Article

Impact of Immigration on Labour Market and Economic Growth in Nigeria

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Abstract
Migration is the movement of people from one place to another, either within a country or across international borders, for various purposes such as work, education, or seeking better living conditions. The receiving labour market is impacted, either positively or negatively, to some degree. This paper's main goal is to investigate how immigration affects Nigeria's labour market and economic growth. It was based on the brain drain and remittances theoretical framework developed by Beine, Docquier, and Rapoport (2001). This paper relies heavily on qualitative analysis. It argues that migration has caused a significant shortage of skilled workers across various sectors in Nigeria. Additionally, the paper asserts that economic development in Nigeria has been positively impacted by the large number of immigrants. These immigrants not only work in the country but also invest in various sectors of the economy of the host country. It results in a large loss of tax revenue due to the migration of educated and competent individuals. The paper concludes by recommending policies and economic activities that are employment-driven as a solution to curb the large-scale migration of Nigerians seeking better opportunities abroad.

Keywords
Immigration, Labour, Labour Market, Economy, Economic Growth

Introduction

Migration, defined as the movement of people across borders or within a country, is a complex process influenced by economic, social, political, and environmental factors. (International Organization for Migration 2022). In Nigeria, migration occurs in two primary forms: international migration and internal migration. International migration involves movement to or from other countries, while internal migration refers to movement within Nigeria, often from rural to urban areas. Voluntary migration is driven by employment, education, or family reunification. In contrast, forced migration results from conflict, terrorism, or climate change, highlighting the vulnerabilities faced by populations in unstable regions. The dynamics of migration in Nigeria are shaped by push factors such as unemployment (unemployment rate in Nigeria is reported at 42.5% in 2020) (National Bureau of Statistics Nigeria, 2022), poverty (Nwosu et al., 2022), insecurity driven by threats like the Boko Haram insurgency, and environmental degradation (Ojo, O. 2015). On the other hand, pull factors include economic opportunities in urban centres like Lagos and Abuja, regional labour mobility enabled by ECOWAS protocols, and strong diaspora networks that facilitate migration.

International migration data shows that as of 2020, the country hosts approximately 1.3 million immigrants (0.61% of its 214 million population), with most immigrants originating from neighbouring

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West African countries such as Niger, Benin, Togo, Mali, Ghana and Cameroon (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs 2020). A notable feminization trend is evident, with female migrants constituting 48% of the immigrant population. This figure has steadily increased since 1990, driven by cross-border trade and family reunification (IOM, 2022). At the same time, emigration trends reveal a growing brain drain. Over 17,000 Nigerian doctors (40% of medical professionals) have migrated to the UK, U.S., and Canada since 2015, exacerbating healthcare shortages (Osigbesan, 2021). Skilled workers, who make up 62% of emigrants, contribute to an estimated $2 billion annual loss in tax revenue for Nigeria (World Bank, 2022).

Internal displacement continues to be a critical issue in Nigeria, with conflict and climate-related shocks displacing 2.73 million Nigerians as of 2020 (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre 2021). Around 80% of the displaced population is concentrated in Borno state alone with Adamawa, and Yobe states having their share of the displaced population, primarily due to the ongoing insurgency, communal clashes, and environmental factors exacerbating vulnerabilities in the region (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2019). In addition, rapid urbanization, largely driven by rural-to-urban migration in search of employment in the informal sector, has led to Nigeria's urban population reaching 54% of the total population (120 million) in 2023 (World Bank, 2019). This trend has placed increasing pressure on infrastructure and public services, especially in cities like Lagos, which absorbs 70% of internal migrants. Urban labour markets benefit from this influx of workers, particularly in the construction (35% of urban jobs) and services sectors (World Bank, 2019).

As the migration landscape in Nigeria evolves, the gender dimensions of migration are becoming increasingly prominent. The rising share of female migrants (48% in 2020) reflects gender-specific migration drivers and vulnerabilities. Women play a dominant role in cross-border trade, especially in textiles and agriculture, in regions like Sokoto and Kano. However, they also face heightened risks of exploitation, particularly in irregular migration routes to Europe (IOM, 2021). This emphasizes the need for targeted policy interventions aimed at protecting female migrants from trafficking and abuse.

Regional migration patterns within West Africa are significantly influenced by ECOWAS protocols, which facilitate labour mobility. Around 70% of Nigeria's immigrants come from neighbouring West African nations (AfDB, 2022). However, challenges persist, including informal labour markets and inadequate migrant rights protections, necessitating improved policy frameworks to address these issues.

Additionally, the presence of refugees and asylum seekers in Nigeria further complicates migration dynamics. As of 2020, the country hosts 86,000 refugees, primarily from Cameroon and Chad, with 60% residing in Taraba and Cross River states (UNHCR, 2022). While efforts have been made to provide support, challenges related to resource allocation and integration remain significant. Data limitations also hinder effective migration management, as up to 40% of migration flows remain unrecorded due to porous borders and informal migration routes. Moreover, gaps in internal migration research remain unresolved. The 2022 National Internal Migration Survey (NIMS) has yet to be published, limiting evidence-based policymaking. This highlights the urgent need for comprehensive migration data collection and policy reforms to address the complexities of migration in Nigeria.

General View of Nigerian Economy

The financial, service, communications, and entertainment sectors are all growing in Nigeria, a middle-income, mixed economy and emerging market as of 2011, its emerging, if failing, manufacturing sector is the third largest on the continent, generating a significant amount of goods and services for the West African region, and it ranks 30th in the globe in terms of GDP (PPP) (Ojo, 2015). After years of poor management, Nigeria is now on course to realize its full economic potential thanks to the economic reforms of the last ten years. Although estimates of the size of the Nigerian GDP, which are not included in official calculations, place the true numbers closer to $520 billion, the country's GDP more than doubled from $170.7 billion in 2005 to $413.4 billion in 2011 at purchasing power parity (Ojo, 2015). As a result, GDP per capita doubled from $1200 in 2005 to an estimated $2,700 in 2012 (again, when the informal sector is taken into account, GDP per capita is projected to be approximately $3,500 per person). Its economy is the biggest in the West Africa Region, it accounted for 18.3% of total African GDP in 2020, the largest share of all countries (Mullan & Davies, 2021). It is expected to rank among the top 20 economies globally by 2025 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2021). Nigeria produces only approximately 2.7% of the world's oil, despite the fact that it has been portrayed as a major exporter. To put oil income into perspective, Nigeria is expected to earn roughly $52.2 billion from petroleum in 2011 at an estimated export rate of 1.9 Mbbl/d (300,000 m3/d) and a projected sales price of $65 per barrel (Okonkwo & Mojekwu, 2018). When the informal economy is taken into consideration, this represents less than 14% of official GDP, which falls to 10%. As a result, despite its significance, the petroleum industry only makes up a modest portion of the nation's total thriving and diverse economy. Nigeria, which was formerly a major net producer of food, now imports a significant amount of its food items since the country's primarily subsistence agriculture sector has not been able to keep up with the country's rapid population increase. Nigeria was able to persuade the Paris Club to allow it to repurchase the majority of its debts to the organization in 2006 in exchange for a payment of about $12 billion (USD) in cash (Indian Overseas Bank & SEO Economic Research 2011).

Nigeria's economy is having difficulty using its enormous fossil resource wealth to lift the roughly 45% of its people living in poverty. The "resource curse" is the term economists use to describe the juxtaposition of tremendous personal poverty in developing nations like Nigeria and enormous richness in natural resources. However, the term "resource curse" is more commonly used to refer to an abundance of natural resources that encourage official corruption and lead to violent struggle among the nation's population for the resource. Nigeria has been able to generate goods trade and current account surpluses in recent years thanks to its exports of natural gas and oil during periods of high pricing. According to reports, the government receives 80% of Nigeria's energy revenues, operating expenses receive 16%, and investors receive the remaining 4% (Okonkwo & Mojekwu, 2018). However, according to World Bank estimates, corruption means that only 1% of the population benefits from 80% of energy profits (Ojo, 2015). Nigeria and the Paris Club of lending countries reached a historic deal in 2005 to pay off all of Nigeria's bilateral external debt (Policy and Operations Evaluation Department (IOB) & SEO Economic Research, 2011). The accord states that Nigeria will use some of its energy profits to pay down the remaining debt, with the lenders forgiving the majority of it. Nigeria's economy is extremely inefficient outside of the petroleum industry. Additionally, human capital is not fully developed. Nigeria's non-energy-related infrastructure is insufficient, and the country was placed 151st out of all countries in the 2004 UN Development Index (Muogboh, 2008).

Nigeria attempted to implement the National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS), an economic reform program, between 2003 and 2007 (National Planning Commission, 2004). Through a number of reforms, such as macroeconomic stability, deregulation, liberalization, privatization, transparency, and accountability, the NEEDS sought to improve the nation's level of living. Basic shortcomings such a shortage of freshwater for irrigation and domestic usage, unstable power sources, deteriorating infrastructure, barriers to private sector, and corruption were all addressed by the NEEDS. The government intended that the NEEDS would raise industrial capacity utilization, diversify the economy, increase non-energy exports, improve agricultural production, and create 7 million new jobs. The State Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (SEEDS) is a state-level effort that is associated (National Planning Commission, 2005). The National Millennium Goals for Nigeria, sponsored by the United Nations (UN), are a longer-term economic development initiative. Nigeria is dedicated to accomplishing a wide range of ambitious goals under the program, which spans the years 2000–2015, including international development cooperation, gender equality, health, education, poverty reduction, and the environment. Nigeria was moving closer to accomplishing certain of its objectives while falling short of others, according to a 2004 UN update (Ojo, O. 2015). In particular, Nigeria had made progress in establishing a global development partnership, protecting the environment, and ensuring universal access to elementary education. The nation did not, however, meet its targets for eradicating extreme poverty and famine, lowering maternal and infant mortality, and battling diseases like malaria and HIV/AIDS. Reducing widespread corruption is necessary to accomplish many of these admirable goals because it hinders progress and taints Nigeria's business climate. The late military dictator Sani Abacha, who controlled Nigeria from 1993 to 1998, deposited US$458 million in illicit funds in Swiss banks, which Nigeria started to retrieve in September 2005 with the help of the World Bank (Ojo, 2015). Even if widespread success has been sluggish, these initiatives are starting to show up in global corruption surveys. In actuality, Nigeria has continuously risen in the Transparency International 2007 Corruption Index since 2001, when it was ranked 149th out of 180 nations index of Perceptions (Ejalonibu, 2021). It is evident from the previously given economic study of Nigeria that the country has what it takes for foreigners to migrate there. Despite that Nigeria is a greener pasture for the foreigners; it has her setbacks that can deter them from coming to Nigeria such as menace of terrorists in Nigeria, political rancour, bribery and corruption.

Literature Review

Thus, this part presents the empirical data that is currently available regarding how immigration affects labour markets and economic growth. Gross (2002), Gross (2004), Longhi et al. (2006), Angrist and Kugler (2003), Parasnis et al. (2006), Orrenius and Zavodny (2013), Dustmann et al. (2005), Pope and Withers (1993), and Blanchflower et al. (2007) are some of the empirical studies on the impact of immigration on employment. In the example of France between 1980 and 1995, Gross (2002) used a system of equations for employment, labour force participation, immigration rate, and real pay. The findings imply that immigration increases lead to a short-term decline in employment but a long-term plateau. Gross (2004) added skill level analysis to Gross's (2002) work. Using the same methodology and time frame, the study finds that while the employment of high-skilled native workers declines as the number of high-skilled immigrants rises, the employment of low-skilled workers rises. However, over time, immigration benefits both native workers with high and low skill levels. This implies that immigration shock has long-term beneficial effects but short-term negative ones. Longhi et al. (2006) used meta-analyses to examine 165 estimates from 9 researches that looked into how immigration affected native workers' employment in different OECD nations. According to the "consensus estimate," there is very little evidence that immigration has a detrimental impact on employment.

Nonetheless, the cross-study analysis reveals that both Europe and the US are significantly impacted negatively. The author cites the comparatively flexible labour markets in the US and Europe as the cause of this. Angrist and Kugler (2003) calculated two different panel data estimations for the EEA during the 1989–1992 periods while continuing to focus on immigration and the labour force. The panel least square (pooled) indicates that immigration has a detrimental impact on employment. Panel-IV, which uses distance as an instrumental variable, is employed in the second technique. This is justified by the possibility that distance may be related to immigration but not to the error term. Even with this tactic, the impact was negligible but nonetheless detrimental. They interacted immigration with a measure of labour market rigidity in order to account for the role of labour market flexibility. The outcome implies that immigration will have a significant detrimental effect on employment if the labour market becomes more restrictive. Dustmann et al. (2005) provide a new panel data set that includes five different forms of education for five years, from 1983 to 2000, spanning nine different categories of experience. Using this approach, they investigate how immigration affects the UK labour market and discover that a rise in immigration somewhat lowers native employment (-0.06).

However, when Parasnis et al. (2006) applied a similar methodology to the same problem in the example of Australia, they found that high-skilled immigration stimulates economic innovation and, as a result, boosts employment. Additionally, Pope and Withers' (1993) long-run econometric analysis indicates that immigrants boost employment in their host nations, demonstrating the complementary nature of immigration and employment. In the meantime, Blanchflower et al. (2007)'s descriptive statistics of basic percentage and graphical representation failed to show any apparent correlation between immigration and employment in the US and the UK. The above-discussed empirical data on immigration's influence on employment reveals a range of results. Immigration encourages employment in some nations while discouraging it in others. Additionally, immigration may not always have a major impact on employment. Different outcomes were seen in different nations, even when comparable approaches were used. This demonstrates unequivocally that opinions on the impact of immigration on employment are divided. The preceding empirical assessment demonstrates that the effects of immigration on the labour market vary according on the approach taken and the nations studied. There is very little data on how emigration affects the job market in the country of origin, but what is known also reveals a variety of findings. Only three nations Mexico, Moldova, and Lithuania and two regions the EU-8 and the OECD are represented in the results. These findings seem to primarily explain the labour market conditions in a few European and American nations, which may not be applicable to other nations, especially in Africa given the continent's distinct labour market conditions and migration history. It's interesting that there isn't any easily accessible quantitative empirical data demonstrating how emigration affects the labour market in African nations. This is particularly intriguing in the case of Nigeria, which has had the greatest exodus of any African nation throughout the years. This work aims to address this empirical gap.

Theoretical Framework

The foundation of this essay is the Brain Drain and Remittance Theory, which was created by Beine, Docquier, and Rapoport (2001) and examines the dual effects of migration on the country of origin in order to establish a connection between migration and labour market circumstances. The theory is especially pertinent when examining the effects of migration on developing nations where skilled emigration is prevalent because it contends that although the emigration of skilled individuals, commonly referred to as "brain drain," can have a detrimental impact on economic development, remittances and knowledge transfers from emigrants can have compensatory benefits. The notion has its roots in the larger conversation about human capital and migration economics. Bhagwati and Hamada (1974) were the first to describe brain drain, emphasizing the detrimental effects of removing highly qualified individuals on innovation, economic growth, and institutional development. However, further research by Beine et al. (2001) and Stark, Helmenstein, and Prskawetz (1997) highlighted the compensatory function of diaspora contributions and remittances, indicating that migration does not always result in a net loss. According to the hypothesis, nations with high emigration rates can still reap economic benefits by boosting diaspora engagement efforts, establishing regulations for return migration, and optimizing remittance flows. The theory is based on several key assumptions, including the idea that migration is a rational economic choice, where skilled workers migrate to improve their economic prospects, whether for higher wages, better working conditions, or improved quality of life. It also assumes that remittances from emigrants play a crucial role in supporting households and stimulating local economies, particularly in developing countries, and that knowledge spill overs occur when return migrants bring back skills, knowledge, and networks that promote economic development, innovation, and entrepreneurship in their home countries. Additionally, it assumes that governments in origin countries can influence the outcomes of migration by creating policies that encourage remittances, reverse migration, or diaspora investments.

The Brain Drain and Remittance Theory is highly relevant to this study as it provides a structured framework to assess how migration affects labour markets and economic growth in Nigeria. Specifically, the theory helps explain the loss of skilled labour, as Nigeria faces significant emigration of professionals, particularly in healthcare, education, and technology, leading to labour shortages in key sectors. It also explains the financial inflows, with Nigerian emigrants sending billions of dollars back home annually, contributing to household income, infrastructure development, and poverty reduction. The theory also sheds light on economic growth through knowledge transfer, where some Nigerian migrants return with skills, education, and business networks that foster entrepreneurship and innovation. Moreover, it highlights policy implications, with an understanding of the brain drain-remittance relationship helping guide policy decisions on talent retention, diaspora investment programs, and migration management strategies. By integrating this theory, the study can provide a balanced perspective on how Nigeria's labour market and economy are shaped by both the loss of human capital and the benefits of remittances and diaspora contributions. It also aims to identify potential strategies to minimize the negative impacts of emigration. Additionally, the study seeks to maximize the positive outcomes through targeted policies that foster the contribution of emigrants to Nigeria's economic growth.

Impact of Immigration on Labour Force and Economic Growth in Nigeria

The quantity of workers in the economy is impacted by immigration, which increases the labour supply in specific industries and occupations. This indicates that there are more job seekers. Immigration, however, can also increase the need for labour, leading to the creation of new jobs. For instance, demand is raised when migrants purchase products and services. Companies may adopt more labour-intensive production techniques or boost output in industries where migration enables them to hire more workers (such as in the care or agriculture sectors). To put it another way, immigration can both create new employment and raise competition for positions that already exist in some occupational areas. It is not clear from theory alone whether migration will have a good or negative influence on the employment prospects of current workers in the labour market, or whether it will have no effect at all, given there is no set number of jobs in the economy.

Depending on the nature, location, and timing of migration, different effects are anticipated on the labour market. For instance, moving to a high-paying career that requires extensive training will affect various people and have different effects than moving to a low-paying job. Migration into childcare occupations, for instance, may raise competition for childcare jobs while simultaneously increasing working women's employment. Because the skills required for low-skilled occupations are less specialized and easier to obtain, workers in these occupations are often expected to face greater competition from migrants. The majority of research that have looked into whether immigration raises unemployment or lowers salaries for current employees have found little to no impact. The Migration Advisory Committee examined the findings of research from 2003 to 2018 and came to three conclusions in 2018. First, the average employment and unemployment of current workers were not significantly affected by immigration. Second, when an effect was detected, it was typically concentrated among specific groups, meaning that people with greater levels of education saw a positive benefit while those with lower levels experienced a negative effect. Third, while not all research have discovered it, some have shown that the influence may be contingent on the economic cycle negative impacts on unemployment or employment, particularly during recessions. Similarly, based on prior studies, the MAC assessment found that immigration had no effect on average salaries. While some research indicated favourable average benefits, others found a slight negative influence on average salaries.

Every nation state benefit from immigrants. The skilled, unskilled, and most importantly, highly skilled people are advantageous since they enhance the native labour force's current skill set. Like all native citizens, immigrants use their entrepreneurial abilities to establish jobs, no matter how little, which frequently create positions for unskilled workers. Because they come from various backgrounds and cultures, among other things, the talents of native-born people and immigrants differ differently. Because of this, immigrants' abilities not only supplement those of native-born people, but they also act as a catalyst for everyone's growth and development. In the countries of destination, migration has revitalized labour forces, enhanced the economic sustainability of conventional industries like services and agriculture, encouraged entrepreneurship, and satisfied both unmet labour demands and the need for skills in high-tech industries. Remittance flows, the transfer of investments, the development in technology and vital skills through return migration, and the growth in international business and trade created by transnational communities are all examples of the positive contributions made by migrant workers in their home countries. Regular migrants also pick up new ideas and skills in better living and working environments. However, destination nations have begun enforcing stricter admissions requirements in reaction to the present global economic and employment crises, and some are even enticing return visits with incentive packages.

The enormous number of an immigrant who not only works in Nigeria but also invests in other economic sectors, including overseas portfolio investments, has also significantly boosted the country's economic development. While Nigeria's oil industry continues to be the country's main driver of economic growth and a draw for migrant labour, other economic sectors most notably the wholesale, retail, and telecommunications sectors have also experienced exponential growth and are attracting both foreign investors and migrants from various regions of Nigeria and its neighbours in West Africa to both urban and rural areas (IOM, 2009). General managers, corporate managers, specialists in the fields of engineering, mathematics, and physical science, and clerks are among the most common jobs held by foreign workers in Nigeria. Others work as labourers in manufacturing, transportation, mining, construction, and other industries. Additionally, a large number of foreigners operate in small-scale private economic pursuits such retail commerce, carpentry, masonry, painting buildings, walls, ceilings, hair styling, manicures, and other cosmetic services, as well as tailoring and baking. Economic factors, mainly those pertaining to employment, are the main drivers of internal migration. While rural-urban migrants are typically gainfully employed, even after an initial period of unemployment, rural-rural migrants are primarily involved in agriculture and other extractive industries. Ultimately, labour migration enhances the earning capacity of migrants with its obvious multiplier effect on the economy of the place of destination. The Labour Migration Policy of Nigeria links the development and migration processes in both origin and destination countries.

Transnational migrants and returning migrants contribute through investment, transfer of technology and skills, human capital formation, enhancement of social capital, promotion of trade, and business links and good governance. Ademeyi et al. (2018) state that immigration affect development and its effect becomes unambiguously negative when the emigration rate is high (p. 73). One of the main effects of Nigerians migrating to other parts of the world is that their output is less felt or not felt at all in their home country; instead, it benefits the host nations. The policy measures aim to boost the benefits of labour migration on the economy and society, aid and support migrant workers and their families, mobilize migrant contributions to development, and link the development and migration processes in recognition of the contribution of labour migration to employment, economic growth, development, and income generation. Since Nigeria is actively seeking qualified and skilled workers to develop their country, Alabi (2015) claimed that Nigeria has lost a significant amount of tax revenue due to the immigration of competent and educated individuals. However, the majorities of these skilled individuals are boosting the GDP of developed nations, especially Nigeria, and are primarily from developing nations (pp. 121-130).

Although Nigerians have achieved success in a number of industries recently, these accolades are given to the United States or Britain, where the individuals live. One such example is Philip Emeagwali, a computer scientist who is well-known for taking a huge leap in creating the fastest computer system. He was dubbed "the Unsung Hero behind the Internet" by the Times Magazine. Additionally, in the realm of sports, Anthony Joshua held three of the four major boxing titles and was the unified world heavyweight champion until his loss to Andy Ruiz on June 1, 2019. He also won gold while representing Great Britain at the 2012 Olympics. Additionally, Nigeria has not won a gold medal since the 2008 Olympic Games in Athens, while Christine Ijeoma Ohuruogu, a Nigerian, has won three gold, silver, and two bronze medals for Great Britain. Sade Adu and Seal (Olusegun Olumide Adeola Samuel), both Nigerians by birth, have each won the most coveted Grammy award four times, which no Nigerian has ever done at home. Aside from the numerous medical professionals who have relocated to the United

States and the United Kingdom, the health sector has also witnessed the inventiveness of Nigerians in these nations. One prominent example of this is forensic pathologist Benneth Omaluand neuropathologist who, while employed at the Pittsburgh coroner's office in Allegheny County, was the first to identify and report evidence of Chronic Traumatic Encephalopathy (CTE) in American football players. He is currently a professor in the medical pathology and labouratory medicine department at the University of California, Davis, and was previously the chief medical examiner for San Joaquin County, California (Laskas, 2015). Will Smith played the lead role in the 2016 film Concussion, which was made as a result of his exploit.

Furthermore, migration has caused a high level of shortage of important, skilled workers across different sectors in Nigeria. This also results to a reduction in the quality of service due to the absence of skilled personnel in Nigeria. The issues of bad leadership, corruption, poor infrastructure and lack of visionary plan can be tied back to migration, in the sense that those who are supposed to govern or hold various offices are far from the shores of Nigeria. The mass exploration of Nigerians has also increase drastically our level of dependence on foreign aid by Nigerian government, (Osinowo, 2005), explains that it costs Nigeria billions of naira (huge foreign exchange) to replace Nigerians with expatriates from the West it brings about separation of family members and leads to less adequate family cohesion thereby promoting delinquency (p. 244). Emeghara, (2013), introduces a third concept to this problem of mass exploration of Nigerians overseas, he calls it brain waste, which he explains that “it is a situation whereby foreign nationals or workers are often hired to do jobs for which they are over qualified. For instance, there are many Nigerian doctors and European scientists working as taxi drivers in some large United States of American cities like New York, Chicago, Texas, Michigan, Washington, etc., (p. 112).

Conclusion

In Nigeria, as in many developing nations around the world, underdevelopment is both a symptom and a cause of migration. Nigeria must first address the problems or issues that lead to migration by proportionately converting the nation's economic growth into developmental projects, such as building infrastructure, guaranteeing lives and property security, giving young people better jobs and equal opportunities, promoting gender equality, and lowering high population growth rates through family planning or other birth control measures. Until these issues are resolved, Nigerians will continue to migrate in large numbers to other countries in search of better opportunities and living conditions.

Recommendations

Based on our conclusion, the following recommendations were made:

To reduce the rate of emigration, Nigeria must focus on addressing the root causes of migration, such as underdevelopment, lack of opportunities, and poor living conditions. This includes prioritizing infrastructure development, improving security, and creating better employment opportunities, especially for the youth. By promoting economic growth and ensuring that benefits are widely distributed, Nigeria can retain its skilled workers and attract investment from the diaspora.

With incentives for knowledge transfer and technology exchange, Nigeria can retain valuable talent in key sectors like healthcare, education, and technology. To counteract the effects of 'brain drain,' the country should invest in education and skills development programs that are in line with the needs of the local economy. This will help build a highly skilled workforce, limit the reliance on foreign professionals, and encourage the return of skilled Nigerians who can contribute to the country's growth.

Nigeria should put policies in place that promote constructive migration, like making it easier for migrants to return with investment incentives and skill-building initiatives. In order to benefit from the financial contributions made by Nigerians living outside, including remittances, investments, and knowledge, the government should also forge closer ties with its diaspora. The gap between the domestic labour market and international trends can be closed by utilizing the diaspora's capabilities.

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