The Relationship Between Labour Market And Migration In Nigeria 1986 -2017

By

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Abstract

Migration is simply seen as the movement of people from one area of a country (or from one country) to another area of the same country (or to another country) for the purpose of establishing a new residence this to some extent has a positive or negative impact on the recipient labour market. The study examine the relationship between labour market and migration in Nigeria, which covers a period between 1986 and 2017. The Ordinary Least Squares Methods (OLS) were employed to establish the relationship among the dependent and independent variables. The study revealed that unemployment and labour force participation has a negative and a significant impact on migration. While wage has a direct but an insignificant impact on migration. The paper recommended that the government should diversify the economy so as to create more jobs for it citizens thereby reducing unemployment, guarantee the security of lives and properties of all citizen, ensures political stability in the country and provide critical infrastructure to the less developed areas in the country.

Keywords; labour market, migration, wage employment, unemployment, labour force participation etc .

Introduction

Migration is simply defined as the movement of people from one area of a country (or from one country) to another area of the same country (or to another country) for the purpose of establishing a new residence (IOM, 2011; ACP Observatory on Migration, 2011). Although the definition of migration varies from different perspectives, there is a consensus that it involves the movement of people across a recognized political boundary to establish permanent or semi-permanent residence. The period of residence also varies, but most experts believe that six months of residence in a new location is enough to categorize one as a migrant. While internal migration involves a change of residence within a country, international migration involves a change of residence between two countries. According to the United Nations, an international migrant is any person who changes his or her country of usual residence. Thus, international migration includes movement of many kinds, such as people leaving their countries of origin for economic reasons, to join their families abroad or as refugees. By the same token, an internal migrant includes an internally displaced person, a trader who relocated his or her business to another part of the country, a transferred civil servant or a Nigerian university graduate who is deployed by the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) to serve the nation in another location or state of the federation (Oyeniyi, 2013). Migration is a complex and multidimensional process which involves different motivations, with far-reaching impacts or consequences to the individual and the places of origin and destination.

According to the 2010 Internal Migration Survey of Nigeria conducted by the National Population Commission (NPopC). The survey defines migrant as anybody who has lived in another local government area (LGA) for at least six months in the past 10 years, and a return migrant as a person who

has moved from the current LGA of residence in the past 10 years to live in another LGA for at least six months before returning to the LGA.

Nowadays, many people decide to migrate to have a better life. Employment opportunities are the most common reason due to which people migrate. Except this, lack of opportunities, better education, construction of dams, globalization, natural disaster (flood and drought) and sometimes crop failure forced villagers to migrate to cities. . Migration can no longer be attributed solely to the problem of underdevelopment, but should rather be recognized as an aspect of globalization (Newland, 2011). Migration persists even at very high levels of development, – such as within the European Union. Many developing – particularly middle-income – countries have become major immigrant destinations while still remaining sources of immigrants (Newland, 2011). These simple observations suggest intricate market interactions driven by migration.

The stylized model of a competitive labor market has clear and unambiguous implications about how labor markets should adjust to a labor supply shift induced by migration. In a closed economy, a labor supply shock should inevitably change the price of labor, at least in the short-run. Despite the common-sense intuition underlying the model, empirical estimations yield puzzling and contradictory results. Utilizing a simulation-based approach, Borjas (2003, 2005) claims that migration has a substantial impact on labor markets in receiving and sending countries. At the same time, more data-driven econometric estimations that are not based on a theoretical model find considerably smaller or even negligible impact of migration on wages and employment (Card, 2005; Ottaviano and Peri, 2008).

Much of the theoretical and empirical literature on the economics of migration views migrations as permanent. This is a convenient assumption and often facilitates the analysis of immigrant behaviour and the impact of

migration on the host country. However, Jasso and Rosenzweig (1982) already argued that many migrations are temporary rather than permanent. For labour migrants migration dynamics are intertwined with their labour market behaviour, as losing their job may induce them to search for employment in another country. To gain insight in the relationship between labour market and migration it is, therefore, imperative to include the dynamic behaviour on the host country's labour market.

Some studies have examined the relationship between labour market and migration. For example, Chiswick et al. (1997) find for the US that immigrants had some initial difficulty finding work, but their employment and unemployment rates quickly attained levels comparable to those of natives. Uhlendorff and Zimmermann (2006) study the German case and find that immigrants stay unemployed longer than natives. There is also some empirical evidence that an increasing number of immigrants are beneficiaries of welfare programs. Borjas and Hilton (1996) find that in the US the immigrant-native difference in the probability of receiving benefits is small. Hansen and Lofstrom (2003) find for Sweden that immigrants use welfare to a greater extent than natives. Hansen and Lofstrom (2009) analysed the dynamics across the labour market states of an immigrant. They find that (refugee) immigrants display a higher degree of state dependence in welfare. However, to our knowledge, no study has analyzed labour market dynamics of immigrants in relation to return (and repetitive) migration behaviour. Bijwaard (2010) has shown that the migration motive influences the migration dynamics of immigrants. A unique feature of the data from Statistics Netherlands used for his article is that information on the motive to migrate is available for recent non-Dutch, non-national, migrants. Here we use a subset of the data by focusing on labour migrants, immigrants who are reported labour migrants and who are (self-) employed within three months of their first entry. Explicit focus on labour

migrants is unusual in the literature and in most studies the issue of migration motive is not addressed

Literature Review

Much of the economic research considers migration as permanent (Chiswick 1978, Massey et al. 1993 and Borjas 1999). Nevertheless, the level of return migration has been high both in the US and in Europe. Jasso and Rosenzweig (1982) report that of the 1971 cohort of immigrants to the US, almost fifty percent returned by 1979. Dustmann (1995) has demonstrated the relevance of return migration in the European context. In The Netherlands recent migrants also show a high return rate, see Bijwaard (2010). The return rates greatly differ by migration motive, with students and labour migrants having the fastest departure rate. An important contribution to the theoretical explanations of return emigration of immigrants is provided by Borjas and Bratsberg (1996). They attribute return migration to an optimal residential local plan over the life cycle where immigrants return to source countries due to the realization of a savings goal or due to erroneous information about economic opportunities in the host country. Other theories attribute return migration to region-specific preferences (Hill 1987; Dustmann and Weiss 2007), higher purchasing power of host currency in source countries (Dustmann and Weiss 2007) or to greater returns for human capital acquired in the host country (Borjas and Bratsberg 1996; Dustmann and Weiss 2007). Borjas and Bratsberg (1996) also show that the selection of emigrants from a particular country reinforces the initial selection of immigrants to that country. Return migration may also be the result of unexpected events. It should also be noted that the boundary between temporary and permanent migrants is not impermeable, see Berninghaus and Seifert-Vogt (1988). Repeated migration occurs more often when we consider internal migration within a particular country. From the literature on internal migration we know that migration history has a systematic effect upon migration behaviour. For example, DaVanzo (1983) finds that those who have moved before are much more

likely to move again (Constant and Zimmermann (2003)). Bailey (1993) shows that repeated migration of young adults within the US is a selective process, as it makes them less responsive to national unemployment conditions than first time migrants. He also finds that the timing of unemployment within the sojourn has a critical influence upon migration behaviour. For international migration the relation between unemployment experience and migration behaviour is more complex. The analysis of repeated migration should not be separated from the labour market performance of the migrants in the host country. In the economic literature on migrant performance the focus has mainly been on the earnings of immigrants (Chiswick 1978, Borjas 1999). Much of this literature tends to emphasize the importance of earnings convergence, i.e. the effect of the time since arrival on the earnings difference with native workers. A major flaw of this literature is that it ignores the endogeneity of return migration, with Constant and Massey (2003) as one of the exceptions.

Another issue is that earnings of the migrants only tell a part of the performance tale of the labour market outcomes. The incidence of unemployment among immigrants also plays an important role. For policy makers it is of particular interest to know whether unemployment of a migrant induces out-migration or to stay longer and drawing on the host country social security system. A few studies have analysed the transitions migrants make on the labour market. Uhlendorff and Zimmermann (2006) investigate the unemployment experiences of migrants in Germany. They take the temporal dependence of unemployment and employment spells into account. Borjas and Hilton (1996) find that in the US the immigrant-native difference in the probability of receiving benefits is small. Hansen and Lofstrom (2009) analysed the dynamics across the labour market states of an immigrant with an emphasize on welfare. However, they all ignore possible selective out-migration. Kirdar (2008) shows that unemployment has a profound effect on the timing of out-migration, but he ignores to take the route to unemployment into account. The contribution of this article is

that we take an integrated view on the relationship between labour market and migration. By modeling the timing of both labour market changes and migration simultaneously we take the whole labour market and migration history into account. Information on the host country's labour market is crucial for success. The information problem for migrants may be bigger the further, both in distance and in culture, the host and source are apart. Furthermore, migrants from further away could possess less host country specific human capital upon arrival. There is a considerable body of evidence that distance matters in deterring migration, see Long et al. (1988). The opportunity cost of remaining in the host are lower for countries close by. For example, Borjas and Bratsberg (1996) find that immigrants to the US tend to return to rich and to countries close to the US. Ethnicity is also important if immigrants of a certain ethnic group systematically perceive a lower return than expected. For immigrants belonging to such groups the re-migrate rate is higher. On the other hand, human capital accumulation in the host may be more in demand in countries similar to the host. For example, for the Netherlands the demand of high skilled workers in other EU-countries or in the US is relevant for the re-migrate rate of these workers. This may lead to higher return- and re-immigration rates for immigrants from countries close to the Netherlands. Another issue is that immigrants from some countries may find it easier to migrate than other. An example is that citizens of EU-countries are formally allowed to migrate to and to work in other EU-countries. Following this argument EU-citizens should have a higher return and re-immigration rate than non EU-citizens. Most labour migrants work for a company, while some migrants start their own business. These self-employed migrants need to invest more in the new country to be successful. This may lead to a higher attachment to the new labour market. It is therefore important to distinguish between self-employed and company-employed migrants. Different sectors of the economy attract different types of migrants. We expect that migrants working in a sector in which temporary contracts are very common have less attachment to the new labour market. Those migrants may leave fast.

The labour market behaviour in each sector may also differ, as employment in some sectors, notably temporary services and agriculture, is less stable. In the literature opposing theories exist on the impact of the income level of migrants in the host country on their return propensity, Constant and Massey (2003). Neoclassical Economics (NE) view return migration as a cost-benefit decision, maximizing expected lifetime income. According to this view return migrants are"failures" and low income migrants are more prone to return. The alternative New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM, Stark 1991) theory views migration as a response to market failures at home. According to this theory, people seek to migrate abroad temporarily to accumulate savings. They view migrants as target earners who return home after their target is reached. Thus, NELM views return migrants not as failures, but as "successes", and high income migrants would return faster. Many recent migrants have not yet gained any right on security benefits, because their duration of stay is too short. These migrants could be without income when they loose their job. The two theories do not exclude migrants that are temporary without income (from the host) remain in the host. Under NELM the migrant may expect to return back to work and the period of income is just a friction. Under NELM the migrant remains because the target has not yet been reached. Another important issue is whether the timing of arrival has a permanent effect on the labour market behaviour of immigrants.

Theoretical Framework

In an attempt to improve the scholarly output of this research work, this study adopts the theory of Structural Functionalism into analysis. Structural functionalism, or in many contexts simply functionalism, is a broad perspective in social science which sets out to interpret society as a structure with interrelated parts. Functionalism addresses society as a whole in terms of the function of its constituent elements; namely norms, customs, traditions and institutions. A common analogy, popularized by Herbert Spencer, presents these parts of society as "organs" that work

toward the proper functioning of the "body" as a whole (Bernard 2000). In the most basic terms, it simply emphasizes "the effort to impute, as rigorously as possible, to each feature, custom, or practice, its effect on the functioning of a supposedly stable, cohesive system."(Layton 1997) For Talcott Parsons (1975), "functionalism" came to describe a particular stage in the methodological development of social science, rather than a specific school of thought.

The structural functional model primarily concerned itself, with the maintenance of order and stability in the society and the necessary arrangement within the society which maintain the said order and stability. Structural functional analysis originated in the biological and mechanical sciences of part of systems analysis. It was adopted and adapted as a mode of analysis in sociology and anthropology as its evident in the work of prominent scholars like (Emile Durkheim, Herbert Spencer, Talcott Parsons, Robert K. Merton, Bronisław Malinowski, Alfred Reginald Radcliffe-Brown, Niklas Luhmann, George Murdock, Fei Xiaotong, David Keen, Talcott Parsons among others) (Bernard 2000). It was developed in political science by scholars like Gabriel Almond, S.P. Verma among others thinkers who stresses that structural functionalism revolves around two main concepts; functions and structures on the basis of which three basic questions could be posed.

Nigerian state is an accumulation of structures that make up the political system. These structures do not occur in isolation. They are saddled with certain obligation and functional to perform to ensure the efficacy and usefulness of the system. Hence, a dysfunctional role in any of the strictures leads to system breakdown. Migration is a function of a functioning or a dysfunctional system. People move out when the system (economy) becomes unconducive for them to live in. move especially when the system is characterized with political instability, insecurity, high unemployment,

lack of basic social amenities etc. while people in when the system is functioning.

Economic effects of migration

Theoretical aspects of labor market effects of immigration are usually described using a neo-classical model of labor supply and demand (Johnson, 1980). The economic impacts of international migration are essentially linked to the characteristics of the migrants and of the economies of migrant-sending and host countries. The effects of migration can vary with the skill level of migrants, the motives to migrate, and the capital structure of sending and receiving economies. It is also relevant whether and how quickly economies adjust to immigration through, for example, a change in capital, technology, or output variety (Dustmann, Glitz, and Frattini, 2008

Therefore, most economic analyses of migration distinguish between the impacts of low and high-skilled migration, and between the long and short-run effects (Kerr and Kerr, 2011). In a simple short-run model, it is typically assumed that capital and technology are rigid, so that the primary effect of migration is labor supply shock. In a host country, immigrants lower the price of factors to which they are perfect substitutes and raise the price of factors to which they are complements. In a sending country, the exact opposite occurs.

In the long-run, capital and technology adapt to a new level of labor supply. For instance, a short-term change in the returns to capital is likely to change the long-run investment level. Investment in physical capital, in turn, will shift the demand for labor, thus bringing wages towards their pre-migration rates. Whether and how quickly these adjustments take place is an empirical question.

Drivers of Migration and General Cross-border Mobility

The concentration of power at the central level has made the federal government extremely powerful, while the state and local governments have progressively become weakened and dependent on the central government in Abuja. Nigeria is sub-Saharan Africa's most influential country with the largest army, abundant human and material resources, and is a major player in the global economy and politics.

Despite the achievements of various initiatives by government, a major problem since the return of civilian rule in 1999 has been the incessant outbreak of intrastate violence in the forms of ethno-religious, political, criminal and resource struggles. By far, however, the most challenging of these national problems is the Boko Haram debacle, which has terrorized Nigeria to a magnitude never seen before, especially in the north-eastern zone of the country. As expected, these sociopolitical upheavals have resulted in massive displacement of people, many of whom have to migrate out of the concerned states to save their lives and property.

Labour market dynamics

Labour Market Dynamics despite the recent growth in GDP, Nigeria remains a developing country characterized by low per capita income, a high rate of unemployment and extreme poverty. Unemployment and underemployment are major social and economic challenges in Nigeria. The rising incidence of educated unemployed and underemployed has generated considerable social policy concerns in Nigeria in recent times (Bolarinwa, 2012). One unique character of the Nigerian labour market is that the generation of productive employment in the economy has not matched the growth rate of the labour force. In other words, labour supply is greater than labour demand. This supply-side challenge in the labour market has been exacerbated by the high rate of population growth, which is vibrant and youthful. Besides, the Nigerian labour force is characterized by capacity underutilization and low productivity (Bolarinwa, 2012).

Self-employment in Nigeria

Self-employment largely contributes to the employment rate in Nigeria and the majority of the self-employed are in the agriculture and small enterprise sectors. Although the unemployment rate in the country is high, the fact remains that most Nigerians are engaged in one economic activity or the other. Income generation capacity and the level of productivity of these economic activities are no doubt very low. The NBS survey shows that there are about 34 million of such enterprises, which generate about 49 million jobs. Understandably, the employment capacity of these enterprises is limited. Generally, about 8 in 10 of these enterprises have one person managing the business, and less than 3 per cent of these enterprises have up to 5 employees or more. At the same time, only 8 per cent of the businesses are registered with the Government.

The capacity of household enterprises in Nigeria to generate income is limited. The NBS survey shows that the median net income for each household is NGN 92,000 or an equivalent of USD 585. This indicates that household enterprises, which are major labour absorbers in Nigeria, earn less than USD 2 a day.

Unemployment Challenge

The unemployment rate in Nigeria has been on the rise in the last couple of years. Unemployment in the country increased continually from 21.1 per cent in 2010 to 23.10 per cent in 2018. This implies that about 86 million Nigerians are out of work. The latest NBS survey on unemployment in Nigeria (2018) shows that there were more unemployed females (24.9%) than males (17.7%). By educational attainment, unemployment is highest (24.6%) among young Nigerians with a bachelor's degree or a higher national diploma.

Poverty in Nigeria

The United Nations' Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) to end extreme poverty by 2030 is unlikely to be met—no thanks, in large part, to Nigeria. A new report by The World Poverty Clock shows Nigeria has overtaken India as the country with the most extreme poor people in the world. India has a population seven times larger than Nigeria's. The struggle to lift more citizens out of extreme poverty is an indictment on successive Nigerian governments which have mismanaged the country's vast oil riches through incompetence and corruption.

Causes of migration

Push factors occur where someone is currently living and make continuing to live there less attractive. A push factor could be political unrest, a lack of job opportunities, or overcrowding. **Pull factors** occur in a potential destination and make it an attractive place to migrate to. A pull factor could be better job opportunities or having relatives or friends who have already moved to this location.

Migration is becoming a very important subject for the life of cities. Many opportunities and attraction of big cities pull large numbers of people to big cities. Migration can have positive as well as negative effects on the life of the migrants.

Positive Impact

1. Unemployment is reduced and people get better job opportunities.
2. Migration helps in improving the quality of life of people.
3. It helps to improve social life of people as they learn about new culture, customs, and languages which helps to improve brotherhood among people.
4. Migration of skilled workers leads to a greater economic growth of the region.
5. Children get better opportunities for higher education.
6. The population density is reduced and the birth rate decreases.

Negative Impact

1. The loss of a person from rural areas, impact on the level of output and development of rural areas.
2. The influx of workers in urban areas increases competition for the job, houses, school facilities etc.
3. Having large population puts too much pressure on natural resources, amenities and services.
5. It is difficult for a villager to survive in urban areas because in urban areas there is no natural environment and pure air. They have to pay for each and everything.
6. Many migrants are completely illiterate and uneducated, therefore, they are not only unfit for most jobs, but also lack basic knowledge and life skills.
7. Poverty makes them unable to live a normal and healthy life.
8. Children growing up in poverty have no access to proper nutrition, education or health.
9. Migration increased the slum areas in cities which increase many problems such as unhygienic conditions, crime, pollution etc.
10. Sometimes migrants are exploited. Migration is one of the main causes of increasing nuclear family where children grow up without a wider family circle.

Methodology

This study covered the period 1986 and 2017. The ordinary least (OLS) method was employed to establish the relationships among the variables. Secondary data was were collected from World bank data bank, journals, articles, text books etc. unemployment, wage and labour force participation were variables used to represent labour market. Since the data was time series, the variables were subjected to unit root or stationarity tests. The Augmented Dickey – Fuller (ADF) stationarity test was used to ensure that the variables were stationary and free from serial correlation.

Model Specification

The model is specified using econometric model as;

$MGT = \beta 0 + \beta_1 UNEM + \beta_2 WAGE + \beta 3 LABFP + \mu$

Where: MGT = migration

UNEM = unemployment

WAGE = wage

LABFP = labour force participation

μ = error term

Table 1.1 Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) Test Result

Variable	Level	t-stat Critical value 5%	First Difference	t-stat Critical value 5%	Order of Integration
MGT	**-0.22**	**-2.96**	**-6.00**	**-2.96**	**I(1)**
UNEM	**-2.33**	**-2.96**	**-5.77**	**-2.96**	**I(1)**
WAGE	**-0.47**	**-2.96**	**-2.96**	**-2.95**	**I(1)**
LABFP	**-2.46**	**-2.96**	**-5.63**	**-2.99**	**I(1)**

Source: Authors computation, Computed from Mckinnon (1996).

The ADF unit root test result presented in table 1.1 establishes that all the data series of MGT, UNEM and LABFP variables are stationary after the first difference i.e. integrated of order one (I(1)). The absolute values of the ADF test statistics of the variables are greater than the absolute values of the 5% critical value of the ADF statistics. After establishing the stationarity level of the variables, we proceed with the OLS estimation.

Table 1.2 regression result
Dependent Variable (MGT)

Variable	Co-efficient	Standard Error	t-Statistic	Probability
C	9.730582	4.310060	2.257644	0.0323
UNEM	-0.018612	0.005806	-3.205644	0.0035
WAGE	-0.176329	0.126158	-1.397680	0.1736
LABFP	-0.138008	0.039233	-3.517647	0.0016
R^2	0.877261			
Adj. R^2	0.859078			
F-statistic	48.24478			
Prob. (F-stat.)	0.0000			
Durbin-Watson	0.928607			

Source: Authors computation, 5% t-statistic critical value is 2.04

The estimated equation is stated below:

MGT = 9.73 -0.018612UNEM -0.176329WAGE -0.138008LABFP

t (2.26) (-3.21) (1.02) (-3.52)

Results and Discussion

Table 1.2 shows the result of regressing MGT on UNEM, WAGE and LABFP. From the above regression result, Unemployment (UNEM) and Labour force participation (LABFP) were found to have a negative but a significant impact on migration rate (MGT). The parameter estimate of UNEM and LABFP were found to be statistically significant as its t-statistic values in absolute term is greater than the 5% critical value of t-statistic i.e. **/-3.21/ and /-3.52/** > 2.04. Implying that the hypothesis of unemployment and labour force participation has no impact on migration at 5% level of significance is rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

This implies that as unemployment and labour force is increasing in a particular geographical region or country migrant are discourage to migrate to such location. Hence unemployment and labour force participation becomes a major determinant of migration.

Wage (WAGE) is found to shows a negative relationship with MGT, The parameter estimate of WAGE was found to be statistically insignificant as its absolute t-statistic value is less than the 5% critical value of t-statistic i.e. /-1.39/ < 2.04. Implying that the hypothesis of wage has no impact on MGT at 5% level of significance is accepted. This mean that wage is not a determinant of migration. People may not want to leave their locations or place of work if there is political stability, better working condition and other fringe benefits irrespective of the wage.

The R-squared is 0.877261, this shows that the model has a high goodness of fit, as 87.72 percent of the total variation of the explained variable (migration) is explained by the regressed model. While Adj. R-squared is 0.859078, this shows that the model has a high goodness of fit, as 85.90 percent of the total variation of the explained variable (migration) is explained by the estimated model, when degree of freedom is put into consideration. The F-statistics (48.24) which measures the worthiness of the

R-squared is statistically significant at 5% significant level (critical value of F-statistic at 5% significant level is 2.47), implying that the estimated model is fit for prediction and forecasting. Nevertheless, the estimated model is found to have positive autocorrelation problem (DW = 0.92) even after the introduction of a 1st order autocorrelation variable into the estimated equation. Thus, the study anchored on the assumption that the estimated model is free from serial correlation.

Conclusion and recommendation

The paper examines the relationship between labour market and migration in Nigeria. The study revealed that unemployment and labour force participation are statistically significant in influencing migration, while wage is not statistically significant. The paper concluded that government should diversify to economy, create an enabling environment for private sector participation so as to create jobs for its citizens. And recommended that the government should diversify the economy so as to create more jobs for it citizens thereby reducing unemployment, provide adequate security that will guarantee the security of lives and properties of all residence, make available infrastructural development in less developed areas of the country, and make strict immigration laws that will allow only legal immigrants into the country.

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E – view result (9.0)
Dependent Variable: MGT
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/18/19 Time: 21:21
Sample: 1986 2017
Included observations: 32

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	9.730582	4.310060	2.257644	0.0323
UNEM	-0.018612	0.005806	-3.205644	0.0035
WAGE	-0.176329	0.126158	-1.397680	0.1736
EMPLY	0.119236	1.024051	0.116436	0.9082
LABFP	-0.138008	0.039233	-3.517647	0.0016

R-squared	0.877261	Mean dependent var	2.008424
Adjusted R-squared	0.859078	S.D. dependent var	0.918428
S.E. of regression	0.344775	Akaike info criterion	0.850749
Sum squared resid	3.209477	Schwarz criterion	1.079771
Log likelihood	-8.611989	Hannan-Quinn criter.	0.926663
F-statistic	48.24478	Durbin-Watson stat	0.928607
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		