

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of Study

A visit to any of the busy airports in Nigeria such as Murtala Muhammed International Airport in Lagos or Akanu Ibiam International Airport in Enugu, you will notice the great outflux of Nigerians into many countries. More so Nigerians finding their way to more developed regions is becoming a function of employment-driven nature of Nigerian emigration. Also, Nigerian emigration to the West is highly selective of the educated, skilled and professionals who are more likely to be attracted by the economic opportunities of more developed regions. Because of this, the most preferred destinations in Europe were the United Kingdom (184,314), Italy (48,073), Spain (36,885), Germany (22,687) and Ireland (18,540) according to the International Organization for Migration country profile of Nigeria 2014. The United States was the single most important destination of Nigerian migrants in 2013, as it had been since 1990, with 252,172 or about 25 per cent of all Nigerian emigrants. This is a clear manifestation of the superb opportunities offered by the United States with respect to employment, education and training, and social and cultural identification compared with other countries in the world. In recent years, there seems to be an influx into China, India and other Asian countries that hitherto had very few Nigerian citizens. Nevertheless, the number of Nigerian emigrants to these countries is still relatively low.

Migration can have a range of social, cultural, political and economic effects. It involves transfer of know-how and skills, financial assets and the transfer of people from one location to another. Migration also has consequences for the individual, the area of origin and the area of destination

– on the family, household, society, the economy and development as a whole. The effect of international migration is not limited to remittances and cash inflows alone. It includes a wide range of development issues – governance and legal protection, employment and social, protection, health services and education, tertiary education, knowledge and skills development, economic growth, financial services and growth, agriculture and rural infrastructural development, and environment issues. As in the case of this study, the economic aspect of migration is my focus. Over the years Nigeria has faced a lot of issues in reference to migration, non-exclusive brain drain and it would be important to address these in order to promote her economic development.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Negative or low economic growth, population growth, high under- and unemployment rates, combined with unequal income distribution, and high pressures on land and urban environments drive people to seek employment abroad due to a lack of alternatives back home. Poor governance is another major factor for emigration, especially among the highly skilled (Nyberg Sørensen, Van Hear, and Engberg-Pedersen, 2003). In major parts of Nigeria, electricity is erratic and in most cases not available at all; no pipe borne water, deplorable condition of roads, hospitals are mere consulting clinics and educational system crumbling without any Nigeria University being among the top one thousand universities in the world.

All these pose a problem for the average literate Nigerian who expects to receive due employment after graduation from the higher institution. The diminishing numbers of Nigerians in the South region or less developed regions is related to dwindling economic realities and social upheavals in many countries. The dearth of good political leadership in Africa stands to be the biggest challenge. Lack of trust of the people in our leaders to ensure good living standards, dividends of democracy,

protection of human rights, and provision of good and qualitative education, infrastructure and social security; have made many individuals both old and young of the country to “check out.”

This, they do with the fervent hope that they would lead a more better and prosperous life outside the shores of their country and continent. Nepotism also stands as a barrier to economic development; where one isn't employed for their skills but for their family or tribal relation with the individual. Therefore all these problems are accountable for the growing numbers of Nigerians who travel out of the country on a daily basis in pursuit for better standards of living. This project will then best provide answers to the following research questions.

1.3 Research Questions

- Is the living standard of Nigeria responsible for the emigration of her citizens to other developed states?
- Is the reduction in the number of skilled personnel (such as students, professionals etc.) under developing the Nigeria's socio-economy?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This broad objective of this study is to analyse and evaluate the following:

- The terms ‘Brain drain’, ‘Migration’ and the current situation of Nigeria's development,
- Migratory trends during the Pre-colonial Era to the Post-Independence Era and her Emigration of Nigerian professionals outside the country,
- Its impact on her socio-economic structure; and
- Find remedy to correcting human capital flight in terms of brain gain so as to benefit Nigeria.

1.5 Significance of Study:

At the theoretical level, this study will provide reasons why Nigeria has been confounded with the issue of economic underdevelopment. The subtle vote of no confidence passed by the citizens of the country and on her government's failure for the provision of basic amenities and infrastructure by embracing the idea of seeking for greener pastures in the developed western nations; would be more appreciated and understood in this study by seekers and lovers of knowledge.

The empirical and practical significance would provide Nigerian leaders and relevant decision makers with the requisite facts and figures concerning emigrant status of the country. This, they can ultimately rely on, so as to retrace their steps and to ensure that good governance prevails in their various jurisdictions, which would help to stem the *checking out* syndrome.

1.6 The Scope and Limitations of the Study

1.6.1 Scope

The scope of the study centres on the brain drain of the Nigeria's socio-economy in respect to emigration of her people outside the country.

1.6.2 Limitations

There are certain challenges that pose a difficulty to this study. Challenges such as the opportunity to interact with few Nigerian emigrants abroad and get substantial data on the comparison of life here and there, as well as information that can be gotten from with which to gather materials and other relevant literature source for the study. In order to facilitate the updates of the Migration Profile, the timeliness, processing and analysis of migration data are not updated by the necessary authorities.

Although the Nigeria Immigration Service collects a wealth of administrative data on entries, departures and registration, the lack of data separation by sex, age and other relevant characteristics

makes meaningful analysis difficult. There is no known collated official data on Nigerian emigrants from any of the Nigerian ministries or agencies. Embassies may collect data, but these are not made available to the public. Another challenge to developing a database is the issue of confidentiality in collecting and sharing migration data, as well as the lack of unified documentation at the local, regional and international levels.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Migration

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 terms migrant and international migrant are been known to have been used interchangeably. While the term migrant is used generically to mean any individual who have moved from his place of usual residence to another place of relative comfort (this could be within or outside the borders of his country of birth). This movement may be politically, economically, socially and educationally motivated. Some could also be as a result of natural disaster, armed conflict or even huge developmental projects. The relatively permanent movement of people across territorial boundaries is referred to as *in-migration* and *out-migration*, or *immigration* and *emigration* when the boundaries crossed are international. The place of in-migration or immigration is called the *receiver population*, and the place of out-migration or emigration is called the *sender population*.

2.1.1 Types of Migration

There are two basic types of migration studied by demographers:

- a. *Internal migration*: This refers to a change of residence within national boundaries, such as between states, provinces, cities, or municipalities. Example from Lagos to Anambra. An internal migrant is someone who moves to a different administrative territory.
- b. *International migration*: This refers to change of residence over national boundaries, e.g. Nigeria to the USA. An international migrant is someone who moves to a different country. International migrants are further classified as legal immigrants, illegal immigrants, and refugees. Legal immigrants are those who moved with the legal permission of the receiver nation, illegal immigrants are those who moved without legal permission, and refugees are those who crossed an international boundary to escape persecution.

International migrants can also be said as individuals who are strictly considered to have left their country of birth for another country based on one or more of the factors mentioned above. (Ifedi, Kingsley: 2018). Jay Weinstein and Vijayan Pillai (2001) denote a third classification: forced migration. Forced migration exists when a person is moved against their will (slaves), or when the move is initiated because of external factors (natural disaster or civil war). The distinction between internal and international migration is crucial because they happen for different reasons. Because structural barriers are more likely to impede the mobility of a potential international migrant than an internal migrant—international migration involves more administrative procedures, greater expense, and more difficulties associated with obtaining employment, accessing state services,

learning a new language, and the like—the motivations behind international migration are usually stronger than those behind internal migration (Weeks 1999).

2.1.2 Immigration and Emigration

The other key terms; Immigration and emigration are elaborated further. Immigration which is one of the most commonly used terms, is defined as coming to a foreign country with the intention of permanently living there.

Throughout history, immigration has been of great cultural, economic and social benefit to the various states in the world. Several waves of immigration through the years gave rise to the establishment of various multicultural societies. They caused the spread of different cultures and influx of people of different ethnicities that enriched the culture of some countries like the US. After WWII ended, the wave of immigration was largely due to the movement of refugees. In the 1950s and 1960s, the influx of immigrants was due to the end of colonization in Africa and Asia. Many people went to France and the United Kingdom. For example, the British Nationality Act of 1948 granted British citizenship to residents of their former Commonwealth territories. After the Second World War, the rebuilding of the infrastructure in Europe relied heavily on the hands of guest workers and immigrants who worked in the region's transport, health and manufacturing industries. But conditions were not favorable for immigrants due to discrimination. In several countries as well as states in the U.S., minority communities and ethnic groups were isolated. Several states tried to deal with the immigrants' social exclusion by putting a limit to immigration. On the other hand there were states that focused on uniting the different cultures into one through citizenship. That is why immigrants granted citizenship are made to swear allegiance to the new

country that would be their permanent home. Immigration is closely related not only to citizenship but to the political and social rights that are bestowed to them as well.

Control of their borders is maintained by states so that they can determine and monitor the number of immigrants. The degree of control over their borders varies by state. For example, the Schengen Agreement was signed in 1985 by states in Europe. The agreement made it possible for citizens of states that signed the agreement to freely cross their borders. In 1999, the immigration and asylum law of the European Union (EU) was finalized. This allowed nationals from the European Economic Area the right to live (reside) and work in any of the states that are members of the EU, including the right to access social services (Racoma, 2018).

Like immigration, *emigration* means relocation from the home country to another country. One of the main reasons why people emigrate is to improve their quality of life or their chances of employment. Emigration has positive and negative effects to the economies of the countries people chose as their new permanent home.

2.1.3 Effects of Emigration

When people leave their country, they bring down their country's consumer spending as well as labor force. It will have a positive effect on their country of origin if the labor force is oversaturated, as it will relieve unemployment. But if the situation is different, then the people leaving their country of birth will deprive their home country of skilled workers. The receiving country on the other hand would be gaining workers who would be an asset to the country's economy. Many countries exercise control over the number of emigrants, through the enforcement of emigration protocols and strict rules. Emigration has a fiscal impact on the receiving country

because the new emigrants must pay taxes according to their earnings, purchases and other elements. They can access social services like health care, education of their children and other services provided by the new country.

Emigration affects the job market as well as wages in the country they move into. The country must have enough jobs available for the emigrants while ensuring that the native-born workers have equal chances for employment. Wages could be affected as well. For example, acceptance of lower wages by emigrants will effectively lower the wages received by the native born and the emigrants.

2.1.4 Causes of Migration/Push and Pull Factors

People migrate for many different reasons. These reasons can be classified as *economic, social, political or environmental*:

- Economic migration - moving to find work or follow a particular career path
- Social migration - moving somewhere for a better quality of life or to be closer to family or friends
- Political migration - moving to escape political persecution or war
- Environmental causes of migration include natural disasters such as flooding, drought etc.

Some people choose to migrate, e.g. someone who moves to another country to enhance their career opportunities while some people are forced to migrate, e.g. someone who moves due to war or famine. A *refugee* is someone who has left their home and does not have a new home to go to. Often refugees do not carry many possessions with them and do not have a clear idea of where

they may finally settle. Migration is often analysed in terms of the "push-pull model", which looks at the push factors, which drive people to leave their country (such as economic, social, or political problems) and the pull factors attracting them to the country of destination. **Push factors** are the reasons why people leave an area. They include:

- Lack of services
- Lack of safety
- High crime
- Crop failure
- Drought
- Flooding
- Poverty
- War

Pull factors are the reasons why people move to a particular area. They include:

- Higher employment
- More wealth
- Better services
- Good climate
- Safer, less crime

- Political stability
- More fertile land
- Lower risk from natural hazards

Migration usually happens as a result of a combination of these push and pull factors. The majority of migration is from developing to developed countries. Migration, whether internal or international, has a profound effect on economic development, which could be negative or positive. For instance: Brain drain occurs when significant numbers of highly skilled nationals leave their countries of origin to seek employment or establish businesses abroad. It has a negative effect on the economies of developing countries, because the skills of remaining nationals are not sufficient to grow industries, academia and other sectors of the economy; Brain waste occurs when skilled migrants engage in menial occupation abroad, resulting in deskilling and Brain gain can be achieved through the return of individuals who gained skills abroad through temporary migration. Thereby this brings us the expansion of the term Brain drain.

2.2 The Definition of “*Brain Drain*”

When migration is discussed, it is often within the context of fears of masses of migrants overrunning a country. However, Adam Smith’s report on the legislation in Great Britain shows that not only immigration but also emigration has been the subject of public concern:

“Accordingly, by the 5th Geo. I. Chapter. 27, the person who shall be convicted of enticing any artificer of, or in any of the manufacturers of Great Britain, to go into any foreign parts to practice or teach his trade, is liable for the first offence to be fined in any sum not exceeding one hundred pounds, and to three months’ imprisonment, and until the fine shall be paid; and for the second

offence, to be fined in any sum at the discretion of the court, and to imprisonment for twelve months and until the fine shall be paid” (Adam Smith, 1976, Book IV, p. 178)

Throughout the 18th and 19th century, emigration of skilled professionals, craftsmen, was seen as a loss for the country and punished accordingly. However, the question as to how far the emigration of skilled professionals constitutes a loss for the country of emigration has become one of the most heavily discussed in economics under the catchword “*brain drain*” in the 1960s and 1970s. The phenomenon that led to this highly controversial debate was initiated by the decision of students, mainly from developing countries, studying in developed countries to stay in the host country after completion of their curricula. Against this background *brain drain* is often defined as the permanent emigration of highly skilled manpower from poor to rich countries and it implicitly assumes that the process is irreversible and that it induces a loss. Various authors have questioned this narrow definition of *brain drain*, especially because its use has been extended to a variety of phenomena, including the emigration of scientist from one developed country to another. In contrast to the *brain drain* view of highly qualified migration, one could argue that the migration of highly qualified people is mutually beneficial. For this reason, migration among developed countries is viewed as a *brain exchange* rather than a *brain drain* and a *brain gain* (Findlay, 1993). The assumption is that the *brain drain* is only of a temporary nature and is reversed fairly soon. Skilled people, who migrate, do so in order to acquire new skills and knowledge that will be beneficial once their return to their home country. The first question that needs to be answered is whether and under which conditions the *brain drain* really constitutes a problem for the home country. The second question that needs to be answered is what measures are effective to compensate for the loss of welfare induced in the home country of the skilled resource. Before we

start to answer the questions above, it is necessary to analyse the often contradictory literature on the *brain drain* phenomenon and its links to both technological development and education.

2.2.1 Static Effects of the *Brain Drain*

Under the assumption that the *brain drain* phenomenon has an impact on the welfare function, we need to analyse the impact of the *brain drain* on income, unemployment and equality.

2.2.2 Impact on Income

Income effects of international factor movements can be subdivided into a factor endowment effect and a “terms of trade” effect.

2.2.2.1 Factor Endowment Effect

The direct income effect of the phenomenon due to an alteration of the factor endowment can be illustrated in a simple neoclassical one good and two factor model (the basic model). Grubel and Scott (1966) first analysed the effect of emigration on the welfare of those remaining in their home country. Their conclusion was that a very small emigration left the welfare of the remaining population unaffected. Berry and Sligo (1969) argued that a sensible migration affected the welfare of those remaining by altering the factor proportions and thus the per capita income. Clarke (1994), in contrast, argued that no such effect takes place if capital is internationally mobile and thereby equalizes the factor returns or if the capital labour ratio stays constant. This argument implies a perfect substitutability between labour and capital. Skilled labour has a higher capital value. Under international capital mobility there would be no monetary migration incentives and the decision to migrate would only be based on non-monetary motives. The income effect of migration would be compensated through flows of physical capital leaving the level of per capita income unaffected.

Otherwise, the *brain drain* phenomenon would lead to a decrease of the economy wide capital labour ratio and thereby causes the per capita income to decrease in the home country.

However, in order to draft a more realistic model the capital variable needs to be disaggregated into human capital and physical capital. Furthermore, human capital intensive and labour-intensive industries must be distinguished in order to be able to analyse migration within the Ricardo-Viner model, in which capital is taken as the mobile factor. Within this model the emigration of human capital decreases the returns in the capital-intensive sector and thereby induces capital movements into the labour-intensive sector. If the remuneration of human capital and physical capital is greater than that of labour, the *brain drain* leads to a decrease in the per capita return (Davies and Wooton, 1992). Under free trade and international mobility of any factor, the return of each factor is exogenously determined and the *brain drain* has no welfare effects. However, if all three factors are needed in the production of both goods, the world market does not determine the factor returns and the emigration of skilled labour has a negative effect on those remaining in the home country.

The *brain drain* can decrease the per capita income through three different channels:

- If education is positively related to ability, the emigration is substituted by less able persons in the post-migration equilibrium thereby lowering the overall productivity and the output (Berry and Soligo, 1969);
- Highly skilled persons might constitute a bottleneck for certain kinds of development projects. In this case the output loss is magnified and may go along with thereby induced unemployment; and

- A magnification of the income loss also occurs if positive externalities from human capital exist (Bhagwati, 1976).

2.2.2.2 “Terms of Trade” Effect

The terms of trade are generally defined as the ratio of export to import prices a country faces in an open economy and, hence, positively related to the level of welfare. Taking the technology within this theoretical framework as given, terms of trade can be influenced via migration through demand and supply effects (Dixit and Norman, 1993). Assuming a Heckscher-Ohlin world, it is essential to distinguish among small and large countries. Small countries are unlikely to be able to influence terms of trade and the only effect of a *brain drain* is an alteration of the capital labour ratio and hence the per capita income. Large countries face an additional negative effect triggered by the *brain drain*, a deterioration of the terms of trade of the export good is labour intensive. *Brain drain* causes the production of the capital intensive good to decrease proportionally (Rybczynski effect) and consequently the export sector to expand. An increased supply of the export goods at the world market brings about a price decrease and thus a deterioration of the terms of trade. We can conclude that a limited emigration has no effect on the welfare of a small country. However, this result needs to be revised if non-tradable goods are taken into account (Rivera-Batiz, 1982). In this case the price of the traded good is given from the work market but the price of the non-tradable good is determined endogenously and also depends on the factor endowment. The terms of trade are defined as the ratio of prices of tradable goods to non-tradable goods. Since the price of the tradable goods is exogenously determined, the terms of trade solely depend on the prices of the non-tradable goods. Alam (1982) argues that in developing countries, highly skilled people primarily work within human capital-intensive sectors. The output of these sectors is non-

tradable. Therefore, in developing countries, the *brain drain* causes the service sector to contract and its price to increase, which implies a worsening of the terms of trade. An additional effect of the *brain drain* can be identified if a non-tradable good is produced under increasing returns to scale. As argued by Krugman (1991) increasing returns to scale in the use of labour can be caused by indivisibilities. Under these assumptions factor price equalisation might occur in the presence of free trade but real wages still differ because of differences in the price index stemming from varying output levels of the non-tradable good. The country whose non-tradable production is higher will have a lower price index and consequently higher real wages. Free factor mobility will completely depopulate the small country. Based on this model, it can be argued that non-tradable goods are human capital intensive and that the migration costs vary inversely with the educational level. If only skilled people are mobile, every emigrant will harm the home country by causing a decrease in the per capita income. Furthermore, if the increase in foreign output does not outweigh the loss of domestic output, compensation becomes theoretically impossible. Compensatory measures are therefore crucial to ensure the stability of the system. The United Nations have suggested the application of compensatory measures for taxing flows of human capital (e.g. loan repayments, flat tax).

2.2.3 Inequality and Employment

The relationship between *brain drain* and unemployment is linked to the process of rural to urban migration within the development process. The classical mechanism to generate unemployment within the *brain drain* literature is the application of the assumption of rigid wages. Bhagwati (1976) argues that highly qualified people in developing countries stick their wage level above the equilibrium wage rate to that of industrialised countries because they have adapted Western norms

and values and thereby induce unemployment. Unemployment of qualified persons may furthermore be due to mismatching when the pace of economic development lags behind the pace of human capital formation. Kapur (2001) and Bhagwati and Partington (1976) in United Nations Human Rights Declaration Report (2001) suggest there are several alternatives for taxing flows of human capital:

- a) a requirement for loan repayment, where each student in tertiary education is given a loan that would have to be repaid if the student leaves the country;
- b) a flat tax, where overseas nationals pay a small fraction of their income, say 1 percent;
- c) The US model, where individuals are taxed on the basis of nationality, not residence. This would require negotiating bilateral tax treaties;
- d) The cooperative model, where a multilateral regime would allow automatic intergovernmental transfers of payroll taxes or income taxes paid by nationals of other countries.”

Bhagwati and Hamada (1974) investigated the consequences of the *brain drain* under rigid wages in a Harris-Todaro (1970) economy. Educated labour in developing countries sets its wage rate according to the corresponding wage rate in developed countries and unskilled labour pegs its wage rate to that of skilled labour. This institutionally induced market failure leads to unemployment because of the resulting disequilibrium. If unemployed skilled labour leaves the country, two effects on employment arise:

- a) The reduction of skilled unemployment induces an increase of the expected skilled wage rate and thus makes education more attractive for unskilled labour. A new disequilibrium

situation might be induced if the increased supply of newly skilled labour overcompensates the loss of skilled labour; and

- b) As domestic wages are linked to foreign wages, nominal wages of skilled and unskilled labour tend to increase and induce a positive effect on unemployment.

The possibility exists that the fall of the per capita income and the rise of unskilled unemployment is also accompanied by an increase in skilled unemployment. Within this framework, if skilled labour crowds out unskilled labour in unskilled jobs, emigrated skilled labour that does not exceed the number of skilled labour in unskilled jobs induces an offset by unemployed unskilled labour and consequently leaves productivity unchanged. As a result, unskilled employment and per capita income may rise. The *brain drain* might also have an impact on welfare through its influence on inequality. Gupta (1988 and 1991) argues that urban migration and overall unemployment might be increased through emigration. An increase in unemployment increases inequality measured by the Gini coefficient, if the unemployed people earn less than unskilled labour. If the degree of inequality becomes socially undesirable, the introduction of wage subsidies or social security payments leads to an increased tax rate. Because of lacking institutional structures in developing countries, a further incentive to migrate is therefore created for taxpayers, usually well-educated labour. While the overall effect of *brain drain* is ambiguous, a substantial emigration will most certainly lead to higher unemployment and to lower per capita income.

2.2.4 Public Sector

On the expenditure side, if education is publicly subsidised, the *brain drain* induces a negative fiscal externality. If the economy-wide education is expanded in response to emigration, the

governmental deficit increases (Bhagwati, 1976). This effect is accelerated if the newly educated people are less gifted. On the revenues side, progressive income taxation combined with a positive correlation between education and income leads to a decline in the average tax rate, if highly qualified labour emigrates. Under a static framework, in which the tax structure is constant, the *brain drain* induces two effects:

- a) It reduces the volume of expenditure, if the budget is to be balanced. A reduction of public expenditures is particularly harmful to governmental sectors producing under decreasing average costs. A reduction of public subsidies for education leads to an increase in the private costs of education and thus to a decrease in private demand; and
- b) A government whose citizens are able to emigrate freely has generally less taxation power. If emigration shall be avoided and the level of publicly provided goods and services is to be maintained, less distribution can take place and the Government faces a trade-off between equality and income.

While the loss of skilled labour from developing countries toward developed countries is likely to continue in the foreseeable future, governments are challenged to find a solution to recover some of the resources they lose. In order to seek compensation for the loss of skilled labourers, governments of developing countries are exploring different options following the recommendation of the United Nations:

- a) Exit taxes for educated labourers leaving the home country could be collected through unilateral or bilateral mechanisms. The revenues from these taxes could be reinvested in education;

- b) Loan Grants could force educated labourers to stay until individual loans are fully repaid;
- c) Flat tax rates levied on all nationals who have left the country amounting to a small fraction of their income;
- d) The implementation of a tax system similar to the US system where individuals are taxed on the basis of nationality, not residence; and
- e) The development and implementation of a cooperative model, where a multilateral regime would allow automatic intergovernmental transfers of payroll taxes or income taxes paid by nationals of other countries.

2.2.5 Dynamic Development Effects of the *Brain Drain* Phenomenon

The dynamic analysis of the *brain drain* differs from the static analysis mainly because it takes into consideration also the process of capital accumulation. The key assumption is that economic development is a basis for any sustainable social development. Naqvi (1995) identifies a positive relation between the performances of the human development index and of income. Therefore, economic growth can be seen as a necessary precondition for development. The theory of economic growth serves as a theory of development because it identifies the determinants of the long-term income evolution. Under this theory we will be able to develop a broad approach toward the effect of the *brain drain* on development by focusing primarily on its impact on the technological progress. Technological progress – in the sense of moving forward toward better techniques than those initially available – enables the overall productivity and the per capita income to increase and implies that its content differs with respect to the stages of the development process. Therefore, the *brain drain* has a direct impact on the development process through its

strong relation to economic growth. In order to analyse these links, the required development theory has to fulfil two main requirements:

- a) It should be able to explain why some countries developed and others did not under the same external conditions; and
- b) It should allow the consistent incorporation of the development process of developed countries into this theory.

In order to fulfil the requirements above, the discussion will be based on Kuznets' (1973) theory of development. According to Kuznets, modern economic growth "may be defined as a long-term rise in capacity to supply increasingly diverse economic goods to its population, this growing capacity based on advancing technology and the institutional and ideological advancements that it demands". The importance of the development process is given by the fact that it triggers a self-sustaining growth process. Growth enables research activities that lead to inventions and innovations whose returns can be used for research. Kuznets adduced six characteristics of modern economic growth:

- a) Gross domestic product per capita rises rapidly;
- b) The rise in productivity for all inputs is high;
- c) A transformation of an agriculturally oriented society toward a non-agriculturally-oriented society takes place;
- d) The structure of a society and its ideology change rapidly;
- e) The propensity to reach out to the rest of the world; and

f) The spread of growth is limited.

However, to fully understand the process of economic development, we need to consider both the links between the six characteristics above as well as the political and institutional factors (Conroy and Glasmeier, 1995; Olson, 1994). Following this technologically oriented approach, the degree of development can broadly be categorised by the degree of technological activity. Mitch (1990) argues that human capabilities are decisive for development. Their development depends on the occupational composition of labour force, the degree of urbanisation and the distribution and organisation of power in a society. According to Easterlin (1981), education raises the extent to which the economy is able to adopt, exploit and develop new techniques. Therefore, a large scale emigration of educated people has a negative impact on development. However, if emigration takes place in response to unemployment, the phenomenon might be positive for development because it eases the labour market conditions and reduces the likelihood of falling into a poverty trap (Todaro, 1994). Elaborating on the influence of education on development, Todaro (1994) concludes in line with the findings of Psacharopoulos (1985) that the return of education is inversely related to the level of development measured in per capita income as well as the level of education whether the latter effect results from an over-proportional increase in the costs of education and an under-proportional increase in productivity with the educational level. One can argue that the emigration of persons with tertiary education is less harmful in terms of decrease in production than the emigration of people with secondary education. During the early stage of development it is most important to enlarge basic education enabling the use of basic technologies (World Bank, 1995) that coincides with the objectives of the South African Reconstruction and Development Program. However, the relation between migration and development remains ambiguous. Kuznets (1973) argues that although technological change in the economic sense plays

an important role, substantial development may require greater innovation in the political and economic structure.

Abrams and Lewis (1995) conclude that economic and personal freedoms encourage growth significantly. Thus, the lack of a corresponding political environment will be an even greater obstacle for development. Fischer et al. (1995) review the results of fourteen case studies on the link between migration and development. They conclude that labour market effects are mixed, ranging from labour shortages to a substantial lease. Skill improvements due to the return of former emigrants seem to be limited. The Return of Qualified African National Program, run by the International Organization for Migration, has tried to encourage qualified nationals to return and helped them to reintegrate. It reintegrated 1,857 nationals across Africa in the period 1983-1999. Given the high level of *brain drain* from Africa, these efforts are unlikely to make any meaningful difference. Taking the necessary institutional preconditions as given, significant *brain drain* leads to a loss of managerial and innovative potential if there is no compensation by the skilled immigrants. The formation of technological capabilities is reduced if the stock of human capital is reduced and a country will find more difficult to compete in human capital-intensive products. Understanding the link between education, economic growth and technological changes is crucial to measure the impact of the *brain drain* on a nation and to develop strategies to compensate for its potentially negative effects.

2.3 The Concept of Brain Drain

The term, “Brain Drain” was coined by the British Royal Society to describe the outflow of scientists and technicians to the United States and Canada in the 1950s and early 1960s (Carrington, 1999). By the 1970s brain drain came to be associated with the flow of skilled

individuals from the developing world to Western Europe and North America. Since then, the phenomenon has been a contentious issue in the north-south debate (Carrington, 1999). According to the World Bank *World Development Report 2001*, Brain drain is the migration of skilled human resources for trade, education, etc. Encyclopaedia Britannica addresses brain drain as the "departure of educated or professional people from one country, economic sector, or field to another usually for a better pay or living conditions. Brain drain is a new phenomenon of the 20th century. It can be defined as the migration of highly skilled individuals who are trained in one country and take up residence and work in another. In this circumstance, professionals, in whom a nation has invested a considerable amount of educational resources, leave their native land and seek employment opportunities elsewhere. Secondly, it can be defined as the migration of "human capital" across international borders in form of migrant. The migrants move to countries, which they are not nationals for the purpose of employment. These migrants are persons not possessing the citizenship of their country of employment. More over brain drain or human capital flight is an emigration of trained and talented individuals (human capital) to other nations or jurisdiction, due to conflicts, lack of opportunity, health hazards where they are living or other reasons.

Ukandi G. Damachi and Victor P. Diejomaoh (eds.) in a book titled *Human Resources and African Development* examined the effects of Brain Drain on Economic Growth and Welfare. They examined the causes of Brain Drain and the loss of personnel through migration. They also put forward some solutions both domestically and externally to stem the process. But they failed to address the issue of how Nigeria could become developed. Omonijo & Nnedum (2011) considered that brain drain is a loss in terms of money used to employ skilled manpower from developed societies to replace migrated manpower from underdeveloped countries and African institutions are increasingly dependent on foreign expertise. They were able to identify the causes of brain

drain in Nigeria as poor leadership of the country, poor salaries of workers and conditions of service etc. while the effects of brain drain on the economy of the country are under developing Nigeria through comity of nations, shortage of manpower resources, loss of tax to the country etc. In their article they concluded that there is a correlation between poor leadership and brain drain in Nigeria but their study was limited to students' opinion rather than popular opinion.

Brain drain is a popular euphemism for the phenomenon whereby a significantly large number of highly skilled individuals leave a particular geographical area, usually their nations of origin, for other nations over a comparatively short period of time because of a variety of reasons. Consequently the area from where they departed are impoverished one way or the other. Essentially their nations of origin are denied the services and expertise they would have otherwise provided (Adelugba).

The history of massive brain drain started in USA in 1960s, when scientists were encouraged to go there in order to challenge the launching of sputnik (1957) by the former Soviet Union. They provided increased expenditure for highly skilled personnel that were met by immigration. During this period both the developed and less developed were launching efforts to industrialize and wanted to catch up with the technical and scientific standards of the United States. The loss of manpower was believed to affect developing countries efforts to industrialize. For Nigeria, migration has been an important feature of humanity even in the pre-colonial era.

2.3.1 Migratory trends during the Pre-colonial Era

International migration in Nigeria pre-dates the colonization of Nigeria, irrespective of the difficulties encountered in classifying the moves as either internal or international and of getting

accurate data. The former problem arises from the fact that Nigeria could not have been identified as a nation as of this era, as different ethnic groups and/or nationalities lived under different kingdoms and empires within the geographical space now referred as Nigeria. Nonetheless, international migration was evident in the movements of indigenes that were involved or were victims of slave-raiding and slave trading, inter-ethnic conflicts and warfare. Also, legitimate trading, nomadic herding of livestock, and pilgrimage to religious places in the Arabian Peninsula, brought about diverse human mobility and migration within and across borders of existing empires and kingdoms. The dynamics of the unhindered spatial movements of people within and outside empires/kingdoms in Nigeria and Africa at large were encouraged by the lack of well-defined boundaries between existing empires and kingdoms. Although there is a paucity of documentation of the human mobility and migration during this era, nevertheless, some studies, such as Alkali (1985) and Armstrong (1955) conveyed the idea that migration flows during the period were dynamic and diverse.

Further evidence of the dynamics of the level of the human mobility and/or migration flows and trends during this era indicate that the Sokoto Caliphate was essentially populated by immigrants, of Gobirawa, Nufawa, Bussawa, Tuaregs, Adrawa and the Zebrama ethnic groups, while the emigrants were mostly Hausa-Fulani (Kwaire, 2000). In addition, emigration from the northeastern part of Nigeria can be traced to the 19th century, prior to the partitioning of Africa, when most of the ethnic groups found in Nigeria's neighbouring francophone countries migrated from and were part of the old Borno Empire (Mahadi, 1989). Also, the dynamics of migration in the north-central part of Nigeria was noted as early as 500 BC, when it was essentially determined by the quest for territory, that is, people moving to secure land of their own or for identity (Armstrong, 1955). For example, the Idoma speaking people of the middle belt of Nigeria (presently in the north central

zone) were said to have migrated from the Kwararafa kingdom in north eastern part of Nigeria between 1535 and 1745 in two phases to their current locations in Benue and Nassarawa States and to the northern part (Ogoja) of the Cross River State. The people were said to have acquired their main cultural feature (agrarian) from their interaction with other ethnic groups during the migration process (Erim, 1981). To further buttress the point, the Tiv people of the middle belt (in the present day north central zone), from ethnographic and historical studies were identified to be of Bantu stock (Makar, 1994). They are recorded to have migrated from the Congo basin, crossing several countries, which was a process of international migration, on their way to locations in the present day four States of Benue, Plateau, Nassarawa, and Taraba. It was on this regard of their movements being over internal locations in the country that Lord Lugard, the first Governor General of Nigeria stated that “the peoples of the Benue River valley moved continuously along the valley in search of farmland” (Armstrong, 1955). Moreover, migration within this same zone in the early part of the century was characterized by the movement of people to highlands, such as the Jos Plateau, Adamawa and Mambila highlands. These were regarded as a safe haven to avoid Islamic Jihad of Othman Dan Fodio and his followers, who moved from the northwestern part of the present day Nigeria to the north-central zone in order to convert people to Islam (Mahadi, 1989).

Further south, the colonization of areas to the south-west by the powerful Oyo empire builders led to subsequent movements, founding of settlements, and trading activities. These are manifest in the extent of the Oyo Empire that stretched as far west as the Ashanti and Dahomey areas (Akinjogbin, 1980). The latter movements tend to account for the significant presence of Yoruba immigrants from old Oyo Empire in neighbouring Empires in former francophone and Anglo-phone countries of West Africa, such as the present day Republics of Benin, Togo, Cote d’Ivoire

and Liberia. The establishment of many settlements in the Yoruba land is another form of colonization; hence, another evidence of internal migration during this period. For example, Ibadan was founded by people from Egba, and Ife, Ijebu, Ijesa, Ekiti, Igbomina, Akoko and by non-Yoruba group led by Lagelu around 16th century. The Fulani Jihadists were also instrumental to the migration of some Oyo people to Ibadan war camp whenever they raided their villages (Albert, 1994). In addition, slave raiding and slave trading were activities that manifest forced migrations during the pre-colonial era. The genesis of the slave raiding and trading in many parts of present day Nigeria dates back to about 1500 (the approximate period of the Atlantic slave trade), with the forced human movement in the coastal areas (Niger-Delta, Calabar, etc.) and in the Yoruba region of the southwest of the country. One aspect of the result was that many people took refuge on defensive sites, such as the Idanre hills and on the Jos Plateau. And another aspect is the imprint of the slave trade in Nigeria seems prominent in the central middle belt of the country. The latter was referred to as the major source for slaves for both the coastal trade and trade in the northern part of the present day Nigeria (Mondjannagni, 1982; Nwosu, 2003; Adepoju, 1996). However, the much more documented impact has been the cross- Atlantic slave trade, which dislodged thousands of people across the Yoruba and Hausa-Fulani kingdoms respectively. This gives credence to a truly international migration par excellence, across the ocean to an entirely new space.

Besides, there were other categories of migrants at this period; inclusive, the migrant traders and herdsmen. These were prominent in the trans-Saharan trade. For example, traders in Hausaland ventured out on long distant trading to the present-day countries of Benin, Burkina Faso, Mali, and Cameroon (Akinjogbin, 1980). Also, the pastoral activities of the nomadic Fulani dated back to this era; the nomads moved their cattle with the seasons from one locality to the other within the

geographical space now referred to as Nigeria. Their movements spanned the whole length and breadth of the grassland or savanna region of West Africa (Stenning, 1957). In addition, early pilgrimage tradition in West Africa led to long distance moves outside the present day Nigeria (Alkali, 1985). Muslims in Kanem, Borno and Hausaland had opened up an early migratory corridor between Western Sudan and the Arab world in the bid to reach Mecca by land. The emphasis placed on the performance of pilgrimage by the rulers of some of these early West African empires/kingdoms contributed to the international mobility. It was shown to even surpass that of some Arab rulers at that time, in spite of the proximity of the later to Mecca. Over time, these movements gave rise to a sizeable number of Hausa communities that were established on much more permanent basis along the pilgrimage routes within present day Chad and Sudan (Alkali, 1985).

2.3.2 Migration in the Colonial Era & Shortly after Independence

The arrival of the British in the 19th century marked a turning point and added another angle to both internal and international migrations in Nigeria. Activities of the colonial administration led to demarcation of boundaries, a relatively stable government, modern means of transport; and a monetized economy, among others. The British economic policy snow-balled into the independence era in Nigeria; hence, waves of migration that propelled the export oriented political-economic policy of the colonial administration. This was sustained and persisted during the period shortly after the country gained its independence. The political economy of the country was such that it provided a framework for large-scale migration; deriving from the need for large labour force for mines, plantations and public administration. Labour was recruited through persuasion and coercion (Adepoju, 1996). In more depth, internal migration was promoted, leading to

enhanced rural-rural migration, as people moved over a relatively freer space, to work as either migrant tenant farmers, as farm labour and or as migrant traders. The items of trade and direction of their trade also changed, from local to imported goods, mostly in a south-north and north-south direction (Udo, 1975). The seasonal movement of nomads that was noted for the pre-colonial era continued, the exceptions being movements towards viable locations in the south. Studies on internal labour migration also reveal that migrant labourers from different parts of the country, especially from rural areas moved into regional headquarters, administrative and market centers of Lagos, Kano, Zaria, Enugu, Ibadan, Sokoto, and Kaduna, among many others, in quest of trade and gainful employment (Udo, 1975; Shimada, 1993; Ikwuyatum, 2006).

For international migration, Abba (1993) reported that between 1914 and 1922 there was a noticeable immigration of foreigners into Kano and its environment. It was estimated that within this period between 10,000 and 30,000 Tuaregs from Niger Republic moved into Kano city in Nigeria. Afolayan (1998) reported the recruitment of some Nigeria workers, who had been involved in constructing the Nigerian railway, for work on rail lines in Tema- Takoradi area of Gold Coast and the Cotonou-Parakou in Dahomey (Adegbola, 1972). Also, between 1900 and January 1902, approximately 6,500 labourers left Lagos to work on the Sekondi-Tarkwa rail line and in the gold mines of the Gold Coast, where wages were higher than in Lagos. In Dahomey, many of the Nigerian emigrants took to trading after the completion of the railway, while many of them left for Ivory Coast after the World War 1. Many of the emigrants from Nigeria were attracted by evidence of success displayed by returnees; by the belief that wealth was easier to acquire while away from home; and over time, wives or new brides joined their husbands (Adegbola, 1972).

Other evidences point to the increasing immigration and emigration in Nigeria. For the former, Prothero (1957) indicated that at least 250,000 immigrants entered the northwestern region of Nigeria between 1931 and 1952 from the French territory in the north and west; a situation that was suggested to have been so since 1903. For the latter, Lawan (2004) gave a conservative estimate that over 70,000 Nigerians living in Sudan were mostly from Hausaland and Borno. Mahadi (1989) also argued that the 1948 census of Ghana showed about 46,800 Nigerians lived in Ghana, which later rose to 100,000 in 1959; thereby, doubling the 1948 figure of migrants from Nigeria. Prothero (1957) also revealed that 257,000 migrants left the northwestern region in 1952-1953 census for the Gold Coast, Dahomey and Togo, out of which 28,000 people were mostly from 'Arewacin Sokkwato', that is, from Northern Sokoto. Adegbola (1972) and Afolayan (2004) also noted the emigration of Ogbomoso people from south western Nigeria to Dahomey and Ghana. The volume of indigenes of Ejigbo in Abidjan, though low in the mid-20th century, was recorded to have picked up after the World War II. Adegbola (1972) and Mabogunje (1972) indicated that people from Osun Division, in particular Saki, emigrated to Ghana, Upper Volta, Dahomey, Mali, Togo and Niger, among other West African countries. The increasing level of the emigration was associated with the economic development and vigorous Pan-African movement pursued by Ghana shortly after its independence. This was punctuated by the expulsion of between 0.5 to 1.0 million foreigners from Ghana, including Yoruba emigrants. This was consequent on the deteriorating economic conditions in Ghana and the Aliens Compliance Order of November 1969. The experience dictated other migration decisions: movement to alternative destinations, in particular Ivory Coast, shorter duration of stay and circulatory movements. These are different forms of the dynamic aspects of migration of latter years.

In short, many of the works on immigration and emigration in Nigeria can simply be described as movements within relatively homogenous West African states. This is because the boundaries that split the people of common culture and ethnic groupings into different countries were more or less perceived by the people across the border as ‘artificial’; hence, many of the international migrants that originated just across the border in the contiguous countries of Benin, Niger, Chad and Cameroon perceived their movements as within the same socio-cultural space rather than between two different nations (Asiwaju, 1984; 1989; Okobiah, 1989). This perception for the farther away West African countries, of Ghana and Cote d’Ivoire did not hold. Consequently, the lack of contiguity of the former British colonies resulted in varied destinations for Nigerian emigrants, and for longer period of stay for enhancing their livelihood, among other reasons. The more accepted international migrations were, therefore, those that took place between Nigeria and the mother-country, Britain, where the emerging elites moved to mainly for educational pursuit and in a few cases for administrative matters. The other emerging destination country of less importance was the United States of America.

2.3.3 Dynamics of Migration in the Post-Independence Era

However, the third and final quarter of the 20th century, the post-independence era, witnessed heightened labour migration from several parts of the country to the main administrative and economic centers of the country and to more varied destinations than ever before. Relatively large scale of immigration into the country was interrupted by flight and or expulsion. This affected the course of migration, as changing political economy of Nigeria, in forms of civil war, reconstruction, the development of natural resources and establishment of main administrative centers affected migration decision-making of people. For example, many of the government

policies led to a lopsided development, of creation of more employment opportunities and provision of infrastructure and facilities in urban centers than in the rural areas. Thus, employment opportunities were outside the people's primary productive activity, of agriculture; and/or were created in areas such as the tin mines of the Jos Plateau, the Enugu coal mines and the coastal industrial/port cities of Lagos, Port Harcourt and Calabar. Also, the cash-cropping system of the colonialist had brought about movement of people to the cocoa and rubber plantation belts of south-western and south-eastern parts of Nigeria, and to the groundnut belt of Northern Nigeria for migrant laborers from the Middle Belt region of Nigeria (Udo, 1975; NISER, 1998).

Moreover, the cause of human mobility had not always been economic; civil war and ethnic conflicts had spurred the dislocation of minorities from their destination back to their home region. The Biafra War of 1967-1970 recorded the largest dislocation and dislodging of many ethnic groups from the northern part to the south-eastern and southwestern parts of the country. And for some of the people dislodged during and after the Biafra war, the option was the flight out of the country, to the Republic of Benin and to the outlying islands of Sao Tome and Principe.

Furthermore, the immigration of ECOWAS citizens into Nigeria took another dimension after the Protocol on Free Movement of Goods, Capital and People was ratified in 1980 (Afolayan, 1988). This almost coincided with the period of economic buoyancy in Nigeria, such that many ECOWAS citizens immigrated into Nigeria. But this was short lived; due to a sharp decline in the price of oil. Consequently, in January/February 1983 and April/June 1985, many ECOWAS citizens that had exceeded the 90 days of grace without the residence permit were expelled from the country. In addition, by the late 1980s, some other changes in the economic and political policies of the country resulted in changes in the pattern of migration in Nigeria. One in particular is the adoption

of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in June 1986. SAP dictated a shift from the official policy of full employment to substantially reduced government spending on critical services, such as health, education and housing (Afolayan, 1998). This created a greater tendency for persons to emigrate. Evidence include the relatively large number of women traders that shuttle between Lagos and Abidjan in Cote d'Ivoire and in a few other coastal West African countries (Afolayan, 1991). Another cause of migration is the environmental factor (Afolayan and Adelekan, 1998). Climatic and seasonal variability are the primary factors of seasonal migration, while severe drought and periodic environmental hazards are factors for irregular movement. Seasonal migration, especially of the 'yan cin rani' type, meaning 'eating the dry season away', has been very much evident in the Sokoto area of Northern Nigeria (Prothero, 1957). The more serious drought, of 1972-3, led to a large number, though not well documented, ecologically displaced Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) into urban centers within the country. For some, the movements were to other locations outside Nigeria, the latter being locations within the Niger and Chad Republics (Prothero, 1959; Mortimore, 1988; Afolayan, 1992).

Circulatory movement started reflecting in both the internal and international labour migration, between the poorer and better-endowed areas of West Africa, as a 'new' strategy to mitigate instability of stay away from the source region, Nigeria. This has been the situation long before for nomads; but the novel aspect of it is among migrant laborers and traders, who shuttle between destination and Nigeria, in case of any deportation order (Afolayan, 2004). They feature also in the two categories of movers identified to be crossing the frontiers of West African countries; the transient (commuters, visitors, frontier workers) and permanent migrants (Afolayan, 2000). Labo (2000) described them as people that across the international boundary, even though they belong to the same ethnic group; yet they are separated by political borders of West African countries.

Moreover, there has been significant international migration of professionals from the region, but there is virtually no documentation of these movements, hence, there is a dearth and virtual absence of empirical research on this important and often the most publicized category of international migrants. By the middle of the 20th century, emigration of professionals, high-level manpower and skilled workers emerged from the developing countries to the developed countries. Brain drains in Nigeria was becoming prominent as from the 1960s, taking a dramatic turn after the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) was introduced in 1985 (Afolayan, 1988; Adegbola, 1991, Adepoju, 1991). The creation of states and more local government areas in Nigeria in the 1970s, and the development of the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, brought about new dynamics of internal migration within the north central zone of the country. The Federal Government development policies energized the migration of people from rural to urban headquarters; from rural areas to State and Local Government Headquarters; and to the Federal Capital Territory located in the north central region of Nigeria (Afolayan, 1998; Ikwuyatum, 2006). The latter, Abuja (FCT), was for long known to be a sparsely populated area; but with the establishment as the FCT, it is presently the administrative and economic nerve center of the country and it is second only to Lagos as the major migration pull center (Afolayan, 1998).

From the information above, it is evident to say that Nigeria has had a long history of movement that contributes to brain drain. One of the best known movements of Nigerians from the continent includes the Atlantic slave trade. This has been followed by the outflow of technicians and scientists to Canada, United Kingdom, United States, among other European and Southeast Asian countries in the early years of 1950s and 1960s (Gerschenkron, 2008: 4). The brain drain became associated with the flow of skilled individual manpower by the early 1970s from the developing Nigeria to North America and Western Europe. However, as Mberu, (2010) asserts, brain drain is

seen to be having some silver lining for the losing countries. Nigerians in Diaspora have of late found ways of making their technical expertise available to their mother countries by use of electronic networks. Most movements of Nigerians that occurred between 1970s and 1980s were particularly in response to economic conditions, conflict and political repressions (Evans, 1989: 574). For example, the Nigerian oil boom of the late 1970s had initially attracted many Africans from the neighbouring countries. However, this resulted into massive departure of Nigerians when oil prices collapsed in the early 1980s. Most of the skilled expertise went to the United States and the oil rich Arab countries. Their main focus of attraction for the professionals in these foreign countries can be attributed to the better pay packages and better working conditions. According to Evans (1989: 574), up to 10,000 Nigerian professional moved into the United States alone in the year 1984. Brain drain has been a complicated phenomenon in the first 30 years of Nigerian independence, with most of the movements being away from the continent.

The Conference of Rectors, Vice Chancellors and Presidents (COREVIP, held biannually by the African Association of Universities) in their 2007 proceedings reported that, ‘about 60,000 middle and high-skilled Africans emigrated from the continent between 1986 and 1990’. Corroborating the above, Fadayomi (2009) states that based on an Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) and the International Organization for Migration (IOM) reports (2005), no fewer than 20,000 skilled Africans have been emigrating from the continent since 1990. According to him, an estimated 27,000 skilled Africans left the region for the more developed countries between 1960 and 1975, with the figure increasing to 40,000 between 1975 and 1985 (an increase of 60 percent within a decade).

2.4 Causes of Brain drain in Nigeria

The pertinent and worrisome question is: why have Nigerian intellectuals and professionals left or contemplating seriously leaving the country? A variety of reasons account for the migration of a large chunk of Nigeria's best brains from the country to other parts of the globe (especially the West). Previous and recent studies have revealed that a key driver of intellectual and professional exodus from Nigeria is the harsh economic condition under which most intellectuals and professionals work. Next is the desire to go to countries that could pay for and utilize their competitive skills (Adebayo, 2010).

It is relevant, however, that we also take cognizance of the social, political and psychological pressures that compel Nigerian intellectuals and professionals to seek more conducive climes for their work and lives. It should therefore, occasion no surprise that they avail themselves of better opportunities in other countries when the situation presents itself. In this study, we shall adopt a bi-polar model of push and pull factors propounded by Lee (1966) in analysing the factors responsible for brain drain in Nigeria. The former are the depressing characteristics in the countries of origin which produce emigration, whilst the latter are the attracting features in the countries of destination. Prominent amongst the push factors are lack of employment opportunities, under employment, political instability, security risks, and lack of research and other facilities and unsatisfactory working conditions. Others include desire for higher qualification and recognition, better career expectation, discrimination in appointment and promotion, lack of job satisfaction, desire for a better urban life and lack of freedom. The pull factors, on the other hand, include better economic prospects (especially better employment opportunities and enhanced remuneration), higher standard of living, and easy access to inputs necessary for satisfying job performance,

adequate/proper value for intellectual and professional worth and better opportunity for higher education. Others are relative political stability, allocation of substantial funds for research, intellectual freedom, better service conditions, prestige of foreign training and better research facilities.

2.5 Gap in Literature

It is evident that from the reviewed texts, migration in far old practise and worldwide movement that has been dated as far back as humanity has existed. Migration was well discussed and categorized by the authors into the major concept of this study, *emigration*. Although most of the examples given could not be related to the Nigerian environment. Under the push and pull factors, education wasn't so elaborated on in terms of the Nigerian education system. It was not stated how travelling of the country in search for education opportunities could pose a problem for the remaining population left behind and the reason for not coming back. The concept of *brain drain*, which was borrowed from the discipline 'Economics' for the purpose of this study had a lot of jargons that were rather difficult to comprehend and relatable to the study of international relations. Nevertheless, it breaks down potential ways to curb underdevelopment of a state's economy.

Pointing out that migrant data is very limited - in large part because many developing countries do not (or cannot) keep accurate data on their emigrants – quite a number of authors attempt to identify the things that are known about the migration of talent from the information available. They then proceed to give an overview of how the competition for talent in the international market takes place, and the things that many developed nations do, on the policy level, to attract talent from less developed ones.

The solutions however, are not entirely practical in the Nigerian market where we face a lot of challenges in the collection and enforcement of taxes, let alone trying to suggest taking from emigrants who are settled outside the country. In the aspect of technological advances, Nigeria has a long way to go as it requires both the participation and adequate funding of her political government for the growth and development of her economy and possible minimal emigration of the skilled professionals and students.

In general, there is a dearth of data and information on international migration in Nigeria. This is based on the difficulties encountered in obtaining data and information on the issue for the literature review. The literature review of trends of international migration in Nigeria has demonstrated the changing and extremely complex nature of the phenomena over the different eras considered, in particular in the recent past. These manifest in the diversification of the migration streams, increasing volume, changing causes of migration, predominance of certain categories of migrants, especially the brain drain and attempts at measuring consequences of international migration, among others. However, knowledge on many of these issues is still very low and incomprehensive. There is, therefore a call for better and more comprehensive knowledge of the phenomena than ever before in order to manage migration better for development purposes.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The form of research design adopted for this study is one that deals with information already generated by previous scholars on the subject and to check its relevance and applicability to the present study with the aim of also testing the hypothesis made on the study. Asika (2012) noted that a research design is the structuring of investigation which is aimed at identifying variables and their relationship to one another. It is used for the purpose of obtaining data to enable the researcher test hypotheses or answer the research questions. Kothari & Garg (2014) opined that research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the data collection, data measurement and data analysis. Against this background, this study adopted the trend analysis research design. Effective trend analysis in research will give you an idea about new entries in the market and can be a guide to strategize a plan to maintain market position or improve it. Expansion of economy can happen on the basis of this trend analysis as well. Comparing the statistical historical data and predicting what the future is going to be like will set the ball rolling for the economy. Loads and loads of research go into establishing the factor which determines that if there's brain drain in Nigeria, it will bring down development over a period of time. The application of trend analysis in research can also be used to understand whether a trend will set another trend in momentum. This design enabled us to generate data to answer the research questions and as well test the hypothesis.

In the first hypothesis, our X variable is "the living standard of Nigerians", while our Y variable is "emigration of her citizens to other developed states". In the second hypothesis, our X variable is "the reduction in the number of skilled personnel", while our Y variable is "the Nigerian socio-economy". In view of the variables in the research hypothesis outlined above, we seek to measure the living standard of Nigerians and how it has influenced the emigration of her citizens to other developed states. We also seek to measure the reduction in the number of skilled personnel and how it has led to the under development of the Nigerian socio-economy.

3.2 Method of Data Collection

The method of data collection is documentary. Current, relevant and rich literatures from International Governmental Organization and International Non-Governmental Organizations such as International Organization for Migration (IOM), United Nations and her specialized agencies, African Union (AU), and Nigerian Bureau of Statistics, Nigerian Population Census etc. Their annual and demographic reports on emigration of Nigerians to other parts of the world, coupled with statistic figures, were very useful and thus imparted on this study greatly. Other sources include books, journal articles, internet sources, newspaper reports, etc. By secondary sources of data, we refer to a set of data gathered or information authored by another person, usually data from available data achieves, either in form of document or survey results and code books.

Documentary also known as secondary method is very vital to this research work as it is used to obtain in-depth information and concept clarification as to facilitate instrument designs. It is also more useful when used to interpret, illuminate and extract valued information so as to draw inference from the available evidence to reach a conclusion. Finally, Obikeze cited in Nnabudere

(2006; 372) tells us that one of the advantages of documentary method lies in the fact that it is able to gain access to organizational structures, and enable bureaucratic discovery of unexpected phenomenon.

3.3 Method of Data Analysis

A qualitative descriptive method of analysis that is based on content analysis was used in dissecting the information gathered for this study. By qualitative descriptive method, we mean the verbal summarization of the information generated through research, which is often through data analysis of the information. Data analysis thus involves working with data, organizing it, breaking it into units, synthesizing it, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned and deciding what we would tell others (Bogden & Biklen, 1982).

On the other hand, Content analysis method as adopted in this study, is a tool of analysis in this work because it summarizes the information generated in this research work and also extrapolate same for the purpose of reaching an objective conclusion on the subject matter under consideration. Most importantly, it shows the relationship between the two variables under study (independent and dependent variables).

3.4 Theoretical Framework

General acceptable philosophical underpinnings as to why people leave their habitual home of residence has been quite problematic. Thus, over the past decades, several migration researchers have bemoaned the absence of a comprehensive migration theory, and there have been numerous calls or attempts to develop just such a general migration theory (Lee 1966; Massey et al 1998; Zelinsky 1971). Among the main reasons explaining why it is so difficult to generalize about the

causes and consequences of migration are the diversity and complexity of the phenomenon as well as the difficulty of separating migration from other socio-economic and political processes. Moreover, it is often difficult to combine macro and micro-level theories of migration. This has led scholars to conclude that there will probably never be a general theory on migration (Salt 1987; Van Amersfoort 1998).

Although it would be naïve to assume that an all-encompassing and all-explaining meta-theory on migration will ever arise, there is undoubtedly more room for theorizing on migration processes and how they connect with broader processes of human social, economic, political and cultural woes or development. Below are the three theories which would serve as an attempt to delineate and decipher why people from Nigeria have moved from their habitual home of residence to the developed states.

3.4.1 The Neo-Classical Migration Theory

The first scholarly contribution to migration consisted of two articles by the nineteenth century geographer Ravenstein (1885; 1889), in which he formulated his “laws of migration”. He saw migration as an inseparable part of development, and he asserted that the major causes of migration were economic. Migration patterns were further assumed to be influenced by factors such as distance and population densities (Skeldon 1997:19). This perspective, in which people are expected to move from low income to high income areas, and from densely to sparsely populated areas, that is, the general notion that migration movements tend towards a certain spatial-economic equilibrium, has remained alive in the work of many demographers, geographers, and economists ever since (Castles & Miller 2003:22)

The ancestral lineage of Ravenstein's laws which, in their unspoken way, combined individual rational-choice theory with the broader structures of rural-urban and developmental inequalities is found in the much-vaunted push-pull framework. This simple, indeed simplistic, model conceives of migration as driven by a set of push factors operating from the region or country of origin (poverty, unemployment, landlessness, rapid population growth, political repression, low social status, poor marriage prospects etc.), and pull factors operating from the place or country of destination (better income and job prospects, better education and welfare systems, land to settle and farm, good environmental and living conditions, political freedom and so on).

At the macro-level, neo-classical economic theory explains migration by geographical differences in the supply and demand for labour. The resulting differentials in wages cause workers to move from low-wage, labour-surplus regions to high-wage, labour scarce regions. Migration will cause labour to become less scarce at the destination and scarcer at the sending end.

At the micro-level, neo-classical migration theory views migrants as individual, rational actors, who decide to move on the basis of a cost-benefit calculation. Assuming free choice and full access to information, they are expected to go where they can be the most productive, that is, are able to earn the highest wages. This capacity obviously depends on the specific skills a person possesses and the specific structure of labour markets.

Neo-classical migration theory sees rural-urban migration as a constituent part of the whole development process, by which surplus labour in the rural sector supplies the workforce for the urban industrial economy (Lewis 1954). By postulating that it "is a well-known fact of economic history that material progress usually has been associated with the gradual but continuous transfer

of economic agents from rural based traditional agriculture to urban oriented modern industry” (Todaro 1969:139).

3.4.2 Application of the Theory

The above theorisation of the Neo-classical school that hinges on the push and pull factors as the reason for migrants to move is very apt in this study, especially as it clearly explains the current situation of Nigerian emigrants. In Nigeria today, the main reason why people leave their homes is essentially linked to domestic situations of lack of job opportunities, lack of social security, poor living condition, political insecurity, diminishing education system, to mention a few (push factors). The motivating factor is the operating from the place or country of destination which often compels them to leave is the (better income and job prospects, better education and welfare systems, land to settle and farm, good environmental and living conditions, political freedom and so on). It is pertinent to say at this point that there cannot be a pull without a push factor in the migration discourse. Whilst the pull factor may be a potential factor for dragging migrants from certain regions or countries to the developed ones, the push factor must have aided it inadvertently. For instance, if the economic situation and general living standards of most African countries are looking good, then no matter how attractive the pull factors in other developed climes may look, migrants would generally prefer to stay in their country or region. The only good reason that may force them to leave their country home would purely be adventure.

CHAPTER FOUR: TESTING OF HYPOTHESIS

4.1 Analysis of Findings

4.2 The living standard of Nigeria vis-à-vis Emigration of her citizens

The first hypothesis of this study – *Is the living standard of Nigerians responsible for the emigration of her citizens to other developed states-* will be evaluated here as try to dissect to different variables “living standard of Nigerians” and “emigration of her citizens to other developed states”. A proper elaboration would be made this clearer in this chapter as we progress.

4.2.1 The living standard of Nigeria

Previous and recent studies have revealed that a key driver of intellectual and professional exodus from Nigeria is the harsh economic condition under which most intellectuals and professionals work. Next is the desire to go to countries that could pay for and utilize their competitive skills (Adebayo, 2010). Cost of living in **Nigeria** is 55.45% **lower** than in **United States** (aggregate data for all cities, rent is not taken into account). Rent in **Nigeria** is 42.35% **lower** than in **United States** (average data for all cities). Nigeria has one of the fastest growing economies in the world. Petroleum and oil resources plays a large role in the Nigerian economy. The country is the 6th largest producer of petroleum in the world; it is the 8th largest exporter and has the 10th largest proven reserves.

While the revenues made from oil provide the largest source of income for Nigeria, the country has become overly-dependent on its oil sector whereas other areas of the economy such as agriculture, palm oil production and coconut processing are in decline.

Nigeria possesses a stark dichotomy of wealth and poverty. In spite of the country’s vast oil wealth, the majority of Nigerians are poor with 71 per cent of the population living on less than one dollar a day and 92 per cent on less than two dollars a day (according to United Nations Children’s

Emergency Fund 2007; UNICEF). Although the country is rich in natural resources, its economy cannot yet meet the basic needs of the people. Such disparity between the growth of the GDP and the increasing poverty is indicative of a skewed distribution of Nigeria's wealth.

The 2007 United Nations Human Development Index ranks Nigeria 158 out of 177 countries; this is a significant decrease in its human development rank of 151 in 2004. About 64 per cent of households in Nigeria consider themselves to be poor while 32 per cent of households say their economic situation had worsened over a period of one year. Although National statistics report that the trend in poverty is on the decline, it is painstakingly sluggish and progress towards meeting the Millennium Development Goal of eradicating extreme poverty and hunger is slow. Poverty still remains one of the most critical challenges facing the country and population growth rates have meant a steady increase in the number of poor. Life expectancy remains low and is estimated to have decreased from 47 years in 1990 to 44 years in 2005.

Years of military dictatorship, corruption, political instability and poor governance have meant insufficient investments in the country's infrastructure and basic services. Corruption is one of the principal challenges in Nigeria, raising the cost and risk of doing business in the country and making the country unattractive to investors. The Government has been exerting conscious efforts to combat corruption, first with the passing of the anti-corruption bill and then via establishment of the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission and the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission.

Health, health care and general living conditions in Nigeria are poor, especially for children and women. Infant and under-five mortality rates are high. The weakened Public Health Care (PHC) system with low coverage of key interventions has resulted in the persistence of high disease burden.

HIV/AIDS remains a major issue of concern among children, young people and women in Nigeria with a prevalence rate of 4.4 per cent. An estimated 2.9 million Nigerians (mostly females) are living with the virus. The epidemic is also increasing the population of orphans in the country, which is already estimated at 7 million.

Nigeria's education system is also in a state of neglect largely due to decaying institutional infrastructure. Sixty-six per cent of the population is literate, and at 75 per cent, the rate for men is higher than that for women which is 57 per cent.

Economic and political crises in Nigeria have resulted in riots, unrest and wars (Tettey 2007). The salvage of war seems to defile the worth of properties and manpower assets of any nation. The wealth of a country could be wiped out in a second, in the process of warfare as witnessed in industrial cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki during Second World War in Japan (Adams and Crawford 2000). Also, the effect of the war on Poland's manpower assets was grievous and too costly, as 22, 000 of the best and brightest brains including an admiral, 14 generals, 24 colonels, 20 university professors, 300 physicians, several hundred of lawyers, engineers, more than 100 writers and journalists as well as 200 pilots lost their lives and talents deposited in them perished (Guardian Editorial, April 2010). Effects of the civil war between 1966 and 1972 in Nigeria were great deal in terms of lives, money and infrastructure (Alexander 1980). In term of lives, estimated three million persons died, most from hunger and disease (Alexander 1980).

Apart from the above full scale war, crises in Nigeria have led to destruction of lives and properties. Such includes the Boko Haram insurgence in Borno, Yobe, Gombe, Bauchi and Kano States, Zaria Shittes outbreak, Jos mayhem, Maiduguri on slaughter, Kaduna religious and Onitsha riots, Ilorin church burnings, Maitatsine insurgents, Lagos and Ijebu-ode catastrophe, Ali must go student riot of 1977, June 12 political imbroglio, militants attack on oil installations and personnel

in Niger Delta, communal clashes between Ife and Modakeke (Osun-State), Aguleri and Amuleri (Anambra-state), Ijaw-Itsekiri and Urhobo (Delta-State), Barakor and Nwebiara-Rivers-State (Ibanga 2010) etc. These could be other major reasons why manpower assets flee their homes in Nigeria for Western nations, where they think their lives could be preserved. Security conditions continue to deteriorate in large parts of the country. The drastic level of deterioration, as reported by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) 2009 edition has prompted many people to seek asylum in industrialized societies (Akande and Fagbemi 2009).

UNHCR submission goes to justify the study of the World's Worst Country to live in (Reinstra 2009). The survey ranked Nigeria and many Sub-Sahara African nations the worst countries to live in worldwide. In view of this, it could be noted that worst countries are not the best places to display talents. Talents are developed, utilised and preserved in the conducive environments. Apart from these, lack of psychological satisfaction of manpower assets with their jobs, humiliation of many manpower assets by elites in power as well as unnecessary hostility to the advancement of young and talented persons in academia and their families could add fuel to the fire of brain drain in Nigeria. Some frustrated academics, technicians and Doctors, who do not have access to relevant literature and equipment to perform their jobs at optimal levels could quit out of frustration for developed nations, where they think they could be fulfilled. The death of infrastructure in the public citadel of learning is sickening and runs short of an ideal academic environment (Onyekakeyah 2005). The National University Commission survey discovered that only about 30 percent of Nigerian student population has adequate access to classrooms, lecture theatres, laboratories, workshops and libraries (Okebukola 2002). In most universities, where computer course is offered, students graduate without touching a computer once (Onyekakeyah 2005). In the present day Nigeria, students are learning in dilapidated buildings, environmentally depressing and

learning disabling situations (Odetunde 2004).Part of the problem is the lack of facilities at universities as well as their shortage of material and human resources to increase graduate output. The emigration of existing and potentially highly skilled students exacerbates this trend. The pressure to emigrate is likely to continue, especially as a result of demographic factors. Despite declining official unemployment rates (from 12% in 2005 to 9.9% in 2008), labour supply is still outstripping demand and this is likely to continue in the near future. Nigeria is one of the ten most populous countries in the world and has one of the fastest population growth rates (2.38% in 2008) (Library of Congress, 2008). If these growth rates continue, in 25 years' time, the Nigerian population will be double its current size of an estimated 146 million people. Unless the labour market is able to absorb the surplus labour resulting from population growth, unemployment is likely to increase and give rise to more emigration. Finally from the above data and analysis, we have seen that the living standard of most citizens of Nigerians is nothing to write home about; and thus have pushed them out of their abode in search of good economic environment where there are lots of opportunities for achievement of their goals and potentials. This is a prompt for brain drain in the country.

4.2.2 Emigration of Nigerians

In 2017, population for Nigeria was 190 million persons. Over the last 50 years, population of Nigeria grew substantially from 53.5 million to 190 million persons rising at an increasing annual rate that reached a maximum of 3.09 % in 1978 and then decreased to 2.63 % in 2017. In 2015, net number of migrants for Nigeria was -300 thousand persons. Her net number of migrants fluctuated substantially in recent years, it tended to decrease through 1970 - 2015 period ending at -300 thousand persons in 2015. Although Nigeria is traditionally an important destination for migrants in the region, there are more people emigrating from, than immigrating to, Nigeria. The

net migration rate (per 1,000 people) has increasingly become negative in recent years, decreasing from -0.2 in 2000 to -0.3 in 2005. This trend is expected to continue. According to recent estimates, the net migration rate will decrease to -0.4 in 2010 (UNPD, 2009). Estimates made by the Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalisation and Poverty (DRC), based on the 2000 Census Round, indicate that 1,041,284 Nigerian nationals live abroad (DRC, 2007). Most Nigerians abroad live in Sudan (24%), rather than the United States (14%) or the United Kingdom (9%). Many Nigerian emigrants also settle in neighbouring Cameroon (8%) or Ghana (5%). Although it is difficult to obtain information on the skills level of emigrants, there are some indications that the propensity to emigrate is particularly high among the highly skilled. According to the latest estimates in 2000, 10.7 per cent of the highly skilled population who were trained in Nigeria work abroad, mostly in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries. In the United States and Europe, 83 per cent and 46 per cent, respectively, of the Nigerian immigrant population are highly skilled. On average, 64 per cent of the Nigerian emigrant population have tertiary education (Docquier and Marfouk, 2006). In the medical field, 14 per cent of physicians who trained in Nigeria worked abroad, 90 per cent of whom live and work in the United States and the United Kingdom (Clemens and Pettersson, 2007). In OECD countries, Nigerians appear to work predominantly in the health sector (21%), followed by the real estate and wholesale sectors (both with 12%).

There has been a marked increase in the number of Nigerians emigrating for educational purposes. From 2000 to 2006, the number of Nigerian students abroad more than doubled, from 10,000 to 22,000 (UNESCO, 2008). The majority of these Nigerian students (approximately 6,000), study at universities in the United States. Based on the past growth rates of student migration, some

studies estimate that the Nigerian student population in the United Kingdom may increase from 2,700 in 2007 to 30,000 in 2030 (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2009).

According to the latest data available from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), the inflow of remittances to Nigeria increased dramatically from USD 2.3 billion in 2004 to USD 17.9 billion in 2007. This increase took place despite high transfer fees that averaged 10 per cent of the amount transferred. In 2007, remittances accounted for 6.7 per cent of GDP.

In terms of formal remittance flows, the United States is the biggest remittance-sending country, followed by the United Kingdom, Italy, Canada, Spain and France. On the African continent, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Chad, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and South Africa are important source countries of remittance flows to Nigeria, while China is the biggest remittance-sending country in Asia. As regards Nigerian nationals living in host countries who wish to return to their place of origin in Nigeria, the IOM Assisted Voluntary Return (AVR) Programme offers various forms of assistance, especially for vulnerable persons. However, in general, IOM AVR of Nigerian nationals abroad has been carried out on a small scale, involving 614 Nigerians between 2003 and 2008 (IOM, 2009b).

4.3 Reduction in the number of skilled personnel vis-à-vis underdevelopment of Nigerian socio economy

In the second hypothesis, I will relate mutually how the emigration of not just Nigerian citizens but work professionals and students of mass fields contribute to under-developing the socioeconomic structure of Nigeria.

4.3.1 Reduction in the number of skilled personnel

Apart from political and cultural factors, the reasons many Nigerian best brains leave are economic which include poor salaries, lack of job opportunities, unemployment and inflation. Some skilled workers said they decided to relocate from Nigeria in search of job satisfaction, higher standards of living, better salaries and educational progressive society. Nigeria has, over the years, struggled with the crisis of brain drain in all sectors with medics not an exception. Findings revealed that as at 2010, a total of 637 doctors left Nigeria, accounting for 36 per cent reduction in expert migration figures. About 227 doctors migrated from Nigeria last year alone. A report released on November 17, 2015 by the Institute of International Education (IIE) disclosed that a total of 9,494 Nigerian students are currently studying in colleges and universities in the United States. According to the report, Nigeria is the leading source of students from Africa and the 15th largest worldwide, of international students studying in America since 2012. For example, Nigerian students in the US studying primarily at the undergraduate level have about 50.2 percent enrolment at the undergraduate level, 35.2 percent at the graduate level and 12.6 percent pursuing optional practical training. Approximately two percent engage in non-degree programs or short-term studies.

The overall number of international students at American colleges and universities increased by 10 per cent to a record high of 974,926 in the 2014/2015 academic year, the highest rate in 35 years, according to the IIE's Open Doors Report on International Educational Exchange. The effects of the brain drain enormous, resulting in more African engineers working in the US than those in the whole of Africa. A survey report from the Emigration of Nigerian Medical Doctors, according to NOIPolls & Nigerian Health Watch, states that the United Kingdom and the United States are the top two prevalent destinations Nigerian medical doctors seek work opportunities in, with 93% and 86% of the population disclosing this respectively.

The prevalent reasons as elicited in the in-depth interviews for selecting these locations include: better facilities and work environment, higher remuneration, better welfare packages and benefits, career progression and professional advancement, etc. Other countries that were prevalent in the survey include: Canada (60%), Saudi Arabia (59%), Australia (52%), Dubai (29%), The Caribbean Island (17%), Ireland (15%), South Africa (4%), Qatar (1%), and Botswana (1%). The United Kingdom and the United States are the top two prevalent destinations Nigerian medical doctors seek work opportunities in, with 93% and 86% of the population disclosing this respectively. The prevalent reasons as elicited in the in-depth interviews for selecting these locations include: better facilities and work environment, higher remuneration, better welfare packages and benefits, career progression and professional advancement, etc. Other countries that were prevalent in the survey include: Canada (60%), Saudi Arabia (59%), Australia (52%), Dubai (29%), The Caribbean Island (17%), Ireland (15%), South Africa (4%), Qatar (1%), and Botswana (1%).

A report by the United Nations estimated that over the next decade, Africa will need to train an additional one million health care professionals and find ways to retain more of the doctors, nurses, pharmacists and laboratory technicians it currently produces. Thus, the European Union, EU, through public enlightenment campaign, has been showing concern to ensure that the equation of brain drain is balanced globally. Also, a report gotten from the International Organization for Migration (IOM) states: “It would have cost the developed nations about \$184,000 to train each of the estimated three million professionals educated in developing countries now working in the developed world, resulting in a savings of \$552 billion dollars for the developed nations.” In essence, developing nations like Nigeria is giving developmental assistance to the developed nations, making the rich nations richer and the poor nations poorer.

4.3.2 Under-development of Nigeria's socio-economy

Nigeria is a middle-income, mixed economy and emerging market, with expanding manufacturing, financial, service, communications, technology and entertainment sectors. It is ranked as the 30th-largest economy in the world in terms of nominal GDP, and the 23rd-largest in terms of purchasing power parity. It is the largest economy in Africa; its re-emergent manufacturing sector became the largest on the continent in 2013, and it produces a large proportion of goods and services for the West African subcontinent. In addition, the debt-to-GDP ratio is 11 percent, which is 8 percent below the 2012 ratio. Nigeria has experienced robust economic growth since 2001; however, the pace at which this has impacted the socioeconomic conditions of the larger Nigerian populace appears relatively slow. Indeed, many socioeconomic indicators appear to be improving, but Nigeria may not achieve many of the MDG targets by the year of 2015. Also some indicators have worsened, albeit a few. Nigeria's annual real GDP growth averaged 9.2 percent between 2001 and 2009 (compared with an average of 2.5 percent in between 1995 and 1999) and non-oil growth, which has been the driving force behind the robust growth, averaged 9.0 percent over the same period. Oil revenues accruing to the consolidated government also increased by 65 percent in real terms between 2001 and 2008 while consolidated government expenditure increased by an even greater 78 percent, also in real terms. Correspondingly, many socioeconomic indices like infant and child mortality rates have improved; however, there is still a considerable distance of these indices from the MDG targets. Also, Nigeria lags behind many comparator countries in Africa in terms of socioeconomic indices.

Migration, whether internal or international, has a profound effect on economic development, which could be negative or positive. For instance:

- Brain drain occurs when significant numbers of highly skilled nationals leave their countries of origin to seek employment or establish businesses abroad. It has a negative effect on the economies of developing countries, because the skills of remaining nationals are not sufficient to grow industries, academia and other sectors of the economy.
- Brain waste occurs when skilled migrants engage in menial occupations abroad, resulting in deskilling.
- Brain gain can be achieved through the return of individuals who gained skills abroad through temporary migration.

Additionally remittance inflows from Nigerians abroad are a potential economic development tool. In Sub-Saharan Africa, Nigeria is the largest recipient of remittances, receiving nearly 65 per cent of officially recorded remittance flows to the region and 2 per cent of global inflows. The World Bank ranked Nigeria fifth among the highest remittance-receiving countries in the world. Yet official data on remittances do not include monetary inflows through informal and unregulated channels, especially through friends returning to Nigeria and through goods sent to Nigeria which are readily converted into cash. Nigerians in the diaspora are also active in transnational transactions and have promoted the flow of trade, capital and technology back to Nigeria. Apart from the Nigerians in the diaspora, a large number of Nigerians trade across West African countries, such as Ghana, Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Senegal, the Gambia and Cameroon. Most of them establish temporary residence in these countries from where they undertake business trips to Nigeria. Their business ventures in Nigeria make considerable contribution to the local economy by providing a wide assortment of goods and services.

Yet no statistical data can be provided on the expenditure made on the remittances or where these money are being invested to, therefore making this information as somewhat useless. The challenge before the Nigerian Government is to reverse brain drain, or at the very least mitigate its effects on social and economic development, while optimizing brain gain and minimizing brain waste of nationals abroad.

Table 1. Effects of brain drain on Nigerian economy

S/N	Effects of brain drain	Frequency	%	Rank
1	Insufficient manpower assets to mount various institutions in the country	105	16.48	2
2	Loss of tax of manpower assets to the migrated country	30	4.70	9
3	Loss of investment in education of migrated manpower assets	32	5.02	8
4	Loss of capital used to employ expatriates to replace migrated manpower	41	6.43	6
5	Production of half baked graduates from higher institutions	95	14.91	4
6	Decline in enrolment of post-graduate students.	33	5.18	7
7	High lecturer / student ratio in tertiary institutions across the nation.	101	15.85	3
8	High mortality rate	11	1.72	10
9	Underdevelopment of the nation	118	18.52	1
10	Loss of remittance of money sent by migrated manpower to foreign country	53	8.32	5
11	High level of illiteracy	18	2.82	11
	Total	637	100	

Source: From the data collected by the researcher

Table 1 displays effects of brain drain on the economy of Nigeria. Respondents rated underdevelopment of the country 1st with 18.52%. This is followed by insufficient manpower assets to mount various institutions in the country with 2nd position (16.48%). High lecturer / students ratio was ranked 3rd with 15.85%. Production of half-baked graduates from Nigerian tertiary institutions was rated 4th with 14.91%. Next in the hierarchy is loss of capital used to employed expatriates to replaced migrated manpower assets, which was ranked 5th with 6.43%. Loss of capital used to employed expatriates to replaced migrated manpower assets comes next with 6th position (5.02%). Decline in enrolment of post-graduate students, loss of investment in education of migrated manpower assets, loss of tax of manpower assets to the migrated country, high rate of death of sick persons were rated 7th, 8th, 9th and 10th respectively.

Finally, high level of illiteracy was rated last with 11 (2.82%). Members of staff equally shared the same view with students. All of them ranked underdevelopment of the country highest, which represents 100%.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This study assessed the trend of the emigration of Nigerians and the Impact of Brain-Drain on the socioeconomic Development Nigeria. The data used in the study were derived from secondary and documentary sources. The result reveal that high-skilled emigration is an emotive issue that in popular discourse which is often referred to as brain drain, conjuring images of extremely negative impacts on Nigeria as a developing country. Recent discussions of brain gain, have been used to argue against this.

Causes of the escalation of brain drain in Nigeria are: poor leadership of the country, poor salaries of workers and conditions of service etc. effects of brain drain on the economy of the country are: underdevelopment of Nigeria in the comity of nations, shortage of manpower resources, loss of tax to the country etc. Solutions to the problem of brain drain are: good leadership, good salaries and condition of service for staff etc.

5.2 Conclusion

Economists have been theorizing about brain drain for almost half a century. But until recently, there has been little empirical evidence to support or contradict these theories. The new evidence should counteract some of the myths and reveal some of the most common concerns about brain drain. Brain drain rates are not skyrocketing. Africa is not the most affected region for brain drain; small island states are also affected. Most skilled migrants are not doctors. But neither are they taxi drivers – they enjoy massive increases in living standards as a result of migrating. The rise in skilled migration does not appear to be crowding out migration opportunities for unskilled migrants: instead, skilled and unskilled migration have increased

together. Skilled migrants are remitting back about as much as the fiscal cost of their absence. Existing preliminary estimates of the production externalities of brain drain are quite small.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the above conclusion the following recommendations are made:

- Good leadership:-There should be transparency in leadership to maintain good governance in underdeveloped countries. This will ensure merit system without favouritisms in various institutions in the country.
- There should be solid economy in a country. Sound economy has its root in high level of industrialization. This arrests unemployment among the masses and subsequently abject poverty.
- Manpower assets should be well placed with better remunerations. These make life convenient for manpower assets and the entire populace. Their availability could go a long way in reducing migration of human assets from underdeveloped countries.
- Education should play a powerful role especially in the growing problems of international migration of manpower assets and young intellectuals.
- Offering higher wages for human capital according to their qualifications is very essential. Furthermore, underdeveloped countries should shore up the qualities of their research institutes and provide research incentives for professionals.
- Address issues of research integrity, professional development, and psychological satisfaction.
- General safety of lives and properties of the entire citizenry should be put in place. Crises – political, religious, and communal as well as full scale wars should be avoided

at all cost. These could forestall migration of manpower assets from leaving the country out of fear for their lives.

- Indiscriminate elimination of manpower asset should stop with immediate effect. Developed nations do protect their manpower assets from any attack that can take the worth of their knowledge away.
- There should be solution to “train, retain, and sustain” workforces through national plans that improve salaries and working conditions, revitalize education, and mobilize paraprofessional and community workers whose services are more cost-effective and who are less likely to emigrate.
- Curricula should be changed in order to address the most urgent needs of the particular country.
- Incentive packages should be ensured to encourage professionals to return after completing their education abroad.

Most especially in the health sector, the following measures should be considered;

- Major challenges in Nigeria’s health sector are attributable to poor health financing. Health needs are infinite and resources are limited. Both health workers and patients suffer from this inadequacy. Globally, there is a call for Universal Health Coverage, which is, individuals having access to the care they need without suffering financial hardships. Sadly, after 12 years of the National Health Insurance Scheme, just a paltry 1% of Nigerians have health insurance. Universal Health Coverage would provide the needed health finance necessary to provide a conducive working environment for doctors. Better financing translates to more remuneration, increased training opportunities for doctors, availability of equipment and other consumables.

- The current poor work environment which several doctors complained about lacks adequate equipment, infrastructure, and medical supplies. Part of the challenge here stems from the fact that government at the federal and state level seems to focus on upgrading tertiary health facilities which is capital intensive, whereas there are more secondary and primary health facilities located around the country, which may not require as much resources in upgrading. Focusing on these would also create more job opportunities for medical doctors around the country.

Migration is an inescapable fact of life and part of human existence. It is what makes us understand the different parts of the world we live in, we discover and learn more about different people and culture, but it is never a do or die phenomenon. The obsession for greener pastures outside Nigeria will never solve her problem of brain drain and will only keep promoting developed nations. Therefore it is an individual duty to develop the nation we live no matter how bad the socio-economy may seem and make it conducive for the nearest future and generations to come. The step towards building and developing Nigeria begins with 'us'.

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