Cultural orientation of the respondent's families.

Hypothesis 13: Youth from traditional families as compared to those from "modern" families will exhibit:

(a) lower levels of educational and occupational aspirations,

(b) higher levels of community satisfaction and community evaluation,

(c) as a result of these differences, a much lower proportion will plan to migrate.

(2) Social status of the respondent's families.

Hypothesis 14: The educational and occupational aspirations will be influenced by the social status of the respondent's families. They will be directly related to the social status level of adolescent's families.

(3) Respondent's birth order.

Hypothesis 15: The educational and occupational aspirations will be influenced by the birth order of the respondents; they will be inversely related to the birth order of the individual in the family.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This chapter deals with issues concerning the operationalization of this study. It includes a description of the area in which the study was conducted, how the test population was selected, and a description of the field work. In addition, this chapter treats the operationalization of the major research variables and a description of the analytical techniques to be used in the analysis of the data.

Description of Jabal Nafusah Area

For more than 200 miles along the Mediterranean coast coastal oases alternate with sandy areas and lagoons. Inland from this area lies the Jefara Plain, a triangular area of some 6,000 square miles. Approximately 80 miles from the coast the plain abruptly ends at an escarpment that rises to form the 200 mile-long Jabal Nafusah, a plateau ranging from 2,000 to 3,000 feet in elevation. These heights which mark the southern boundary of Libya's Western Region are a part of the Atlas Mountain range (See Fig. 1). But actually they constitute a distinct physical feature, for the Atlas Mountains terminate at the Tunisian Border. Here and there in the Jabal mountain evidences of former volcanic craters and sheets of lava may be found. The mountain has several local names such as

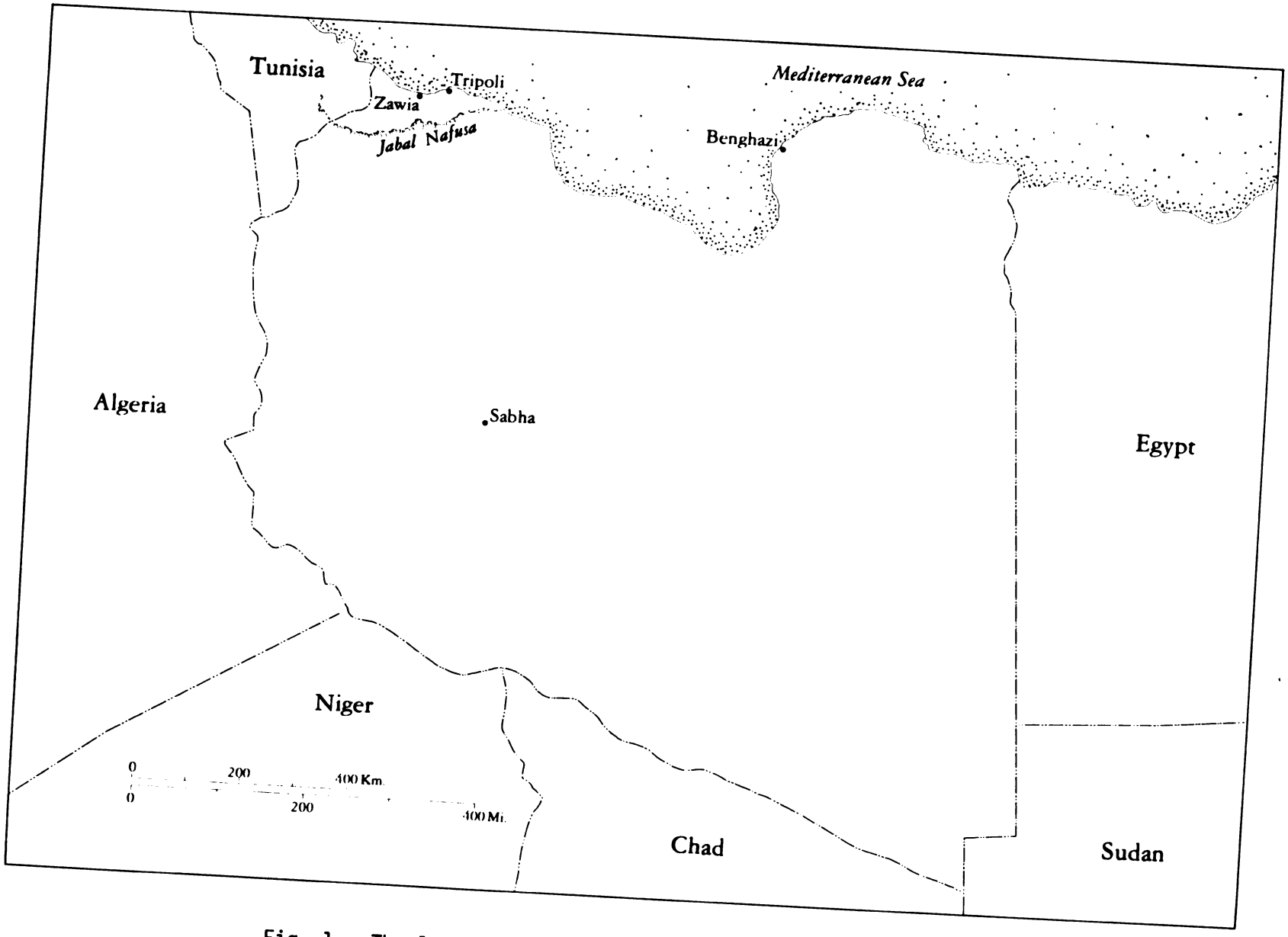

Fig. 1: The location of Jabal Nafussa (The study area)

the Gharian Range or Gharian Mountain, but geographically speaking, it is alluded to merely as the Jabal Nafusah. However, the administrative name according to the 1973 classification is known as Gharian Province.

As depicted in Figure 2, the province lies due south of Tripoli. Gharian, the provincial administrative and commercial center, is located about 80 miles from Tripoli and is reached by a modern highway which penetrates the mountain and stretches to the oasis of Ghadames in the southwest. The Gharian province is reputed to consist of 110 villages and had a population of about 154,297 according to the 1973 census. Approximately 5 percent of the households were classified as nomadic and semi-nomadic in 1973 as compared to 25 and 42 percent in the 1964 and 1954 censuses, respectively.

The economy of the region has struck a balance between farming and pastoralism. A shifting between these two activities was necessary in order to integrate fully the resources of the area. Furthermore, agriculture and herding are determined by the distribution of the rainfall which varies in the province from 330 millimeters around Gharian to less than 100 millimeters around Nalut. The main agricultural crops grown in the region are barley, wheat, olives and Mediterranean fruits. These are combined with sheep and goat husbandry.

Traditionally, the agricultural year begins in September with the harvesting of olives. In October, barley and wheat are sown in selected plots and the harvest season starts in April for the cereals. Figs are harvested in July and almonds are harvested in mid-September. This was the way of life for many years until it was disrupted by

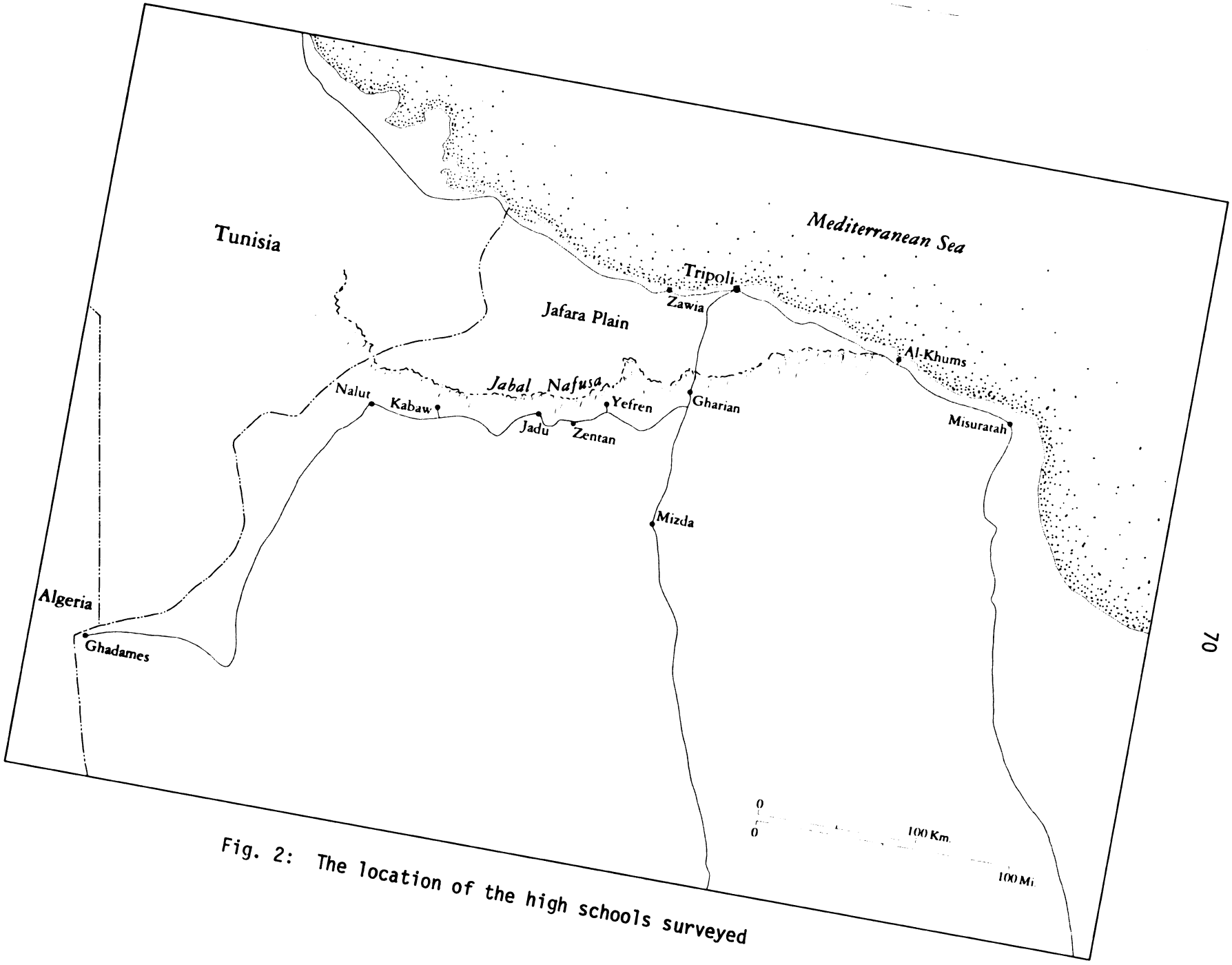

Fig. 2: The location of the high schools surveyed

modernization and development brought about by the oil wealth in the mid 1960s. As a result, masses of people in the province took refuge in the government bureaucracy or moved toward the urban centers. Agriculture and herding, however, still are the main activities in the region. There is no industry and since 1969 emphasis has been placed on agriculture. The main agricultural projects in the area are those of Al Haie and Allathel Valley, in which 35,000 hectares were targeted for reclamation. This land was to be divided into farms of 25 hectares each for the settlement of the nomads and semi-nomads in the region.

Population Structure

In 1973 the population of the province was primarily rural. Out of the 154,297 inhabitants almost 84 percent were rural and the only urban center is the town of Gharian with a population of 7,451. The population of the 110 small villages and localities which constitute the province ranges between 500 and 5,000. Over half of the villages have a population ranging between 1,000 to 2,000. Furthermore, 24 percent and 11 percent have populations ranging from 500 to 1,000 and less than 500, respectively.

With respect to age, sex and educational attainment, the province had higher proportions of young people (under 15 years of age) and of aged persons (65 years of age and over) in 1973 than in 1964. The proportion of persons 15 or less increased from 45 percent in 1964 to 52.1 in 1973, while the percentage of those 65 and over advanced from 6.8 to 9.0 percent during the same period. Persons in the economically productive age (persons between 15-35 years of age)

had decreased from 28.6 to 23 percent between 1964 and 1973.

The sex ratio of the region was slightly lower than that of the whole country in 1973, or 105 as compared to 106 males per 100 females, respectively. In contrast, the sex ratio was identical for the region and the whole country, in 1964, or 108 males per 100 females.

Table 9 presents school enrollment by sex in the province for 1964 and 1973. It reveals that there was a great improvement in educational participation, especially among males. Overall, the number of males at all levels increased from 17,781 in 1964 to 27,412 in 1973, whereas the number of females at all levels advanced from 3,229 to 13,633 for the same period. While only .03 percent out of the total student population attending secondary school in 1964 were females, the percentage increased to .76 percent in 1973. The percentage of males attending secondary school, on the other hand, increased from 3.1 to 4.2 percent or from 668 in 1964 to 1,816 in 1973.

The 1973 census reveals that the region experienced the highest rate of out-migration in the entire country since 1964 (See Table 10). The number of migrants amounted to 63,000 persons and as Table 11 indicates, the major movement of these people was toward Tripoli, the capital city. Lesser migration streams went to Benghazi, to Zawia about 30 miles from Tripoli, and to Sebha in the south. About 87 percent resided in Tripoli whereas only 4 percent resided in Benghazi.

The major reasons for selecting the area just described in which to carry out this study may be summed as follows:

Table 9

Educational enrollment for Gharian province
1964-1973

LEVEL OF ATTENDANCE	YEAR - SEX			
	1964		1973	
	M	F	M	F
Primary	14,492	3,140	19,361	12,416
Preparatory	2,452	82	5,650	891
Secondary	668	7	1,816	313
University	169	-	585	12
Total	17,781	3,229	27,412	13,633

*Source: Compiled from 1964 and 1973 Censuses.

(1) The area is completely rural, with only one urban place which serves the province as an administrative and market center.

(2) Agriculture and pastoralism are the dominant industries and the province is not subject to rapid urbanization in comparison to the other provinces in Libya.

(3) The province registered the highest rate of net out-migration (40.5 percent) and this rate was especially high among young people.

Table 10

Net and Gross migration for the ten provinces of Libya, 1964-1973

Province	Rate of Net Migration	Rate of Gross Migration
Derna	- 5.5	23.7
Gibal Akhdar	+ .6	27.6
Benghazi	+16.5	28.6
El-Khalig	- 9.3	23.4
Misurata	-16.1	22.8
Homs	-32.5	35.8
Tripoli	+19.2	28.7
Zawia	- .8	24.2
Gharian	-40.5	43.8
Sebha	- 4.0	16.6

Source: Census and Statistical Department, 1979: 65.

Table 11

Volume and direction of migration out of Gharian province, 1964-1973

N	%	From	To
52,377	87.3	Gharian	Tripoli City
4,151	6.9	Gharian	Zawia
2,337	3.9	Gharian	Benghazi
1,134	1.9	Gharian	Sebha

Source: Census and Statistical Department, 1979: 55.

The Test Population

The main focus of this study, as indicated earlier, is the investigation of the migration decision-making among rural youth in Libya who had not yet taken up a permanent adult occupation. High School seniors enrolled in the spring of 1981 in the Gharian Area, therefore, were suitable as the test population. These young people are at the stage in the life cycle to become highly involved in occupational and migration decision-making.

In order to obtain a complete enumeration of all adolescents in the area, the author obtained a list of all schools, principals and students living in the province from the Department of Statistics in the Secretary of Education in Tripoli. Based on this information, exploratory field work was conducted in the spring of 1981 and a comprehensive survey of the High Schools was carried out. First, a letter from Al Fateh University explaining the importance of the study was obtained to facilitate cooperation in the field work. Upon receipt of this letter the educational authorities in the area were contacted and they agreed to give assistance to the survey. Later the six schools were visited and the research purpose was explained to the principals and teachers who offered their cooperation.

As a result, all seniors in the five High Schools in the Gharian Province constituted the test population.[1] Of the 733 students

---

[1]The high school located in the Zentan village was excluded since it did not have a senior class in 1981. Also about 93 seniors who resided in the Gharian town were excluded since it resembles somewhat an urban center in terms of the size of its population and the services it provides.

registered in the senior classes, 503 or 68.6 percent completed schedules for this study. The remaining 31.4 percent who did not participate consists of those who had exam obligations, the majority of whom were from the school located in the town of Gharian.

Interviewing Respondents

During the exploratory field work two schools were selected for the pre-test of the instrument, one in the vicinity of the town of Gharian and the other in the village of Mizda. The instrument used for data collection was designed as an administered questionnaire. The first version was constructed in English and drew upon previous research, especially that of Goldsmith and Beegle (1962), Schwarzweller (1974) and Hannan (1967). Extensive modifications were made to fit the Libyan conditions.

The English version of the questionnaire was translated into Arabic by the author which was then given to a colleague at Al Fateh University to be translated back into English. Finally, this version was translated back into Arabic by different colleagues from the same university. These steps were very important to insure that the meaning of the words, phrases and questions did not lose their meaning in the translation process.

The four versions of the instrument were compared for consistency, and a few changes were made which resulted in the final instrument to be used. Two series of pre-tests were carried out for the final Arabic version with a sample of 25 respondents from Gharian, and then using the initially revised form, with 17 respondents in another school in the village of Mizda. Some revisions were made as

a result of the first pre-test and the final form of the schedule was prepared, with a few corrections resulting from the second pre-test.

All the schools included in the study at this point were familiar with the study and they were visited again to set a time for the interviews with the students. This step, however, was the most problematic one in some schools since it was agreed at an early stage of the research with some teachers that in order to obtain full cooperation of the students the interviews should not be conducted during their free time but rather during regular classes. The plan was not agreed to by a few teachers who refused to volunteer their class time for the interview. In these few cases a callback was necessary and appointments were made with other teachers to conduct the interviews.

Due to the scarcity of trained interviewers on one hand and to the sophisticated nature of the schedule on the other, the author conducted and supervised all the field work to assure standardization and to avoid any misinterpretation of the questions by the students. In so doing, the writer was present with the teacher at the time the schedule was distributed. An orientation was given to the class about the study and its importance to their local communities and the country as a whole. A brief description of the questionnaire was then made, and questions were answered whenever the students faced difficulties in understanding the question.

The instrument took approximately ninety minutes to complete. (See Appendix A for the questionnaire used.) Information was obtained from each student covering the following broad areas:

(1) General demographic, social and economic background data on the student and his family.

(2) The student's migration intentions and reasons given for migrating if thinking of doing so.

(3) The student's level of community satisfaction.

(4) The student's specifications of an ideal community.

(5) The extent to which a student believes his specifications for an ideal community can be met in his community of residence.

(6) The student's attitude toward his community's social provisions.

(7) The family obligations of the student.

(8) The cultural orientation of the student's family.

(9) The student's educational and occupational aspirations, and the extent to which he believes that these aspirations can be fulfilled locally.

Procedures for Operationalizing Main Variables

As pointed out earlier, the instrument used in this study was designed to obtain information from High School seniors about their migration intentions. The questions in the questionnaire were constructed to measure the major variables and where applicable scaling techniques were used. The procedures used to operationalize the major variables are outlined in the following pages.

(1) Dependent Variable: Migration Intention

A single straightforward question is employed in the schedule to measure this variable. The students'

intention to migrate or to stay in the home community are determined from responses to Question 32 which reads ... "How definite are you about intending staying or moving from your community after graduation?"

a. Definite intention to move ( )

b. Indefinite whether to move or stay ( )

c. Definite intention to stay ( )

(2) Independent Variables

(A) Educational Aspirational Level

The aspirations were determined by a single question with fixed alternatives. The responses to this Question 53 on the type and amount of further education aspired to beyond High School were classified and ordered into a four-category scale which placed each student's educational aspirations along a four-category scale from high to low educational aspirations.

Students are considered as planning to go on for additional training after High School if they respond "Yes" to Question 53, and designate what type of training they intend to obtain. All other students are considered as not planning to go on for further education. The type of training that students intend to obtain is determined from the following:

a. ( ) College? Where?_____

b. ( ) Trade school? If so, where?_____

c. ( ) Vocational school? If so, where?_____

d. ( ) Other, what and where?_____

(B) Occupational Aspiration Level

To measure this variable, each respondent was categorized on the basis of a series of three questions similar to those used by Sewell and Haller (1963:25) which range from an idealistic to a realistic choice. These questions are the following:

Question 50

"If you could have any occupation you wanted, regardless of location or the amount of training or experience required, what occupation would you choose?

_____

Question 51

"What kind of occupation(s) are you now seriously considering as a life-time work?

a. First choice_____

b. Second choice_____."

Question 52

"What is the first occupation that you think you will get?_____."

These occupational choices were then ranked in terms of the occupational rating scale developed by the author (See Appendix B for details of the scale construction). This resulted in the assignment of the occupation aspired to by the student to two ordinal occupational categories as follows: (1) the highest status group - high occupational aspirations and (2) the lowest status group - low occupational aspirations.

The final scale used to measure the level of occupational aspirations includes 15 occupations, the most prestigious of which was "Engineer" and the least prestigious was "Technician." Below is the code and score resulting from scalegram analysis:

	Code	Score
High	0	33
	1	64
	2	40
	3	38
	4	32
	5	39
	6	41
	7	53
	8	26
	9	21
	10	23
	11	25
	12	19
	13	15
	14	23
Low	15	11
	Total	503

(C) Community Satisfaction

In operationalizing the dimension of community satisfaction, the scale items of the Michigan studies and the

Vernon Davies (1945) scale items were utilized, with considerable modification to fit the Libyan situation. Eleven items were initially used in the schedule. Nine items were retained later for the final analysis since they gave high item variability. The eleven items are given below.

Question 33	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a. I am looking forward to leaving this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Any young people looking for recognition and new experiences should leave this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. Not much can be said of this community, its size, location and climate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
d. No one seems to care how young people get on in this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
e. It is difficult for the people to get together on anything	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
f. There is too much bickering among people in this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
g. This community is not too bad really	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
h. The future of this community looks bright	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
i. The people of this community are very friendly and helpful to one another	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
j. This community is a good place to live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
k. I am very eager to spend my life in this community, if I can at all.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

An item analysis of the responses was carried out on 503 respondents using the correlation coefficient technique discussed by Green (1954) and Shaw and Wright (1967:24). First, the eleven items were divided into negative items and positive items. For the first six items of the scale, responses of "Agree" or "Strongly Agree" were each scored as (0), responses of "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree" were each scored (1). For the remaining positively worded items (items g to k) the scoring is reversed. Responses of " Undecided" were coded as (0).

Item scores were then correlated with total score (the sum of item scores), and items that correlated highly with the total score were then selected for the final scale. The least discriminatory and those with weakest correlation with the sum of items were items b and c.

To confirm that these two items had to be excluded from the scale, a test of reliability using Cronbach's Alpha and Standardized Alpha was conducted. This in turn would test

the uni-dimensionality of the scale and how well the items were related. Below is the formula used to carry out this step:

$$\alpha_s = \frac{K\bar{r}}{1 + (K + 1)\bar{r}}$$

where K is number of items, and $\bar{r}$ is the average correlation between items.

Subsequently, three separate tests of reliability were carried out. The first test with inclusion of the eleven items gave Cronbach's alpha value of .82 and standardized item alpha of .81. The value of alpha, however, increased when item (b) was dropped out from the test to reach .82 for the standardized one but remained almost the same for Cronbach's alpha. When item (c) was excluded, standardized alpha reached almost .83. This, however, confirmed the earlier findings that items b and c were the least discriminatory.*

The remaining nine items then were accepted as a unidimensional scale, and the nine items were found to discriminate between the top and bottom quartiles. The scale was then used to measure the community satisfaction variable and it was scored from 0 to 9, from high to low satisfaction.

(D) Attitude Toward the Community Social Provisions

This was operationalized by utilizing a modified version of the Hannan scale items designed in a fashion similar

*The values of alpha obtained here are somewhat less than the desired standard (.90). These values, however, were accepted for the purpose of this study and were considered satisfactory.

to scale used to measure community satisfaction. The scale consisted of 10 items representing 10 separate institutions, social facilities and community services. An item analysis was carried out in which the item scores were correlated with the total score (the sum of item scores). The scoring was similar to the previous score except that this scale had no negative items. The Likert's categories, therefore, were coded by assigning (1) to "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" and (0) to "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree." The "Undecided" category was scored (0). Item(a) was excluded which had a very weak correlation (r = .38) and did not seem to differentiate between the respondents. Hence, the resulting scale had nine items.

A reliability test was also carried out to confirm that the items were well related, consistent and constituted a unidimension scale. The Cronbach and standardized alpha values for the nine items were .86 and .87, respectively. The scale was scored from 0 to 9; it ranges from positive to negative evaluation of the community social provisions. The ten items used for the construction of this scale are given below.

Question 34	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a. A place that is nearer a big town than the one you live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. A place that has better roads than the one you now live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
c. A place that has better primary and preparatory schools than the one you now live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
d. A place which is nearer to libraries, secondary and other institutions	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
e. A place which allows me to enjoy my time off better than my home community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
f. A place where a person would not have to go so far to enjoy sports events, entertainment like movies and musical events	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
g. A place that has better facilities for games than this one has	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
h. A place where people showed more interest in community work, organized clubs and teams for young people to play and enjoy themselves	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
i. A place where there would be more young people to spend spare time and organize games with	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
j. A place that is nearer to shops and good shopping facilities than the one you live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(E) Family Obligations

In operationalizing this variable a sequence of three questions were submitted to the student, Questions 42, 43, 44:

Question 42

Do you help out your family, or some other relation in any way?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," please give details of what you do:

_____

_____

Question 43

Do you think that your family, or some other relation depends on your help to any extent?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," how much:

( ) A great deal

( ) Somewhat

( ) Undecided

( ) Not very much

Question 44

Now, if you were to leave your community and home, could somebody else do the work that you are doing for them?

( ) Yes, very easily

( ) Yes, somewhat easily

( ) I don't know

( ) No, not very easily

( ) Not except with difficulties

Responses then were categorised in the following manner:

a. No Obligations: (1) if the student answered "No" to Question 42 or (2) answered "Yes" to the same question, but the type of obligation as detailed by him did not require him to remain at home to fulfill them.

b. Slight Obligations: (1) if respondent answered "Yes" to Question 42 and beside going to school he does some work at home in the evening or in his spare time, also (2) his family does depend on him "somewhat" or "not very much" (Question 43) and (3) somebody else could carry out these obligations "very easily" (Question 44).

c. Medium Obligations: (1) if answered "Yes" to Question 42, and works evening with the family while going to school during the day and (2) family depends on his help "a great deal" or "somewhat" (Question 43), (3) but could not be replaced "very easily" (Question 44).

d. High Obligations: (1) if answered "Yes" to Question 42, and carries a great deal of responsibilities

at home, and (2) family depends on him a "great deal" (Question 43), and could not be replaced "except with difficulties" (Question 44).

(F) The Cultural Orientation of the Respondent's Family

A scale composed of 18 items similar to that of Sewell (1943) was believed by the researcher who grew up in the area studied to be useful in distinguishing between families from different cultural orientations. In the pre-test procedures this was proven to be true. These items, therefore, were introduced to the respondents in the schedule. They are found in Appendix A, Questions 26, 27, 28.

In the process of item analysis, however, some of the items did not discriminate between the families. For instance, the item concerning father's membership in trade unions (Question 28) was not discriminating, since only 33 percent indicated membership, and it has a very weak correlation with the sum of item scores ($r = .14$). Other items which were excluded from the scale were e, f, g, k, l and item a, b Question 27. These items range from those that are accessible to every family to those that are not available in most of the sections of the area, such as telephone service and reading media.

Ten items were proven to constitute a reasonable unidimensional scale as a determinant of the cultural orientation of the family. These items were found to discriminate

between the top and the bottom quartiles. The scale was scored from 0 to 10 (from traditional to modern) and the reliability test revealed that the items were very consistent with alpha values of .85 and .86, Cronbach's and Standardized, respectively.

(G) Position of Respondent in the Family Cycle

This was measured by using two questions in sequence, Question 20, 21, where the student was asked to give the number of his older and younger siblings. In operationalizing the birth order of the respondents, three categories were used: the oldest child in the family, the second oldest, and the third or higher orders.

(H) Respondent's Family Social Status

This was operationalized by classifying respondents by the occupational status level of their families. Question 9 asked the students to indicate their father's main occupation. These in turn were assigned the 1973 census continuum classification of occupations. Consequently, the occupations were classified into five groups.

Method of Analysis

The use of bivariate and multivariate contingency tables will be employed in an attempt to put the data collected into a format necessary to validate the hypotheses stated in this study. This technique is the most appropriate one that would produce approximately equivalent information to that of analysis of variance. Analysis of variance cannot be employed here due to the level of measurement established for

the independent variables (ordinal and nominal) and for the dependent variable (migration plans) ordinal.

The strength of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables will be measured by Goodman and Kruskal's Gamma. In such cross classification, Gamma measures the difference in the conditional probabilities of like and unlike order. It shows how much more probable it is to get like than unlike order in the double classification, when two individuals are chosen at random from the population. If there is independence, the order within one classification has no connection with the order of the other. In this case, Gamma is 0. If there is high positive association between the two, the order on one classification would generally be the same as that of the other classification and Gamma in this case approaches plus 1. If there is counter-association, the order in one classification would be directly opposite that of the other and in this case Gamma approaches minus 1 (Goodman and Kruskal, 1954; Davis, 1971).

CHAPTER IV

HYPOTHESIS TESTING AND RESULTS

This chapter reports the results and the extent to which they conform to those hypotheses stated in Chapter Three. The following format will be used: (1) a statement of the hypotheses will be presented in their operational form giving both the null and alternative forms; (2) the data necessary to substantiate the hypotheses will then be presented in contingency tables; and (3) Gamma will be used as a summary measure of association for each contingency table.

Educational Aspirations and Migration Plans

Hypothesis 1

H_0: Differences in migration plans will be unrelated to levels of educational aspirations.

H_1: Migration plans will be directly related to beliefs that educational aspirations cannot be fulfilled locally.

The data presented in Table 12 reveal that a very strong positive correlation exists between educational aspirations and plans to migrate. Almost 72 percent of those who have high educational aspirations plan to migrate compared with only 13.2 and 6.7 percent of those who have the two lowest levels of educational aspirations. Conversely, the percent of students who plan to stay at home after graduation increases from only 3.4 percent for those with high

Table 12

The relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans

Migration Plans		Levels of Educational Aspirations Low - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - High 1	2	3	4
Definite plan to stay		44.4	64.2	21.5	3.4
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		48.9	22.6	51.4	24.8
Definite plan to migrate		6.7	13.2	27.1	71.8
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	45	53	107	294

N = 499 Gamma = .753

educational aspirations to over 44 percent for those with the two lowest levels of educational aspirations. The null hypothesis of no association between educational aspirations and plans to migrate, therefore, must clearly be rejected and the alternative must be accepted. Further, the consistency of the relationship as stated in the alternative hypothesis is confirmed. The Gamma measure indicates the magnitude of the relationship. It indicates that if one were to make a number of random draws from this double classification, picking two individuals on each draw and given the order of the two individuals relative to one another on the educational aspiration classification, the probability of estimating their relative ordering on the migration planning classification is increased by 75.3 percent

over a random guess. That is, the probability of like order on both variables is 75.3 percent.

Occupational Aspirations and Migration Plans

Hypothesis 2

H_0: Differences in migration plans will be unrelated to levels of occupational aspirations.

H_1: Migration plans will be directly related to beliefs that occupational aspirations cannot be achieved locally.

Table 13 shows that the data are consistent with hypothesis 2 and that there is a strong association between occupational aspirations and plans to migrate. Therefore, the null hypothesis, again, must be rejected, and the alternative hypothesis must be accepted.

Table 13

The relationship between occupational aspirations and migration plans

Migration Plans		Levels of Occupational Aspiration		
		Lowest Level	Medium Level	Highest Level
Definite plan to stay		44.9	20.8	8.2
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		42.9	24.7	31.0
Definite plan to migrate		12.2	54.5	60.8
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	98	77	319

N = 494 Gamma = .567

Over 60 percent of those who have high levels of occupational aspirations (professional occupations such as engineers, doctors and lawyers) plan to migrate, compared with only 12.2 percent who aspire to the lowest levels of occupations (e.g. primary school teacher, clerk and the like). Conversely, for those who plan to stay in their local community percentages increase with the decline of the level of aspiration from 8.2 to nearly 45 percent. However, the relationship between occupational aspirations and migration plans is not as strong as that between educational aspiration and migration, as shown by the Gamma measure of .753 and .567, respectively. The smaller Gamma measure may be attributed to those who are not definite as to whether to stay or to leave their community.

Community Satisfaction and Migration Plans

Hypothesis 3

H_0: Differences in migration plans will be unrelated to levels of community satisfaction.

H_1: Migration plans will be inversely related to levels of community satisfaction.

Results bearing on the above hypothesis are presented in Table 14. The expected relationship between the level of community satisfaction and migration plans is supported in that there is a very strong correlation between community satisfaction and plans to migrate. The null hypothesis, therefore, must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis is clearly validated.

The inverse relationship found shows that the percentage of students planning to stay at home increases systematically with the

ascending levels of community satisfaction. That is, 3.3 percent of the most dissatisfied students plan to stay while almost 63 percent of the most satisfied students plan not to migrate. Conversely, 81 percent of those having the lowest level of community satisfaction plan to migrate as compared to only 12.5 percent of those with the highest level of community satisfaction. The overall relationship between community satisfaction and migration plans is very consistent. The Gamma value of -.65 indicates the magnitude of this relationship. It is, however, not as strong as that between educational aspiration and migration, but surprisingly, it is greater than that between occupational aspiration and migration plans.

Table 14

Relationship between community satisfaction and migration plans

Migration Plans		Levels of Community Satisfaction				
		Lowest Scores - - - - - - - - - Highest Scores				
		0 & 1	2 & 3	4 & 5	6 & 7	8 & 9
Definite plan to stay		3.3	1.2	15.5	23.5	62.5
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		15.8	30.2	43.6	51.0	25.0
Definite plan to migrate		80.8	68.6	40.9	25.5	12.5
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	120	86	110	98	56

N = 470 Gamma = -.649

Community Evaluation and Migration Plans

Hypothesis 4

H_0: Differences in migration plans will be unrelated to levels of attitude toward community's social provisions.

H_1: Migration plans will be inversely related to levels of attitude toward community's social provisions.

The expected relationship between attitude toward the community's social provisions and plans to migrate is supported in that the relationship is in the direction predicted. Therefore, the null hypothesis must be rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. As can be seen from Table 15, over four-fifths (58.1 and 60.7%)of those who have

Table 15

The relationship between community evaluation and migration plans

Migration Plans		Attitude towards the Community's Social Provisions				
		Negative - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Positive				
		0 & 1	2 & 3	4 & 5	6 & 7	8 & 9
Definite plan to stay		6.3	11.8	39.4	35.4	37.5
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		33.1	30.1	36.6	33.3	30.0
Definite plans to migrate		60.7	58.1	23.9	31.3	32.5
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	239	93	71	48	40

N = 491 Gamma = -.414

evaluated their community's social provisions negatively plan to migrate, while only less than one-fifth (31.3 - 32.5%) of those who have positive evaluation of their community plan to migrate. However, the order of the relationship is not consistent, and it is less strong than that already observed between community satisfaction and migration plans, where the Gamma measures are -.414 for the former and -.649 for the latter.

Family Obligations and Migration Plans

Hypothesis 5

H_0: Differences in migration plans will be unrelated to levels of family obligation.

H_1: Migration plans will be inversely related to levels of family obligation.

The expected inverse relationship between family obligations and migration plans may be observed from Table 16. Over three-fourths (72.3 and 55.2%) of those with no or slight obligations plan to leave the community whereas only about one fourth (31.6 and 31.8%) of those with medium and high levels of family obligations plan to leave. Among those who plan to stay in the community, the proportion having high or medium obligations encompasses 27.3 and 33.8%, respectively, compared to only 6.2 and 11%, respectively, for those who have no or slight obligations. It is worth noting, however, that a relatively large proportion of students are having second thoughts about migration. Almost 33 percent of the respondents fell into the category of "indefinite whether to stay or leave." Within this group 21.5 and 33.9 percent stated they have no and slight obligations,

respectively, and 34.6 and 40.9 percent, respectively, stated they have medium and high obligations. Furthermore, the overall predictability of the family obligations variable is greater than that of attitude toward community's social provisions. Hence, the null hypothesis is confirmed.

Table 16

The relationship between family obligations and migration plans

Migration Plans		Levels of Family Obligations			
		None	Slight	Medium	High
Definite plan to stay		6.2	10.9	33.8	27.3
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		21.5	33.9	34.6	40.9
Definite plan to migrate		72.3	55.2	31.6	31.8
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	65	230	133	22

N = 450 Gamma = -.447

The Relative Predictiveness of the Instrumental and Non-Instrumental Variables

Hypothesis 6

H_0: There will be no difference in the strength of the relationship between migration plans and any of the independent variables used (educational aspirations, occupational aspirations, community satisfaction, community evaluation, and family obligations).

H_1: The instrumental variables (educational and occupational aspirations) will exert stronger relationships with migration plans than that between the non-instrumental variables and migration plans.

The data necessary to substantiate the differences in the strength of the independent variables and migration plans can be derived from previous tables used to test each hypothesis individually. In that sense, the Gamma statistic is used as an index of association. Table 17 summarizes the results which are used to test the above hypothesis.

As can be seen from Table 17, the strength of the relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans is greater than any of the other independent variables and migration plans, including occupational aspirations. Further, the relationship between occupational aspirations and the dependent variable is not as strong as that between community satisfaction and migration plans. The Gamma statistic is .57 for the former and -.65 for the latter. The null hypothesis, therefore, must be rejected and the alternative which only received partial support also cannot be accepted. The alternative hypothesis could be accepted if the occupational variable is excluded. Then the instrumental variable (educational aspirations) would be more closely related to migration plans than any other independent variable.

Since the alternative hypothesis was not completely supported, two further independent tests were conducted to either confirm or reject the above findings. The first test is based on data extracted

Table 17

A comparison of the relationships between the five independent variables and migration plans, using Gamma as an index of association

Independent / Dependent	Educational Aspirations	Occupational Aspirations	Community Satisfaction	Community Evaluation	Family Obligations
Migration Plans	0.753	0.567	-0.649	-0.414	-0.447

by means of a series of questions which asked respondents about the possibility of staying in the community if his educational and occupational aspirations could be achieved locally and if local facilities were to be improved (Questions 40, 50 and 53).

Those who were either definitely planning to migrate, or who were indefinite about whether they would leave or stay and their responses were selected and their responses to the above questions are summarized in Table 18. This table shows that out of the 369 (73.4% of total) prospective migrants, over 50 percent indicated that they would stay home if both their educational and occupational aspirations were attainable in the local community. However, those who indicated they would stay if their educational aspirations could be satisfied locally are more than twice as large as those who would remain at home if their occupational aspiration was available locally, 26.3 and 12.7 percent, respectively. In contrast, only a small minority (9.2%) of prospective migrants indicated that they would not stay even if their instrumental aspirations (education and occupation) could be achieved locally. These respondents have

aspirations for better community facilities or for personal relationships which they think cannot be fulfilled locally.

Table 18

Proportion of students having some intention of migrating who indicated they would stay if:

	Educational level aspired to obtainable locally	Occupation aspired to available locally	Only if both educational level & occupation aspired to available locally	Would not stay for A, B or C but only if community facilities improved	Total
N	97	47	191	34	369
%	26 .3	12.7	51.8	9.2	100.0

The data presented above, therefore, demonstrate the overall importance of instrumental aspirations on the part of those who intend to migrate. This in turn gives support to the rejection of the null hypothesis and the acceptance of the alternative.

The second attempt to test the relative predictiveness of the independent variables is the use of an analogue to multiple regression where the dependent variable is regressed upon the five independent variables. As data presented in Table 19 indicates, 50.1% of the variance was explained ($P < .001$). Of the five variables, educational aspirations had the strongest relationship with the dependent variable (Beta = .441, $P < .001$). Community social provisions, however, bore the weakest relationship to the migration intention (Beta = .009). Community satisfaction, in contrast, had the second

strongest relationship with the dependent variable, and it is even greater than the relationship shown by the occupational aspiration variable (Beta = .374 and .100, $P < .001$ respectively). Here again the null hypothesis must be rejected but the alternative cannot be accepted fully since it received only partial support. Hence, the latter test hence lends support to the earlier test.

Table 19

Regression of migration intention upon educational and occupational aspirations, community satisfaction, community evaluation and family obligations

Independent Variables	Simple r	R^2	b	Beta
1. Educational Aspirations	.580	.336	.409	.441*
2. Community Social Provisions	-.107	.337	-.005	-.009
3. Family Obligations	-.225	.351	-.063	-.078**
4. Occupational Aspirations	.306	.379	.093	.100*
5. Community Satisfaction	-.528	.501	-.338	-.374*

N = 458
*P .001
**0 .05

Summarizing the results of the three tests of hypothesis 6, partial support for the alternative hypothesis was demonstrated. Educational aspirations as an instrumental variable was far more predictive of migration plans than any of the other non-instrumental

variables. Occupational aspirations, on the other hand, was almost as predictive as educational aspiration of migration plans, if community satisfaction is not included in the comparison (See Table 18).

Hypothesis 7

H_0: There will be no difference in the relationship between educational aspiration (and occupational) aspirations and migration plans for different levels of community satisfaction.

H_1: The relationship between educational (and occupational) aspirations and migration plans (on the part of those who intend to migrate) will be smaller at low levels of community satisfaction, than at higher levels (i.e. those who are highly dissatisfied with their community will plan to migrate whether or not their aspirations could be fulfilled locally).

Tables 20 and 21 consist of data necessary to test this hypothesis. Table 20 shows that a higher overall association between educational aspirations and migration plans at the lower levels of community satisfaction as measured by the Gamma statistic, than at any other level of the control variable. The strength of this relationship at lower levels of community satisfaction is due, however, to the fact that a far greater proportion of those who have high levels of educational aspirations definitely intend to migrate than those delineated by any other value of the community satisfaction.

Therefore, the null hypothesis must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis cannot be accepted as far as the educational aspirations

Table 20

The relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans by levels of community satisfaction

Migration Plans		Levels of Community Satisfaction								
		Low Level 0 - 3			Medium Level 4 - 6			High Level 7 - 9		
		Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Definite plans to stay		20.8	4.8	14.6	42.9	26.7	3.2	84.8	45.2	17.9
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		50.0	47.6	8.0	51.4	70.0	36.8	12.1	41.9	53.8
Definite plans to migrate		29.2	47.6	77.4	5.7	3.3	60.0	3.0	12.9	28.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	24	42	137	35	30	95	33	31	39

Gamma = .847 Gamma = .831 Gamma = .711

variable is concerned since the relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans (those who intend to migrate) is in a direction opposite that predicted.

If we focus our observation on those who have definite intention to stay at home, the alternative hypothesis would receive some support. That, a very small proportion of those who intend to stay at lower levels of community satisfaction compared to any other level, which is true across all levels of educational aspirations. The beliefs of those respondents who are relatively dissatisfied with their home community (whether or not their educational aspirations are attainable locally), has less effect on plans to stay than is true for those who are highly satisfied with their local community. For those who plan to stay, the percentage differences between those with low and high aspirations at each level of community satisfaction may manifest what has been contended above. For those with low levels of community satisfaction, the percentage is 6.2 percent compared with 32.7 and 66.9 percent for those with medium and high community satisfaction, respectively.

With respect to the occupational aspiration variable, Table 21 shows trends similar to those presented for educational aspirations. Here again the null hypothesis must be rejected but the alternative cannot be accepted since the predicted relationship between occupational aspirations and migration plans is in a direction opposite to that predicted. At the same time, the overall relationship is higher at lower levels of community satisfaction than at any other level. The trend of this relationship, however, as

Table 21

The relationship between occupational aspirations and migration plans by levels of community satisfaction

Migration Plans		Levels Community Satisfaction								
		Low Level 0-3			Medium Level 4-6			High Level 7-9		
		Occupational Aspirations			Occupational Aspirations			Occupational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Definite plans to stay		26.3	23.8	0.0	38.5	9.7	7.9	57.1	57.9	37.5
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		47.4	14.3	18.1	51.3	22.6	52.8	37.1	31.6	39.6
Definite plans to migrate		26.3	61.9	81.9	10.3	67.7	39.3	5.7	10.5	22.9
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	19	21	160	39	31	89	35	19	48

Gamma = .589 Gamma = .331 Gamma = .330

measured by Gamma statistics is not as strong as that shown between educational aspirations and migration plans (Table 20, 21).

To elaborate on the greater strength of the relationship between occupational aspiration and migration plans at lower levels of community satisfaction (Gamma = .589), it is also due to the same fact stated earlier where the relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans was discussed. That is, a far greater proportion of those who aspire to high levels of occupations intend to migrate than those characterized by any other value of community satisfaction.

The support that one could find for the alternative hypothesis was only among those who plan to stay. That is, a relatively small proportion of this group at lower levels of satisfaction compared to any other level of the control variable. In addition to that, whether or not these respondents who are relatively dissatisfied (low levels of community satisfaction) believe that their occupational aspirations can be achieved locally, has far less effect on their decision to stay than those who are highly satisfied with their community.

In sum, the two instrumental variables, namely educational and occupational aspirations, make less difference for those who plan to stay and who have low levels of community satisfaction than it does for those who have higher levels of community satisfaction. Thus, in predicting who will remain in the community, the alternative hypothesis is supported, while it is not confirmed on the part of those who plan to migrate. However, the variations in

educational and occupational aspirations make a greater difference in plans to migrate at lower levels of community satisfaction than at higher ones.

Hypothesis 8

H_0: There will be no difference in the relationship between education (and occupational) aspirations and migration plans for different levels of family obligations.

H_1: The relationship between educational (and occupational) aspirations and migration plans (on the part of those who intend to migrate) will be smaller for respondents with medium/high levels of family obligations than for those with lower levels of obligations.

An examination of the data presented in Table 22 and 23 which are required to test this hypothesis do not reveal the expected relationship. However, major differences in the relative relationships between educational and occupational aspirations and migration plans do exist which leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis. On the other hand, the alternative cannot be accepted since these differences are in a direction opposite to that predicted.

Table 22 indicates that for those definitely planning to stay, family obligations are not related to educational aspirations. For this group planning to stay, the highest proportions have low educational aspirations at each level of family obligations.

As shown in Table 22, for those who plan to migrate, it seems that high family obligations do not serve to prevent migration if respondents believe that their educational aspirations

Table 22

The relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans by levels of family obligations

Migration Plans		Levels of Family Obligations								
		None			Slight			Medium-High		
		Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Definite plans to stay		33.3	9.1	6.7	48.1	12.5	3.5	62.5	39.4	4.6
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		11.1	45.5	17.8	33.3	55.4	25.0	37.5	51.5	26.2
Definite plans to migrate		55.6	45.4	75.5	18.5	32.1	71.5	0.0	9.1	69.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	9	11	45	27	56	144	56	33	65

Gamma = .595 Gamma = .693 Gamma = .848

cannot be fulfilled locally. That is, high obligations to family do not counteract the effect of such aspirations on plans to migrate. Approximately 69 and 75 percent of respondents having high and low family obligations, respectively, apparently believe that their educational aspirations are unattainable locally, and consequently plan to migrate in order to achieve their aspirations. Increasing family obligations, therefore, have almost no influence on plans to migrate. On the other hand, the presence of family obligations has a major influence for those who plan to stay. Such obligations would seem to prevent these respondents from planning to go for further training, and therefore, accept what is available locally. Only 33.3 percent of those with no obligations are definitely planning to stay compared to over 62 percent of those with medium/high obligations.

The evidence, shown in Table 22, supports the proposition that family obligations operate to retard migration intentions only if beliefs that such educational aspirations cannot be fulfilled locally. On the other hand, the variable has no influence on the part of respondents who intend to migrate and who think their aspirations cannot materialize at home.

Table 23 consists of data intended to test the same hypothesis when the occupational aspiration variable is considered. As can be seen from the table, the null hypothesis must be rejected and the alternative also cannot be accepted since the overall relationships between occupational aspirations and migration plans differ only slightly from the relationship of educational aspirations and migration plans just discussed. The similarity comes from the fact that

Table 23

The relationship between occupational aspirations and migration plans by levels of family obligations

Migration Plans		Levels of Family Obligations								
		None			Slight			Medium-high		
		Occupational Aspirations			Occupational Aspirations			Occupational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Definite plans to stay		28.6	0.0	4.0	39.3	11.8	5.5	50.9	38.7	15.4
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		42.9	40.0	18.0	35.7	23.5	35.8	45.6	25.8	29.2
Definite plans to migrate		28.6	60.0	78.0	25.0	64.7	58.8	3.5	35.5	55.4
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	50	5	7	28	34	165	57	31	65

Gamma = .603 Gamma = .345 Gamma = .636

for those who have lower levels of occupational aspirations, increasing levels of family obligations are accompanied with an increase on the part of those who plan to stay. Furthermore, for those who aspire to higher levels of occupations, an increase in family obligations do lead to decreasing percentages among those who intend to migrate. But, on the other hand, such an increase in the levels of obligations do lead to an increasing percentage among those who plan to stay and who have high aspirations. The latter is the only deviation from the earlier analysis. Thus, in terms of predicting who will stay at home, the alternative hypothesis is supported using both variables (educational and occupational aspirations), while in terms of who will migrate, the family obligations variable is not related as hypothesized. The instrumental variables, therefore, take precedence over family obligations in predicting migration plans on the part of those who intend to leave the community for a destination where aspirations can be fulfilled.

Hypothesis 9

H_0: There will be no differences in the relationship between educational (and occupational) aspirations and migration plans for different levels of community evaluation.

H_1: The relationship between educational (and occupational) aspirations and migration plans will be smaller at low levels of community evaluation than at higher levels (i.e. those who evaluate their community negatively will intend to migrate irrespective of their aspirations).

The data shown in Tables 24 and 25 clearly indicate major

Table 24

The relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans by levels of community evaluation

Migration Plans		Levels of Community Evaluation								
		Low Level (negative) 0-3			Medium Level 4-6			High Level (positive) 7-9		
		Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Definite plans to stay		33.3	6.3	3.7	71.0	34.6	3.4	58.3	62.5	2.9
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		50.0	58.7	20.9	22.6	50.0	32.2	33.3	25.0	34.3
Definite plans to migrate		16.7	34.9	75.4	6.5	15.4	64.4	8.3	12.5	62.9
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	30	63	191	59	26	31	35	16	36

Gamma = .730 Gamma = .830 Gamma = .710

differences in the partial relationships between educational and occupational aspirations and migration plans. The null hypothesis, hence, must be rejected. However, the alternative hypothesis cannot be accepted either since the relationships are in a direction opposite to the one predicted.

The overall relationships between educational and occupational aspirations and migration plans are similar to those presented earlier when family obligations was used as a control variable (Tables 22, 23). For those who have lower levels of educational and occupational aspirations and plan to stay, percentages increase from a low (negative) to a high (positive) evaluation of the community's social provisions. (The highest value is found at medium level of community evaluation). Furthermore, comparing those whose educational and occupational aspirations are high with those whose aspirations are low, the percentage differences between respondents planning to stay are 29.6 and 17.8 percent, respectively, among those who have a negative attitude toward their community social provisions and 55.4 and 35.5 percent, respectively, for those with a positive attitude. Thus, the two instrumental variables (educational and occupational aspirations) make less difference in plans to stay in the local community for respondents dissatisfied with local facilities than it does for those positively satisfied with the local facilities. Thus, for those who want to stay, a definite support for the alternative hypothesis can be found.

If we restrict our observations to the category of those planning to migrate, the shift from negative to positive evaluation of

Table 25

The relationship between occupational aspirations and migration plans by levels of community evaluation

Migration Plans	Levels of Community Evaluation								
	Low Level (negative) 0-3			Medium Level 4-6			High Level (positive)		
	Occupational Aspirations			Occupational Aspirations			Occupational Aspirations		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Definite plans to stay	22.2	9.8	4.4	57.1	37.5	10.9	59.3	33.3	23.8
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate	55.6	31.7	29.1	34.3	25.0	34.4	37.0	13.3	33.3
Definite plans to migrate	22.2	58.5	66.5	8.6	37.5	54.7	3.7	53.3	42.9
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	36	41	203	35	16	64	27	15	42
	Gamma = .485			Gamma = .659			Gamma = .476		

the community social provisions does lead to decreasing percentages among those who have high aspirations. And there is, in fact, a higher overall relationship between educational aspirations and plans to migrate at the lower levels of community evaluation. In the case of the relationship between occupational aspirations and plans to migrate, it is almost the same as that of the higher levels of community evaluation. It is clear, however, that the instrumental variables are more predictive of plans to migrate than the community evaluation variable.

Hypothesis 10

> The total proportion of migration plans explained by low levels of community satisfaction and community evaluation and by low levels of family obligations will be considerably less than that explained by educational and occupational aspirations.

Hypotheses 7, 8 and 9 asserted that, (1) low community satisfaction would lead to plans to migrate whether or not aspirations would be achievable locally; (2) negative evaluation of community social provisions also would lead to plans to migrate irrespective of other factors; and (3) high family obligations would lead to plans to remain in the community irrespective of beliefs about the ability of achieving such aspirations there. As shown earlier, these hypotheses were not supported and they operate only on the part of those who plan to stay. Among those who plan to migrate, the instrumental variables and the beliefs about the fulfillment of these aspirations locally are more influential on decisions than any other variables.

The intent of hypothesis 10, however, is the confirmation of conclusions resulting from testing hypotheses 7, 8 and 9. Data relevant to this hypothesis is presented in Appendix C, along with data presented in Tables 20 to 25 revealed that: (1) educational and occupational aspirations and the beliefs about the fulfillment of these aspirations in the local community are far more predictive of plans to migrate than any other variable used in this study; (2) low levels of community satisfaction, negative attitudes toward community social provisions and non/slight family obligations were not as predictive of migration plans as expected, and did not counteract the effects of the inability of the local community to fulfill such aspirations on the part of those who plan to migrate; (3) the non-instrumental variables are related to the educational and occupational aspiration variables. Those who have high family obligations tend to aspire to lower educational and occupational levels - 60.9 and 62.0 percent, respectively, (Appendix C, Tables 3 and 8), as compared to those who have high aspirations and believe that they can achieve these aspirations locally, 25.6 percent in the case of educational aspirations and 23.2 in the case of occupational aspirations. Those who are relatively dissatisfied with their community and have negative attitudes toward the facilities provided locally tend to be respondents who believe that they unquestionably cannot fulfill their aspirations locally. In sum, the independent variables are intercorrelated with each other, as the data presented in Appendix C reveals.

Certain conclusions can be reached at this point. First, these intercorrelations provide some indications that the variables,

community satisfaction and community social provisions, are not highly related, and the variation in their scores apparently results from the evaluation by respondents of the adequacy of the community's educational and occupational opportunities. If the respondents perceive that their educational and occupational aspirations can be fulfilled locally, they will tend to be satisfied with the community and tend to like it better. If they believe that their aspirations cannot be achieved locally, they will tend to dislike their community. Second, although educational and occupational aspirations are highly correlated with each other (Gamma = .634), occupational aspirations unlike educational aspirations are highly related with the other variables. Also the distribution of cases among the values of the variable is such that there are too many cases in the high and intermediate occupational category and very few in the low category. For these reasons, this variable must be excluded from an analogue of multiple regression model. The explanation of variance, however, was increased slightly when this variable is dropped from the model (50.4 percent of the variance was explained as compared to only 50.1 when all the variables are regressed).

Hypothesis 11

H_0: Differences in the levels of educational aspiration will be unrelated to levels of occupational aspirations.

H_1: Educational aspirations will be directly related to occupational aspirations.

Hypothesis 12

H_0: The strength of the relationship between educational aspiration and migration plans will not vary by levels of occupational aspiration.

H_1: The higher the level of occupational aspiration the greater the relationship between educational aspiration and migration plans.

It is certain at this point that educational and occupational aspirations are more predictive of migration plans than any of the other variables. The intent of hypotheses 11 and 12, however, is to ascertain whether educational aspirations play a greater role in migration planning at higher levels of occupational aspiration. In other words, of the two independent variables, which is more predictive of migration plans, given the fact that the type and amount of educational training aspired to by respondents is determined by the kind of occupation aspired to? This proposition would seem especially true in Libya where the educational system is tied to the occupational structure; that is to say, if a student aspires to an engineering career, then he has to go to a college of engineering. In this sense, however, it should be remembered that at first we are dealing with correlations between two independent variables and inferring from correlation to cause. Second, in hypothesis 12, we are concerned with the "cause" of migration in a more direct sense.

The data pertaining to hypothesis 11 are presented in Table 26. As revealed by the Gamma statistics (.634), there is a clear

Table 26

The relationship between educational and occupational aspirations

Levels of Educational Aspirations		Levels of Occupational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High
Low		59.2	13.0	8.9
Medium		29.6	16.9	20.3
High		11.2	70.1	70.8
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	98	77	315

Gamma = .634

positive relationship between occupational and educational aspirations. The null hypothesis, therefore, must be rejected and the alternative is supported. The higher the level of occupational aspirations the greater the type and amount of education aspired to and the greater the tendency that such higher aspirations cannot be fulfilled locally. Over 70 percent of those who indicated that they aspire to higher professional occupations such as engineer, physician and the like, intend to go for further education, college or beyond. For those who aspire to occupations such as primary school teacher, government official, farming and the like, 59.2 percent do not intend to go for further education. They more likely terminate their educational career or engage in teacher training which is provided in the local community.

Given this positive correlation between these two independent variables and the fact supported earlier that educational and occupational aspirations are positively related to migration plans, the question then is which of these two independent variables is more predictive of migration plans? How are the beliefs about the fulfillment of such aspirations related to migration? Hypothesis 12, as stated earlier, deals with these two questions.

Table 27 contains the data bearing on hypothesis 12. Since the levels of occupational and educational aspirations are so highly correlated as shown above, the former will be used here as the control variable. The null hypothesis must clearly be rejected, since there are major differences among occupational levels in the relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans. However, the alternative hypothesis was not confirmed because the differences are in a direction opposite to that predicted. Educational aspiration is in fact more predictive of migration plans (for those who intend to migrate) than any value of the control variable. Looking at the table from the point of view of those who plan to stay, the alternative hypothesis receives some support. Those who have no intention of going for further education and who aspire to lower occupational levels plan to remain in much greater proportions than do respondents from any other level of occupational aspiration. The respective figures are 63.8 percent for the low level of occupational aspirations, 60.0 percent for the medium, and 39.3 for the high level professional occupations. The relatively greater proportions of those having low levels of educational and occupational aspirations

Table 27

The relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans by levels of occupational aspirations

Migration Plans	Levels of Occupational Aspirations								
	Low Level			Medium Level			High Level		
	Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations			Educational Aspirations		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Definite plans to stay	63.8	24.1	0.0	60.0	61.5	3.7	39.3	10.9	3.6
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate	34.5	65.5	27.3	40.0	15.4	24.1	28.6	53.1	64.7
Definite plans to migrate	1.7	10.3	72.7	0.0	23.1	72.2	32.1	35.9	71.7
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	58	29	11	10	13	54	28	64	223

Gamma = .807 Gamma = .837 Gamma = .608

plan to stay because of their definite belief that their occupational aspirations can be fulfilled locally and that the educational facilities are probably sufficient to meet their aspirations. On the other hand, there are minor differences among those with high educational aspirations who plan to migrate at all levels of occupational aspirations. They plan to migrate in approximately equal proportions for all occupational levels - 72.7, 72.2, 71.7 percent for high aspiration respondents at lower, medium, and high levels of occupational aspirations, respectively.

However, the results of the analysis of "conditional migration" above revealed that: (1) the educational aspirations variable is more predictive of migration plans than the occupational one; (2) if occupational and educational aspirations are achievable locally, the lower occupational and educational aspirers are much more likely than others to remain in the home community; and (3) far greater proportions of the higher educational aspirers than of others would not remain in the home community under any conditions.

Structural Factors Influencing the Independent Variables

1. The Cultural Orientation of Respondents' Families and Factors Influencing Migration Plans

Hypothesis 13

H_0: Differences in (1) educational and occupational aspirations, (2) community satisfaction, (3) community evaluation and (4) migration plans will be unrelated to the cultural orientation of respondents' families.

H_1: Respondents from traditional families will have (1) lower levels of educational and occupational aspirations, (2) lower levels of community satisfaction, (3) positive attitude toward community social provisions and (4) lower tendencies to migrate than will respondents from modern families.

The results bearing on this hypothesis are presented in Tables 28 to 32. The traditional-modern continuum scale is trichotomized, and those respondents who score low on the scale were then classified as belonging to traditional families, whereas those who scored high on the scale were considered modern.

As Tables 28 and 29 indicate, the null hypothesis is rejected in the case of educational and occupational aspirations, as there are differences between those from traditional and modern backgrounds on these two variables. The alternative hypothesis is clearly confirmed with respect to these two variables, since a larger proportion of those from traditional families aspire to lower educational and occupational levels. For the former variable, 38.3 percent of those from traditional families aspire to lower levels of education or have no intention of going for further education beyond high school, compared to only 11.6 percent of those from modern families. Conversely, over 66 percent of those from modern families aspire to higher education beyond high school, while 34.8 percent of those from traditional background aspire to the same level. The same pattern holds for those two different cultural orientation groups in regard to occupational aspiration. Here almost the same proportion from traditional

Table 28

The relationship between the cultural orientation of respondents' families and educational aspiration

Levels of Educational Aspiration		Cultural Orientation: Traditional	Medium	Modern
Low		38.3	17.0	11.6
Medium		27.0	20.6	21.7
High		34.8	62.4	66.7
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	115	141	198

Gamma = -.372

Table 29

The relationship between the cultural orientation of respondents' families and occupational aspiration

Levels of Occupational Aspiration		Cultural Orientation: Traditional	Medium	Modern
Low		48.7	16.3	8.2
Medium		16.8	12.8	17.9
High		34.5	70.9	73.8
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	113	141	195

Gamma = -.480

families who aspired to a high level of education (34.8%) aspire to professional occupations (34.5%). This figure may be compared to

73.8 percent from modern families. The pattern is reversed, however, in the case of low levels of occupation such as clerk, primary school teacher and the like. While only 8.2 percent of those from modern families aspire to these jobs, the percentage is almost six times as great (48.7%) for those from traditional families.

In regard to community satisfaction, a consistent difference between "traditionals" and "moderns" prevails. However, the differences between these two groups are not as great as in the case of educational and occupational aspirations. As can be seen from Table 30, a larger proportion of respondents from modern families have low community satisfaction as compared to those from traditional families - 51.3 percent for the former and 31.4 percent for the latter. Only a slightly higher proportion of traditionals, however, (24.8%) have higher satisfaction than moderns (18.0%). The null hypothesis must be rejected since differences between these two groups exist and the alternative is supported since these differences are in the direction predicted.

In regard to community evaluation, the same trend as that shown in the case of community satisfaction holds true. Here again the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative is supported. A slightly larger proportion of the moderns than the traditionals have a negative attitude toward their community's social provisions - 60.9 and 47.4 percent, respectively. Over 21 percent of respondents from traditional families compared to 15.1 percent of those from modern families, show a positive attitude toward the community social provisions (See Table 31).

Table 30

The relationship between the cultural orientation of respondents' families and community satisfaction

Levels of Community Satisfaction		Cultural Orientation		
		Traditional	Medium	Modern
Low (0-3)		31.4	38.8	51.3
Med. (4-6)		43.8	33.6	30.7
High (7-9)		24.8	27.6	18.0
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	105	134	189

Gamma = -.211

Table 31

The relationship between the cultural orientation of respondents' families and community evaluation

Levels of Community Evaluation		Cultural Orientation		
		Traditional	Medium	Modern
Negative (0-3)		47.4	61.2	60.9
Med. (4-6)		30.7	18.7	24.0
Positive (7-9)		21.9	20.1	15.1
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	114	139	192

Gamma = -.201

Finally, with respect to the question as to who will decide to migrate from these two groups, Table 32 indicates that a greater proportion of respondents from modern families intend to leave the community as compared to their counterparts from traditional families. The percentage of those who intend to migrate increases as one moves from the traditional category to the modern one. For those who are definitely intending to remain in the local community, the proportion of those respondents from a traditional background is greater than those from a modern background.

Overall then, consistent differences between the two groups exist in regard to the four variables just discussed and the null hypothesis, therefore, is rejected. The alternative, on the other hand, is confirmed. Traditionals have lower educational and occupational aspirations, relatively lower community satisfaction, and relatively positive attitude toward the community social provisions. As an apparent consequence, fewer of the traditionals plan to migrate.

Table 32

The relationship between the cultural orientation of the respondents' families and migration plans

Migration Plans		Cultural Orientation		
		Traditional	Medium	Modern
Definite plans to stay		34.8	19.0	8.0
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		39.1	29.6	29.6
Definite plans to migrate		26.1	51.4	62.3
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	115	142	199

Gamma = -.428

2. Social Status of Respondents' Families and Factors Influencing Migration Plans

Hypothesis 14

H_0: Differences in (1) educational and occupational aspirations and (2) migration plans will be unrelated to the social status of respondents' families.

H_1: Respondents from families whose father holds a manual (skilled and unskilled) or a service occupation will tend to have (1) lower levels of educational and occupational aspiration, and (2) lower tendencies to migrate than respondents from families whose father hold higher or lower professional jobs.

Tables 33 to 35 contain data bearing on this hypothesis. The results obtained with respect to the effects of family social status on the educational aspirations of the respondents (Table 33) indicate that there are differences in the educational aspiration levels which correspond to differences in fathers' occupational status. Further, these differences are in the direction expected. The null hypothesis, therefore, must be rejected and the alternative is clearly supported. The proportion of respondents who have lower levels of educational aspiration is greater for those whose fathers hold manual and unskilled jobs than for any other category. The proportion decreases as one moves toward higher occupational categories, or from 24.7 percent for manual and unskilled to 6.8 percent for higher and lower professional categories. For those who aspire to higher levels of education, the proportions increase from 52.5 percent for those whose fathers hold manual and

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Table 33

The relationships between the social status of the respondents' families and respondents' levels of educational aspirations

Respondent's Level of Educational Aspirations		Father's Occupation: Manual and Unskilled	Semi-Skilled and Skilled	Intermediate Non-Manual	Higher and Lower Prof.
Low		24.7	22.1	15.3	6.8
Medium		22.8	23.0	22.7	13.6
High		52.5	54.9	62.0	79.7
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	158	113	150	59

Gamma = .230

unskilled to 79.7 percent for those whose fathers hold professional jobs. As Table 34 reveals, the same trend recurs in the case of occupational aspirations. That is, 26.6 percent of those who aspire to lower levels of occupational aspirations come from households whose heads hold manual jobs as compared to only 7.0 percent for those from the professional group. Conversely, 75.4 percent of those who aspire to high occupational levels had fathers with high occupational status. This compares with only 57.1 percent who aspire to high occupational levels whose fathers have low occupational status.

The results concerning migration plans are presented in Table 35. In this case, also, the null hypothesis has been rejected and the alternative hypothesis is confirmed. There is a higher proportion

Table 34

The relationship between the social status of the respondents' families and respondents' levels of occupational aspiration

Respondent's Level of Occupational Aspiration		Father's Occupation: Manual and Unskilled	Semi-Skilled and Skilled	Intermediate Non Manual	Higher and Lower Prof.
Low		26.6	25.2	15.7	7.0
Medium		16.2	17.1	11.8	17.5
High		57.1	57.7	72.5	75.4
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	154	111	153	57

Gamma = .240

from the manual and unskilled category who plan to remain in the home community than from any other group. For those who are planning to migrate, the proportion of those from the professional group is much greater than those from any other group.

Overall, then, consistent differences occur between the four groups in terms of their educational and occupational aspirations and their migration plans. And these differences are in the direction predicted in each case. Hence, those whose fathers hold manual or unskilled occupations have lower levels of educational and occupational aspirations than have those whose fathers hold professional jobs. As an apparent consequence, relatively fewer of them plan to migrate.

Table 35

The relationship between the social status of the respondents' families and respondents' migration plans

Migration Plans		Father's Occupation: Manual and Un-Skilled	Semi-Skilled and Skilled	Intermediate Non Manual	Higher and Lower Prof.
Definite intention to stay		21.5	21.9	9.8	8.5
Indefinite whether to stay or leave		37.3	38.6	30.1	20.3
Definite intention to migrate		41.1	39.5	60.1	71.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	158	114	153	59

Gamma = .292

3. Respondents' Birth Order and Factors Influencing Migration Plans

Hypothesis 15

H_0: Differences in (1) educational and occupational aspirations and (2) migration plans will be unrelated to the position of the respondent in the family.

H_1: Respondents holding higher birth order position in the family will tend to have (1) lower educational aspirations, (2) lower occupational aspirations and (3) lower tendencies to migrate, than respondents holding lower position (third oldest or more).

The results pertinent to this hypothesis are presented in Tables 36 to 38. The null hypothesis is rejected in the case of

educational and occupational aspirations, since there are differences between the respondents' position on these two variables. The alternative hypothesis is clearly rejected since these differences are in the direction opposite to that predicted. That is, the proportions of those who aspire to lower educational and occupational levels are relatively greater for those who have lower birth order positions in the family (third or more). Only 14.5 and 16.9 percent of those who are the oldest in the family have lower educational and occupational aspirations, respectively. In contrast, 21.3 and 24.0 percent of the youngest aspire to the same low levels. Even if we concentrate our observations on those who have higher levels of educational and occupational aspirations, the alternative hypothesis does not receive any support in that the same trend just stated holds true for this group as well. There are relatively greater proportions of respondents who intend to go for higher education and who aspire to professional jobs among those who are oldest rather than the youngest in their families.

In regard to migration plans, however, the null hypothesis is again rejected but the alternative received some support. Over 51 percent of the respondents having low birth order positions are planning to migrate, as compared to 41.2 percent of those who are the oldest in their families. Among those who are planning to remain in the home community, the differences between the lower and higher birth order groups, however, are insignificant, their respective proportions being 17.6 percent and 17.3 percent.

Table 36

The relationship between the respondents' birth order and their educational aspirations

Levels of Educational Aspiration		Respondents' Birth Order: Third position or more (Low)	Second Position	First Position (High)
Low		21.3	18.7	14.5
Medium		21.3	19.6	25.3
High		57.4	61.7	60.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	305	107	83

Gamma = -.075

Table 37

The relationship between the respondents' birth order and their occupational aspiration

Levels of Occupational Aspiration		Respondents' Birth Order: Third position or more (Low)	Second Position	First Position (High)
Low		24.0	11.2	16.9
Medium		13.7	18.7	16.9
High		62.3	70.1	66.3
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	300	107	83

Gamma = -.130

Overall, the null hypothesis must be rejected and the alternative also cannot be accepted. This unexpected finding may be due to the greater proportions of respondents who fall in the third and younger category as compared to the other two. The third and younger group accounted for 62 percent of all respondents whereas the other two groups accounted only for 38 percent of all respondents.

Table 38

The relationship between the respondents' birth order and migration plans

Migration Plans		Respondents' Birth Order: Third Position or More (Low)	Second Position	First Position (High)
Definite plans to stay		17.3	16.8	17.6
Indefinite whether to stay or migrate		31.3	30.8	41.2
Definite plans to migrate		51.5	52.3	41.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	307	107	85

Gamma = .068

This hypothesis which considered the relationship between birth order of respondent and plans to migrate concludes the chapter concerned with major findings. The findings will be summarized and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Migration research has usually been in the hands of demographers whose major interests have been the analysis of migration streams and differential migration patterns. While such studies are important, they yield only fractional knowledge about the process of migration. Demographers fail to trace the migration process both at the individual and the social-psychological levels, specifically from the attitudinal point of view. Consequently, a wealth of material dealing with demographic and ecological explanations of migration are accumulated, but virtually nothing is available on the attitudes associated with migration. The concern of this study, therefore, is with social-psychological factors thought to explain plans to migrate among rural youth in Libya.

The theoretical framework set forth in Chapter Two was utilized, from which a set of hypotheses was derived that was expected to help explain migration decision-making among young people. In Chapter Four the results of the empirical study of the relationship between certain attitudinal and aspiration variables and migration plans were presented. Also explored was the manner in which those independent attitudinal variables were structured by the social context in which the respondent lives, and in turn affect migration plans. In this

chapter, the results will be summarized and the impact of the results on the theoretical framework will be examined. Some limitations of the study will also be pointed out.

Summary of Results

In tracing the process of migration from a social-psychological point of view, the study demonstrated that the five independent variables were related to migration plans among high school students. The level of educational aspiration as proposed was directly related to migration plans. A high proportion of respondents who indicated that they were going to pursue further education beyond high school tend to leave their community after graduation for a destination where educational facilities are available. The data also revealed that occupational aspirations were directly related to migration plans. Those who aspire to high professional occupations such as engineer, physician, and the like, plan to migrate in greater proportions than those who aspire to lower occupations such as government official, primary school teacher, and the like. The strength of the relationship between this variable and migration plans as measured by the Gamma statistic was not as great as that between educational aspirations and migration plans.

The relative predictive ability of these two independent variables on migration plans was examined. It was proposed that since the educational system in Libya is tied to the occupational structure, then the relationship between educational aspirations and migration plans will be greater at the higher levels of occupational aspiration. Although these two independent variables are highly

correlated, educational aspirations were more predictive of migration plans than any value of occupational aspirations. In contrast, occupational aspirations were more predictive of those who plan to stay in the local community. That is to say, those who aspire to low occupations believe that the educational facilities in the local community are sufficient to fulfill their occupational aspirations and, therefore, plan not to leave the community.

Community satisfaction as an attitudinal variable refers to the evaluation by respondents of how satisfactory local social relations are and was found to be negatively related to migration plans. If respondents have a low regard for their community, they plan to migrate in much greater proportions than those who have a high regard for their community. While the strength of the relationship between occupational aspiration and migration plans ranked third, the gammas for the relationships between occupational aspiration and migration plans and between community satisfaction and migration plans were about the same. Furthermore, even at lower levels of community satisfaction, such educational and occupational aspirations play a major role in migration plans. In fact, when community satisfaction is used as a control variable, educational and occupational aspirations have a higher correlation with migration plans (those who intend to leave) at low compared to higher levels of community satisfaction. However, among those who are definitely planning to remain in the community, educational and occupational aspirations have less influence at lower levels than any other value of the control variable. Whether educational and occupational aspirations can or cannot be fulfilled locally makes less difference in plans to stay at

home, if respondents have lower regard for community than for any other value of community satisfaction.

Family obligations was the fourth variable which has a strong negative relationship with migration plans. Of the five independent variables, it was the fourth most predictive of migration plans among high school seniors. This variable refers to the work role or the help expected by the family from its sons. If respondents perceive that their families have work or help expectations for them which can only be fulfilled by staying in the local community, their own plans to migrate will be retarded. In other words, respondents having high or medium work or help obligations will plan to remain in the home community to carry out such obligations to a much greater extent than those who have no or slight work obligations within the family. The latter group, on the other hand, will plan to migrate in greater proportions than the former. The presence of such obligations was thought to lead to plans to remain in the local community, irrespective of the level of educational and occupational aspirations. It was proposed that the relationship between such aspirations and migration plans on the part of those who intend to carry out an act of migration will be smaller for respondents having medium and high family obligations than their counterparts who have slight or no obligations. As the data revealed, however, this did not prove to be true. If respondents believe that their aspirations cannot be fulfilled locally, they will plan to migrate irrespective of the level of family obligations. High levels of obligation, therefore, did not counteract the influence of educational and occupational aspirations on plans to leave the local community. On the other

hand, those who have low levels of aspirations and believe that such aspirations can be achieved locally percentages increase from no obligation to medium/high obligations. That is to say, when educational and occupational aspirations can be satisfied locally, a high level of obligation will lead to plans to remain in the home community in much greater proportions than is true of others. It is worth noting, however, that the occupational aspiration variable differs from the educational variable in the sense that the percentage of those who aspire to professional jobs increases as one moves from lower levels of obligation to higher; in contrast, in the case of higher educational aspirations, proportions decrease. An explanation that one might give for the former is that this group will expect to migrate at a later stage when such obligations are fulfilled or when someone else will carry them out.

The last and the least predictive variable related to plans to migrate was the attitude toward the community's social provisions. Data presented in Chapter Four showed a negative correlation between this variable and migration plans. Those who evaluated negatively their community's social provisions, such as educational facilities, roads, shopping centers, etc. will plan to migrate in much greater proportions than those who indicated that they were satisfied with such facilities. Like the other non-instrumental variables (community satisfaction and family obligation), educational and occupational aspirations predominate in the migration decisions of rural youth, when community evaluation is used as a control variable. It was thought that the relationship between educational and occupational aspirations would be weaker at low levels of community

evaluation than at higher levels. In other words, those who evaluate their community's social provisions negatively will plan to migrate irrespective of their aspirations. However, this did not prove to be true. At lower levels of community evaluation, educational and occupational aspirations played a major role in migration plans on the part of those who intend to leave the local community. The pattern, thus, is similar to that demonstrated above between educational and occupational aspirations and migration plans where family obligation was used as a control variable.

The precedence of the respondents' aspirations over their attitude toward their community's social provisions in explaining migration plans was further confirmed by answers elicited from those who are definitely planning to migrate and those who were not sure whether to leave or stay (73.4% of all respondents). Of these, 26.3 percent said they would stay in the home community if their educational aspirations could be provided there, compared to 12.7 percent who indicated that they would remain provided that their occupational aspiration could be fulfilled there. Those who said they would remain in the home community if both educational and occupational aspirations could be achievable there amounted to 51.8 percent. The remaining 9.2 percent indicated that they would stay only if the community's social provisions were improved.

Structural Factors Influencing the Dependent and Independent Variables

Cultural orientation of the respondents' family, socio-economic status as measured by the father's occupation and the birth order of

the respondent were the major structural variables thought to influence the individual's aspirations and attitudes, and in turn would influence migration plans.

The cultural orientation of the respondents' family was measured by means of a ten item scale developed as a part of the analysis. Those families scoring low on the scale were then classified as being "traditional," whereas those scoring high on the scale were considered "modern." The cultural background of respondents proved to have an influence in shaping the respondent's attitudes and plans with respect to his future life style. Respondents from traditional families had significantly lower levels of occupational aspirations. They also aspired to lower occupations compared with their counterparts from modern families. Such occupations such as clerk, primary school teacher, and farming do not necessitate these respondents to go for further education since they are provided in the local community. Thus, respondents with this background tend not to have higher levels of educational aspirations. Respondents from modern families, on the other hand, had significantly higher levels of occupational aspiration. They aspire to professional occupations such as physician, engineer, lawyer and the like and also tend to want to go for further education beyond high school. In regard to their satisfaction with the relationships in the community, respondents from traditional families had higher levels of community satisfaction than did others. In contrast, higher proportions of those from modern families were dissatisfied with their community relationships. The same pattern, however, holds for community evaluation, where traditionals tended to evaluate the facilities provided in the community more positively

than did others.

As a result of differences between these two groups in their educational and occupational aspirations, and in their attitude toward their community's relationships and social provisions, those from modern families have greater tendencies to migrate than others. Hence, those from traditional families tend to remain in the local community in a greater proportion than others. This, however, is understandable since those who aspire to low occupations are those who are not going for further education, either by terminating their schooling career or by attending the teaching institute provided in the area which would prepare them to be primary and preparatory school teachers. Those from modern families, on the other hand, who aspire to higher levels of occupations tend to go for further education in order to reach these occupations, and therefore have to leave their community to pursue these goals.

Socio-economic status, as measured by father's occupation, was the second structural variable which was thought to be directly related to rural adolescents' educational and occupational aspirations, and therefore their migration plans. Our data seemed to support this assumption in that a greater proportion of those who come from families whose fathers hold higher or lower professional jobs aspire to higher levels of educational and occupational aspiration than any other subgroup. As an apparent consequence, they have greater tendency to migrate than others. In contrast, those who aspire to lower educational and occupational aspiration levels are those whose head of household has a manual occupation. These

respondents, however, tend to stay in the local community in higher proportions than others.

The third structural factor was the respondents' birth order. The research results revealed that this variable did not play a major role in shaping who goes for higher education or who leaves or stays in the home community. Although there were differences between respondents with respect to their aspirations and migration plans, these differences were not significant and in fact were in the direction opposite to that predicted. A greater proportion of respondents who are the eldest in their families aspire to higher levels of educational and occupational aspirations than others, but they plan to migrate in smaller proportions than others. This inconsistent finding, however, is attributed to the very high proportion of respondents whose position in the family is the third or younger. Almost 62 percent of all respondents were third or younger, compared to only 17 percent who were the eldest in their family.

Conclusions

In the previous section a summary of the results of this study was presented. These results indicate that the theoretical framework used allowed one to predict migration plans among adolescents in a rural area in Libya. Furthermore, the theoretical model which guided this research has generally been validated in a very different culture from the one in which it had been tested previously.

An overriding assumption made in this research, however, was that migration planning and intent to migrate are voluntary in nature. That is, the decision is made by the individual, that he

is not migrating with the family in accordance with a decision made by parents. It is also assumed that parents and other family members are remaining in the home community. With respect to the variables influencing migration planning, one of the basic assumptions guiding the study was that adolescents' instrumental aspirations--occupational and educational aspirations--would play a major role in the decision to migrate among rural adolescents in Libya, given the fact that the country is going through a transitional period. That is, social, economic and political changes are taking place which resulted in the need for professional, skilled and highly trained personnel. This in turn inspired many young people to leave their community and to seek higher education and consequently higher social mobility.

From a comparative point of view, it was clearly demonstrated in this research that instrumental aspirations, in particular educational and occupational aspirations, are more predictive of migration plans among rural adolescents in Libya than any other variables examined. This finding coincides with the great majority of American studies as to the motivations of adolescents and rural migrants which show the importance of instrumental aspirations in determining migration plans, despite the fact that contrary hypotheses were often proposed. The salience of instrumental aspirations in predicting migration is understandable in the case of Libya which is going through a transition from a traditional to a modernized society. In regard to the relationship between family obligations and migration plans, the findings from this study differ markedly from the

majority of American studies. Whereas family obligations are important in predicting migration plans among rural Libyan youth, they are of relatively minor significance in determining migration in modern American society.

In regard to the non-instrumental variable, on the other hand, it was hypothesized that community satisfaction, defined as "attachments to particular people, and to style of relationships in the home community" (RPC, NC-18, 1957:2), when used as a control variable, would play only a minor role in migration planning. In operationalizing the community satisfaction variable, it was assumed that variations in the level of satisfaction among adolescents could result from two sources. It could result, as Williams (1961) suggested, from the criteria utilized to evaluate the level of satisfactoriness of community relationships. If these criteria or values were of a "modern" order, then the evaluation of the local community, which is largely traditional in structure, would be less favorable than would be the case if traditional values applied. The former type of evaluation could lead to an estrangement from the traditional social structure and culture of the rural community on the part of rural adolescents. Variations in the level of satisfaction with the local community could also result from the process in which the adolescents compare their own situation with that of significant others, leading to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the local community. Feelings of dissatisfaction would in turn lead to estrangement from particular people and relationships in the home community. The effects of both are assumed to be effectively indexed

by the community satisfaction scale.

These two sources of community satisfaction were assumed not to be widespread in the rural areas of Libya, and were assumed to play only a minor role in migration planning. Social mobility motives, however, were assumed to take precedence over the community satisfaction variable. The results of this research support this point of view. When community satisfaction was used as a control variable, the relationship between educational and occupational aspirations and migration plans is stronger at low levels of community satisfaction than at any other values. This was also true with respect to the other two non-instrumental variables. These findings were further supported in that 73 percent (369) of the respondents who indicated they are definitely planning to migrate or who are seriously considering leaving the home community, 51.8 percent out of these respondents indicated they would remain in the home community if their educational and occupational aspirations could be fulfilled locally. On the other hand, 26.3 percent would only stay if their educational aspirations were provided locally. And another 9.2 percent said that they would remain there only if the home community's social provisions were brought up to their expectations. This latter reason cannot be considered as a direct proof of cultural or structural estrangement with the community, but rather of the intrusion of other instrumental aspirations, such as better schools, libraries, roads, and other facilities. At the same time, the relative backwardness of these social provisions may be a direct consequence of how the community is structured.

As the literature discussed in Chapter Three reveals, such dissatisfaction with the community relationships is more effective in causing migration in the industrial societies such as the United States and other Western countries. However, this pattern is thought to be unlikely in the rural communities of Libya where traditional rural values are widespread. However, instrumental aspirations were proven in this study to take precedence in explaining migration plans among adolescents. Thus, if the rural values that presently support the rural social structure were to change or vanish (due to the process of modernization and development aimed at every single community), these conclusions may have to be reconsidered. Migration then would take place even if instrumental aspirations could be satisfied locally. A comparative study of a number of rural communities varying along continua of the level of development and modernization and educational and occupational opportunity structure, would lead to very fruitful findings about the dimensions on which migrants are selected, and should be considered in future research.

The usefulness of structural variables was demonstrated in this study. The adolescents' aspirations and attitudes were proven to be structured by the cultural orientation and socio-economic status of their families. The cultural values of rural families tend to lead to different evaluations of such aspirations. It was evident from this study that those respondents from families of traditional background have lower levels of educational and occupational aspiration, higher levels of community satisfaction, and tend to evaluate the community social provisions more positively than their peers from families of

modern background. And as a result of these differences, a higher proportion of the former group plan to remain in the home community. These findings tended to assume the same pattern with respect to socio-economic status. The appropriate interpretation that might be suggested for these findings is that traditional families, due to their value system, tended to have a low value for higher education which could be complemented by purely economic factors such as the need for immediate income from the adolescent to support the family would lead to either termination of schooling and engaging in an occupation which is provided locally and, therefore, remain in the home community. However, the reader should be cautioned that there is no direct evidence for this interpretation from this research, but rather an indirect support is found where a greater proportion of those from traditional families who plan to remain in the home community indicated that they aspire to occupations that are provided locally, as compared to those from modern families who plan to migrate. For those from modern and high socio-economic status who are planning to stay, one could speculate that a complex of social mobility aspirations and attitudes intervened other than educational and occupational aspiration. Future research, however, should incorporate directly the views and evaluation of the adolescents' families on such aspiration and migration plans.

The role of the birth order of the respondent in educational and occupational aspirations and migration plans was not anticipated. Those from higher and lower birth orders tend to have almost equal aspirations. In other words, there was no significant differences among the two groups in their aspiration and migration plans. Further,

this variable did not play a major role in selecting who would go for higher education and, of course, who would leave the community.

In conclusion, the theoretical model which guided this research study has generally been validated, although some modifications are necessary at various points. Educational and occupational aspirations are the major variables involved in the migration planning of rural adolescents. Due to the rapid social changes through which Libya is passing, and the need for professional, well trained and skilled personnel, the level of these aspirations has been rising continuously over the past twenty years, and the pace has been accelerating since the early seventies. On the other hand, rural economic structures have remained relatively static and are not keeping up with these aspirations. The situation in which there are discrepancies between aspirations and opportunities in the rural communities has resulted in increasing rates of migration.

Some aspirations other than educational and occupational aspirations have also been shown to be important and should be considered in future research. Those relating to the community's social provisions have proven to be important. Community social provisions, however, are important only to those with high levels of educational and occupational aspirations. And since the educational and occupational aspirations of these particular respondents cannot realistically be fulfilled within small rural communities or rural trade centers, these aspirations alone would predict migration.

Limitations of the Study

Although the way the study was designed generally proved to be relatively satisfactory in terms of providing some explanation to questions concerning migration plans among rural adolescents, there were, however, some limitations in this study which should be noted here so that future research may be strengthened.

One of these limitations is the fact that this study is limited to one area of Libya which consists of one center (Gharian town) and its surrounding communities. A comparative study of a number of rural communities that vary widely in social and economic attributes, such as the structure of the educational and occupational opportunities and the level of development and modernization, would more adequately test the basic assumption of the study that such variation would lead to variation in the type of migrants leaving these communities. The effect of variations in the structure of adolescents' aspirations would also be observed in such a study.

Still another limitation concerned the scale used to measure the attitudes toward community's social provisions. The scale was constructed in too summary a manner, insufficient attention having been given to the universe of relevant items, and to the selection of items from this universe. It was assumed that "community's social provisions" were viewed as a single dimension by respondents. However, the items included in the scale varied very widely in reference. Some of the items referred to recreational facilities, others referred to the schools, roads and shopping facilities. It is highly likely that this is a multidimensional construct, however. Any

future research, therefore, should attempt to separate these dimensions from one another. This could be done by devising a number of scales for each area as identified by the researcher.

Some of the same problems arise for community satisfaction. The scale contains two distinct ideas. The first six items refer to value or cultural differences among adolescents, which leads to differences in evaluations of satisfactoriness of the local community relationships. The remaining five items refer to feelings of relative deprivation in these relationships. As a result of this distinction, the relationship between the conceptual definition of the variable and its operationalization is rather thin. It is, therefore, appropriate in future research to treat these two dimensions separately.

The measurement of the occupational aspirations of the respondents was a problematic one. The scale used was not a sufficient index of social mobility in that the majority of the respondents clustered around one or two particular groups of occupations. Given the scarcity of information at the local community level concerning occupational opportunities, and also the idea that the educational system in Libya was tied to the occupational structure posed some problems in measuring this variable. The respondent was asked in an open type question about his ideal and realistic future occupation. Responses tended to be centered around certain occupations that the respondents were familiar with. It is strongly recommended that in future research a list of occupations should be given to the respondents to choose from. The other limitation concerning this variable

has to do with the scale used to order the responses in relative prestige. The items were presented to the respondents according to their prestige level by judges. This method, however, is limited in its ability to discriminate in prestige rankings between occupations in the upper and middle levels of the prestige hierarchy. It is, therefore, strongly recommended that if this method is to be used in future research that the items must be presented in purely random order. It is also possible that a North-Hatt scale type should be constructed to more adequately measure this variable. Despite the limitations of the design just mentioned, the study contributes some significant knowledge concerning social psychological factors in migration phenomena.

Policy Implications

The findings from this study have utility for policy makers in Libya, particularly in suggesting answers to persistent questions raised by the development planners. Among those questions are: should students be permitted to freely leave their rural communities, in the process of developing rapidly, in order to reside in the burgeoning cities? What policies should be devised to properly control and manage the outward flow of young people? Do the local and national developmental plans and projects match the educational and occupational aspirations and plans of young people?

From a practical standpoint, educational and developmental programs aimed at helping young people make intelligent lifetime career decisions must be reckoned with, and must be tailored to the social-economic conditions and needs of the local communities and the

nation. The study suggests that educational administrators, guidance counselors and other school officials should initiate and institute programs and curricula that are sensitive to the local-national balance between educational and personnel needs of a developing society. In this respect, career orientation programs as well as programs dealing with the development process and plans, must be integrated with the school curriculum.

Further, this study implies that vocational education programs to meet local and/or national labor market needs should be introduced in the study area. Such programs should receive major emphasis and should coincide with the introduction of some industries in the area.

APPENDIX A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

What This Study Is About

Every year thousands of students in high school like yourself face the problems of choosing a life career and of selecting an area where they would like to live. The purpose of this study, hence, is to gain a clearer understanding of these problems faced by young people who are about to leave high school. You and only you can provide the answers. By carefully and sincerely filling out this questionnaire, you will show us how these important problems look from your point of view. This information will be of great value in developing programs for future high school students.

Please follow the directions

1. Read each item carefully. Then answer it to the best of your knowledge.

2. Be sure to answer each question completely. The outcome of the study will be successful only if you are careful to provide accurate and complete information.

3. Do not hesitate to ask for help from members of the project staff if you are in doubt or do not understand an item.

FIRST: GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF

1. Your name_____

2. Your address_____

_____

3. How old are you? _____(Years)

Your date of birth:_____
(Month) (Day) (Year)

4. Your major in school:

( ) Science

( ) Arts and Letters

5. Do you live:

( ) on farm

( ) in the country but not on a farm

( ) in a village or town

6. With whom do you live regularly?

( ) own parents

( ) a parent and step-parent

( ) one parent only

( ) grandparents

( ) uncle or aunt

( ) others (write in who they are) _____

_____

SECOND: YOUR HOME AND PARENTS

Now we would like to have some information about your family and the place where you live.

7. Your parents are:

   ( ) both living together

   ( ) both dead

   ( ) father is dead

   ( ) mother is dead

   ( ) divorced

8. Your mother (or step-mother)

   ( ) has no job outside the home

   ( ) has a part-time job outside the home

   ( ) has a full-time job outside the home

   ( ) (mother not living or not at home)

9. Your father's main occupation: (or was, if dead or retired)

   (Specify the kind of work he does and not where he works) _____

   _____

10. Your father's part-time occupation is, at present: _____

    _____

11. If your father is self-employed (owns a farm, some kind of business or has a profession), state exactly the kind of business or profession?_____

12. If your father is a farmer, or owns a plot(s) of land, please state:

    a. Size of the farm or plot(s) in hectares: (_____)

    b. How many sheep are owned: (_____)

    c. Do your father have any tractors?

       ( ) Yes

       ( ) No

       If "Yes," how many? (_____)

13. Where was your father born?_____

14. Where was your mother born?_____

15. How old is your father (approximately)_____

16. How old is your mother (approximately)_____

17. What is the highest level of schooling completed by your father and mother?

Father		Mother
( )	a. Illiterate	( )
( )	b. Read and write	( )
( )	c. A primary school education	( )
( )	d. Some high school education	( )
( )	e. High school graduate	( )
( )	f. Some vocational education	( )
( )	g. Completed vocational education	( )
( )	h. Some college	( )
( )	i. College graduate	( )
( )	j. Other (indicate the kind)	( )

18. Indicate your father's approximate income last year?

( ) Under L.D. 999

( ) L.D 1,000 - 2,999

( ) L.D 3,000 - 3,999

( ) L.D 4,000 - 4,999

( ) L.D 5,000 - 5,999

( ) L.D 6,000 - 6,999

( ) L.D 7,000 - 7,999

( ) L.D 8,000 and over

( ) Don't know; no idea

19. How many people live in your house at home? _____

20. How many older, living brothers do you have? _____

    How many younger, living brothers do you have? _____

21. How many older, living sisters do you have? _____

    How many younger, living sisters do you have? _____

22. What type of dwelling does your family occupy?

    ( ) Villa

    ( ) Apartment

    ( ) Hoosh

    ( ) Others (specify) _____

23. How many separate rooms in your house? _____

24. What type of water source do you have in your house?

    ( ) Municipal piped water

    ( ) Shared private reservoir or well

    ( ) Own private reservoir or well

25. What type of lighting do you have in your house?

    ( ) Electricity

    ( ) Gas

    ( ) Kerosene

    ( ) Other (specify) _____

26. Do you have the following items in your house?

    a. A piped water tap? Yes ( ) No ( )

    b. Hot water on tap? Yes ( ) No ( )

    c. An indoor flush toilet? Yes ( ) No ( )

    d. A bathroom in the house? Yes ( ) No ( )

    e. A telephone? Yes ( ) No ( )

    f. A radio? Yes ( ) No ( )

g. A T.V. set? Yes ( ) No ( )

h. A washing machine? Yes ( ) No ( )

i. A kitchen range? Yes ( ) No ( )

j. An electric or gas cooker? Yes ( ) No ( )

k. Do you eat your meals in the kitchen? Yes ( ) No ( )

l. Does your family have a car? Yes ( ) No ( )

m. Do you have a carpet in the sitting room? Yes ( ) No ( )

n. Do you have linoleum on floors? Yes ( ) No ( )

If yes, which rooms? _____

27. Does your family:

a. Get a daily newspaper? Yes ( ) No ( )

b. Get a weekly magazine? Yes ( ) No ( )

c. Listen to the news every day? Yes ( ) No ( )

28. Is your father a member of any organization (Farm Federation, Labour Union)? Yes ( ) No ( )

THIRD: LEAVING YOUR HOME COMMUNITY:

All of us have feelings about the community in which we live. There are things in it that we like and things that we do not like. We want your honest opinion about the following questions as they apply to your community.

29. As a place to live soon after graduation, how well do you like your community?

a. Strongly dislike ( )

b. Dislike it ( )

c. Am indifferent ( )

d. Like it ( )

e. Am enthusiastic about it ( )

30. After you are married and have a family, how well would you like your community as a place to live?

    a. Strongly dislike it ( )

    b. Would dislike it ( )

    c. Would be indifferent ( )

    d. Would like it ( )

    e. Would be enthusiastic about it ( )

31. Do you have the intention of moving away from your community after graduation?

    ( ) Yes

    ( ) No

    If "yes," what are your two main reasons?

    a. First reason: (_____)

    b. Second reason: (_____)

32. How definite are you about intending staying or moving from your community after graduation?

    a. Definite intention to move ( )

    b. Indefinite whether to move or to stay ( )

    c. Definite intention to remain in the community ( )

33. Below is a list of statements that express opinions about any community. Read carefully and check the phrase most nearly representing your personal belief about the community in or near which you live.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a. I am looking forward to leaving this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
b. Any young people looking for recognition and new experiences should leave this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. Not much can be said of this community, its size, location and climate	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
d. No one seems to care how young people get on in this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
e. It is difficult for the people to get together in anything	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
f. There is too much bickering among people in this community	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
g. This community is not too bad really	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
h. The future of this community looks bright	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
i. The people of this community are very friendly and helpful to one another	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
j. This community is a good place to live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
k. I am very eager to spend my life in this community, if I can at all.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

34. Some young people from your community have said that they would not live there always, but only in a community which had certain characteristics: How much do you agree or disagree with them?

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a.	A place that is nearer a big town than the one you live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b.	A place that has better roads than the one you now live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c.	A place that has better primary and preparatory schools than the one you now live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
d.	A place which is nearer to libraries, secondary schools and other institutions	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
e.	A place which allows me to enjoy my time off better than my home community	( )	( )	( )	1 ( )	( )
f.	A place where a person would not have to go so far to enjoy sports events, entertainments like movies and musical events	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
g.	A place that has better facilities for games than this one has	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
h.	A place where people showed more interest in community work, organized clubs and teams for young people to play and enjoy themselves	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
i.	A place where there would be more young people to spend spare time and organize games with	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
j.	A place that is nearer to shops and good shopping facilities than the one you live in	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

35. Now, suppose that you could enjoy all the amenities of the big city in your home community, would you stay there permanently?

( ) Yes

( ) No

( ) Undecided

36. If you have some idea of leaving your home community for elsewhere, is the fact that your home community lacks the amenities that you would like it to have an important reason for this decision?

( ) Yes

( ) No

37. If yes, do you know of any place in which you could satisfy your aspirations and which has all the amenities and advantages that you would think are satisfactory?

( ) Yes

( ) No

( ) Don't know

If "Yes," where is this please? (_____)

38. How strongly do you agree or disagree, that young people like yourself should provide for themselves in the future the following things?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a. A better house than your parents have	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
b. Electric lights and power in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
c. A piped water supply in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
d. Hot water on tap in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
e. An indoor flush toilet in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
f. A bathroom in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
g. A telephone in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
h. A radio in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
i. A T.V. set in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
j. A washing machine in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
k. A kitchen range in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
l. An electric or gas cooker in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
m. A dining room separate from the kitchen in the house	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
n. A car	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
o. A daily newspaper	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
p. The house fully furnished	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
q. Carpets on the floors of the house, at least in the sitting room	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

39. For those things you have just mentioned (and other things like them) that you feel people should have, do you think that if you stay in your home community or near it, that you will be able to achieve the things you want?

( ) Yes

( ) No

( ) Not sure

40. Now, supposing that you could get all these things by staying around here, would you stay here permanently?

( ) Yes

( ) No

( ) Not sure

FOURTH: YOUR OBLIGATIONS TOWARD YOUR FAMILY

41. Are you living with your family now?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "No," where did you live for the last three years?

(_____)

42. Do you help out your family, or some other relation in any way?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," please give details of what you do:

_____

_____

_____

43. Do you think that your family, or some other relation depend on your help to any extent?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," how much:

( ) A great deal

( ) Somewhat

( ) Undecided

( ) Not very much

44. Now, if you were to leave your community and home, could somebody else do the work that you are doing for them?

( ) Yes, very easily

( ) Yes, somewhat easily

( ) I don't know

( ) No, not very easily

( ) Not except with difficulty

45. Now, if your family (or some other relations) depend on you to help them out at home to some extent, would you feel guilty leaving your family to go to school or work, and live away from home?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," how guilty would you feel:

( ) Very guilty

( ) Somewhat guilty

( ) Undecided

( ) Not very guilty

46. If you are helping out your family by working at home, for how long will you be expected to do this?_____

_____

47. If you are helping out your family by working at home, what do you intend to do when you think your obligations to your family are finished?_____

_____

_____

48. Now, if you are already earning, or when you will start earning money, will you be expected to contribute some to the family?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," do you think that your family might depend on you for this support?

( ) Yes, a great deal

( ) Yes, somewhat

( ) Undecided

( ) No, not at all

49. Have you any younger brothers or sisters that have to be educated?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," will you be expected to help them out in any way?

( ) Yes

( ) No

If "Yes," please give some particulars of what kind of help you would be expected to give?_____

_____

FIFTH: YOUR FUTURE OCCUPATION

Now that high school graduation is nearing, I would like to know something about your plans for your future life's work.

50. If you could have any occupation you wanted, regardless of location or the amount of training or experience required, what occupation would you choose? _____

_____

Now supposing that the occupation that you indicated as your choice if it was obtainable locally, would you take it and stay?

( ) Yes

( ) No

51. What kind of occupations are you now seriously considering as a lifetime work?

a. First choice:_____

b. Second choice_____

52. What is the first occupation that you think you will get?

_____

SIXTH: YOUR EDUCATION PLANS

53. Do you intend to get further training after high school?

( ) Yes

( ) No

( ) Don't know

If "Yes," what do you plan?

a. ( ) College? If so, where? _____

b. ( ) Trade school? If so, where?_____

c. ( ) Vocational school? If so, where?_____

d. ( ) Other, what and where?_____

_____

Now, supposing that the educational training you aspired to was obtainable locally, would you stay?

( ) Yes

( ) No

SEVENTH: YOUR FUTURE, OCCUPATION AND PLACE OF RESIDENCE

54. Twenty years from now, what occupation do you expect to have?

_____

55. Where do you expect to be living twenty years from now? (Be as specific as possible.)_____

_____

EIGHTH: OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE

56. Below is a list of occupations and you are asked to order these occupations according to their prestigious status by placing "1" to the highest and "2" to the second highest and so on until the last one for each group of occupations.

I. Professional Technical and Related Workers

( ) Doctor

( ) Engineer

( ) Judge

( ) Secondary School Teacher

( ) Preparatory School Teacher

( ) School Principal

( ) University Professor

( ) Lawyer

( ) Accountant

( ) Pilot/Captain

II. Administrative, Executive and Related Worker

( ) Businessman

( ) Administrative Executive

( ) Bank Executive

III. Clerk Workers

( ) Clerk Supervisor

( ) Civil Servant

( ) Transportation Foreman

( ) Postman

( ) Policeman

IV. Sales Workers

( ) Shop Manager

( ) Sales Supervisor

( ) Salesman

( ) Insurance Agent

( ) Cashier in a Shop

( ) Hotel and Restaurant Supervisor

V. Farmers, Fishermen, Loggers and Related Workers

( ) Agricultural Advisor

( ) Farmers

( ) Agricultural Labourer

( ) Logger Labourer

( ) Fishermen

VI. Transportation and Communication Workers

( ) Bus Driver

( ) Taxi Driver

( ) Truck Driver

VIII. Crafts and Services Worker

( ) Mechanic

( ) Electrician

( ) Factory Worker (unskilled)

( ) Carpenter

( ) Tailor

( ) Barber

( ) Blacksmith

57. For the following list of occupations, please check off (X) all those occupations that you feel you would be letting down your family if you were to take them up:

( ) Road Construction worker

( ) Agricultural labourer

( ) Unskilled factory worker

( ) Street sweeper

( ) Building construction worker

( ) Hotel labourer

( ) Laundry worker

( ) Bakery worker

( ) Bus conductor

( ) Skilled factory worker

( ) Truck and heavy machinery driver

( ) Bus driver

( ) Ticket collector (in a bus)

( ) Electrician/mechanic

( ) Shoemaker

( ) Blacksmith

( ) Barber

( ) Policeman

( ) Soldier

( ) Shop salesman

( ) Postman

( ) Foreman over labourers in a factory

( ) Painter

( ) Carpenter

( ) Tailor

( ) Cashier in a shop

( ) Police officer

( ) General clerk

( ) Cashier in a bank

( ) Journalist

( ) Government official

( ) Farmer

( ) Primary school teacher

( ) Agricultural advisor

( ) Technician

( ) Nurse

( ) Insurance clerk

( ) Secondary school teacher

( ) Army officer

( ) Accountant

( ) Bank executive

( ) Lawyer

( ) Engineer

( ) Pilot/Captain

( ) Doctor

( ) Judge

APPENDIX B

Scalogram Analysis of Occupational Prestige in Gharian Province

APPENDIX B

Scalogram Analysis of Occupational Prestige in Gharian Province

Using the same technique developed by Hannan (1967), Hannan and Beegle (1969), a scale of occupational prestige was constructed which then was used to measure the level of occupational aspiration among high school seniors.

Question 57 in the schedule dealt with the respondents' evaluations of the relative prestige level of occupations. This question made use of a list of 46 occupations well known in the area. Occupations were arranged in an ascending order of status according to the author's viewpoint. In order to confirm this step, two independent judges (a colleague from the University in Tripoli and a High School teacher from the area) were asked to arrange the same list in the same manner. As a result, a final modified list was developed from the three versions and was presented to the students.

Question 57 asked "For the following list of occupations, please check off (X) all those occupations that you feel you would be "letting down your family if you were to take up." The lowest occupation on the list was "Road Construction Worker" and the highest was "Judge."

Students were expected to reject or accept occupations on the basis of their relative prestige alone, a point which was emphasized to all respondents in the course of supervising the completion of the schedule. The amount of prestige possessed by the particular occupation--relative to that of the individual's own family--would

be determined by the responses to question 57 in terms of accepting or rejecting certain occupations.

The assumption that has to be made at this point is that: if all respondents ranked the occupation on the basis of their relative prestige, a scalogram analysis should yield a unidimensional scale of occupational prestige. That is, provided the scale meets all the criteria of scalability required by the method (Hannan and Beegle, 1969:330). The item responses, therefore, were subjected to the Guttman scalogram analysis, and two codes are utilized. Those occupations which were rejected by the student as lower in status than that of the family were coded (1), while occupations accepted by the respondent were coded (0).

The number of respondents who rejected each occupation (item) was calculated by using (1) as the cutting point, and as a result, the list of the 46 occupations was reordered into a new matrix as indicated by the number of times the occupation was rejected. The results indicated that the respondents did not at all agree with the judges' assessment of the relative prestige of these occupations.

The following table gives the resultant rank of the 46 occupations, the original rank, and the total errors.

Occupation	Sum of Scores	Final Rank	Original Rank
Road Construction Worker	481	1	01
Street Sweeper	480	2	04
Laundry Worker	477	3	07
Hotel Labourer	470	4	06
Barber	468	5	17

Occupation	Sum of Scores	Final Rank	Original Rank
Bakery Worker	460	6	08
Blacksmith	458	7	16
Building Construction Worker	457	8	05
Tailor	455	9	25
Bus Ticket Collector	451	10	13
Carpenter	442	11	24
Postman	441	12	21
Bus Conductor	440	13	09
Unskilled Factory Laborer	437	14	03
Shoe Maker	435	15	15
Painter	422	16	23
Technician	406	17	35
Agricultural Laborer	405	18	02
Bus Driver	402	19	12
Shop Salesman	395	20	20
Truck Driver	385	21	11
Nurse	377	22	36
Primary School Teacher	344	23	33
Skilled Factory Worker	338	24	10
Electrician/Mechanic	336	25	14
Policeman	330	26	18
Government Official	327	27	31
Foreman	321	28	22
Insurance Clerk	320	29	37

Occupation	Sum of Scores	Final Rank	Original Rank
Farmer	313	30	32
Cashier	295	31	26
Soldier	274	32	19
Agricultural Advisor	263	33	34
Police Officer	257	34	27
General Clerk	249	35	28
Cashier in a Bank	245	36	29
Army Officer	205	37	39
Journalist	179	38	30
Secondary School Teacher	160	39	38
Accountant	148	40	40
Judge	140	41	46
Lawyer	136	42	42
Bank Executive	125	43	41
Doctor	80	44	45
Pilot/Captain	77	45	44
Engineer	55	46	43

Total N = 503

Total Number of Errors = 3184

Coefficient of Reproducibility = .86

Minimum Marginal Reproducibility = .76

For the 46 items scaled on the prestige continuum, a total error of 3184 was produced, which gave a coefficient of reproducibility of .86 which does not qualify as unidimensional by Guttman's standards. The minimal marginal reproducibility, however, reached .76, rather higher than the standard (.65) required. Also percent of improvement was .10, rather lower than the standard required (.20). This was due to the large number of items with considerable level of error. In other words, the errors were not randomly distributed and were concentrated around some items.

In order to meet the requirement for a unidimensional scale, a series of a scalogram analyses were conducted by excluding items that have more errors than non-errors and at the same time have relatively low correlation with the other items. This series of steps produced a unidimensional scale with a coefficient of reproducibility of .89 and the improvement over chance in reproducing patterns from the total score reached .70 percent--again somewhat higher than the standard. On the other hand, percent improvement approached .19, almost the desired standard of .20.

The method employed in Guttman-scaling 46 occupations according to their perceived prestige resulted in a quasi-scale yielding rankings which, in general, were satisfactory in the author's point of view given the purpose of the study. The scale consists of 15 occupations ranked from highest prestige to the lowest prestige. "Engineer" was ranked highest and "Technician" was ranked lowest as shown in the final rank of the 15 occupations.

Rank	Occupation	Score (number of times rejected)
High	Engineer	55
	Pilot/Captain	77
	Doctor	80
	Bank Executive	125
	Lawyer	136
	Judge	140
	Accountant	148
	Secondary School Teacher	160
	Journalist	179
	Police Officer	257
	Agricultural Advisor	263
	Farmer	313
	Government Official	327
	Primary School Teacher	344
Low	Technician	406

APPENDIX C

INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

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TABLE 1

The relationship between educational aspirations and community satisfaction

Levels of Community Satisfaction		Levels of Educational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High
Low (0-3)		26.1	40.8	50.6
Medium (4-6)		38.0	29.1	35.1
High (7-9)		35.9	30.1	14.4
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	92	103	271

Gamma = -.329

TABLE 2

The relationship between educational aspirations and occupational aspirations

Levels of Occupational Aspirations		Levels of Educational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High
Low		60.4	27.4	3.8
Medium		10.4	12.3	18.8
High		29.2	60.4	77.4
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	96	106	288

Gamma = .634

TABLE 3

The relationship between educational aspirations and family obligations

Levels of Family Obligations		Levels of Educational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High
None		9.8	11.0	17.7
Slight		29.3	56.0	56.7
Medium		60.9	33.0	25.6
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	92	100	254

Gamma = -.372

TABLE 4

The relationship between educational aspirations and attitudes toward the community social provisions

Levels of Community Evaluation		Levels of Educational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High
Negative (0-3)		30.9	60.0	67.0
Medium (4-6)		32.0	24.8	20.7
Positive (7-9)		37.1	15.2	12.3
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	97	105	285

Gamma = -.398

TABLE 5

The relationship between community satisfaction and occupational aspirations

Levels of Occupational Aspirations		Levels of Community Satisfaction		
		Low (0-3)	Medium (4-6)	High (7-9)
Low		9.5	24.5	34.3
Medium		10.5	19.5	18.6
High		80.0	56.0	47.1
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	200	159	102

Gamma = -.443

TABLE 6

The relationship between community satisfaction and family obligations

Levels of Family Obligations		Levels of Community Satisfaction		
		Low (0-3)	Medium (4-6)	High (7-9)
None		20.9	8.4	9.4
Slight		53.3	57.3	39.6
Medium		25.8	34.3	51.0
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	182	143	96

Gamma = .323

TABLE 7

The relationship between community satisfaction and attitudes toward the community social provisions

Levels of Community Evaluation		Levels of Community Satisfaction		
		Low (0-3)	Medium (4-6)	High (7-9)
Negative (0-3)		70.6	53.2	38.5
Medium (4-6)		16.7	27.8	33.3
Positive (7-9)		12.7	19.0	28.1
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	204	158	96

Gamma = -.356

TABLE 8

The relationship between occupational aspirations and family obligations

Levels of Family Obligations		Levels of Occupational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High
None		7.6	7.1	17.9
Slight		30.4	48.6	58.9
Medium		62.0	44.3	23.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	92	70	280

Gamma = -.501

TABLE 9

The relationship between occupational aspirations and attitudes toward community social provisions

Levels of Community Evaluation		Levels of Occupational Aspirations		
		Low	Medium	High
Negative (0-3)		36.7	56.9	66.0
Medium (4-6)		35.7	22.2	20.5
Positive (7-9)		27.6	20.8	13.5
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	98	72	312

Gamma = -.350

TABLE 10

The relationship between family obligations and attitudes toward community social provisions

Levels of Community Evaluation		Levels of Family Obligations		
		None	Slight	Medium
Negative (0-3)		60.9	65.3	46.0
Medium (4-6)		23.4	21.3	27.3
Positive (7-9)		15.6	13.3	26.7
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0
	N	64	225	150

Gamma = -.241

TABLE 11

Interrelationships among the independent variables and dependent variable, as measured by Gamma statistic

	Community Satisfaction	Occupational Aspirations	Family Obligations	Community Evaluation	Migration Plans
Educational Aspirations	-.329	.634	-.372	-.398	.753
Community Satisfaction		-.443	.323	-.356	-.649
Occupational Aspirations			-.501	-.350	.567
Family Obligations				-.241	-.447
Community Evaluation					-.414

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