



Nigeria Pattern of Migration: Issues on Human Sustainable Development

Omoroghomwan Blessing Osayemwenre¹, Chris-Obadigie Olayemiomolola²,
Meluwa Faith^{3*}

¹Department of Criminology and Security Studies,
Federal University of Kashere, Kashere, P.M.B 0182, GOMBE STATE

²Department of Sociology and Anthropology,
University of Benin, Benin City, EDO STATE

³Department of Political Science,
Delta State University, Abraka, DELTA STATE

*Corresponding Author

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30880/jts.2023.15.01.001>

Received 18 April 2023; Accepted 19 June 2023; Available online 27 June 2023

Abstract: A conventional interpretation on Nigerians' migration in the 21st Century emphasizes the acceleration and geo-spatial diversification of Nigerians from their home country to other African Countries, Europe, Asia and North America portraying a South-North Migration. Nigeria, like other Africa countries, is often seen and regarded as a country entangled with the problem of mass migration and displacement resulting from poverty, violent conflict, bad governance, insurgency and the dilapidating environmental condition. This perception, to an extent, may likely be untrue when theoretically informed research is conducted on the pattern of migration in Nigeria. Contradicting the common ideological spread, the pattern of internal and international migration in Nigeria solely does not rest on poverty, conflict and environmental factors, but driven by a prospect for development and social transformation to increase Nigerians' capability to contribute towards their country's sustainable development and as such sustain future migration aspiration of the people. This paper x-rays, from a sociological perspective, the pattern, trends and determinant of migration in Nigeria. Relying majorly on secondary information sources, relevant literature on Africa Migration, with Nigeria in mind, were reviewed and criticized bringing out the overlapping knowledge gap in the literature. The review process specifically focused on varied migration process in terms of the scale, pattern and reasons for migration. The precise operational model that justifies the pattern of migration in Nigeria was reviewed and applied to the varied factors responsible for migration. The paper reveals that the diversification of migration streams, changing cause of migration, the predominance of certain categories of migration such as brain-drain all had significant consequence on Nigeria's sustainable development. The paper concluded that in as much as we want internal and international migration to be discouraged; the responsibility is laid on government to meet the trans-migration demands of Nigerians.

Keywords: Migration, international, internal, sustainable development, Nigeria

1. Introduction

The issue of migration, being a complex discourse, have arose critical debates both among academics and policy makers. Migration plays fundamental role for both institutional and structural transformation globally most especially

for the developing nations (John, 2019; Afolayan, Ikwuyatum & Abejide, 2008). The pattern of migration varies and changes overtime from one territory to another. The continent of Africa has an enduring history of migration. Africa migration has a long tradition like the 4th century in Mali (Findley, 2004). Migration has impacted and played an important role in almost all Africa countries. In the past, even till present, there is a wide variety of international migration patterns in Africa where migrants pursue seasonal agricultural activities involving crossing borders both for cultivation and trade. This form of migration overtime becomes regular pattern of employment in the continent.

Africa migration pattern was also done for short periods of time where migrant reacts to economic changes and conditions as a means of gaining training or experience, or accumulation of wealth for future investment. Migration in Africa has also been in the form of family choice where individuals or families decide living outside their own country to other African countries or choose to go outside Africa to like Europe and America achieves a better way of life. Border crossing for trading and commerce has been a migratory flow tradition in Africa. Cross-border trading travel also occurs between Africa and Europe like the Senegalese who trade in Italy return home regularly to re-stock their trading merchandise (Afolayan, Ikwuyatum & Abejide, 2008; Riccio, 2003). Therefore, migrants move within and outside Africa accounts for the internal and international migration. Globally, Africa continent accounted for 14 percent of the international migration and 12 percent of these international migrants migrated to Europeans countries (UNDESA, 2015). As of 2015, the global stock of African international migrants has almost doubled; expanding to 32 million people (UNDESA, 2015; Neumann & Hermans, 2017; Amara & Jemmali, 2018).

In the discourse of migration, scholars have channeled their interest from literally understanding migration towards understanding the migratory flow pattern in the continent, its political relevance, and the socio-economic and environmental conditions associated with migration. The common ideological spread that is contradictory in migration discourse is that the pattern of internal and international migration in Africa solely does rest on poverty, violent conflict and environmental factors (Kirwin & Anderson, 2018; Cummings, Pacitto, & Foresti, 2015). Although, some scholars are still convinced on these skeptical positions about Africa Migration pattern, it is pertinent to note that the current form sustaining migration aspiration in Africa is gradually shifting from looking for a safety abode from a war thorn region to a pattern driven by prospects for development and social transformation thereby, increasing Africa's capability to contribute towards the country's sustainable development (Ikwuyatum, 2006).

Nigeria has always been considered as the most populous nation in Africa with an ever-growing population of over 200 million people occupying a land surface area of about 1000 km². The population growth rate of Nigeria has been fluctuating between 2.8% to 3.2% annual for several years now (Udo, 1975). The last known census was in 2006 and the different population forecast on demographic structure conducted in Nigeria reflects growing internal and international high population mobility. Nigeria currently has a large youthful population with over 42 percent of the 200 million people aged below 14 years, 29 percent aged between 15-19 years and 24 percent aged between 30-59 years. The elderly account for less than 5 percent of the population. Migration has been a selective phenomenon favoring the younger population more than the older population (Varrella, 2020; Emeghara, 2013). These have created a large reservoir of potential migrants in Nigeria with high propensity to migrate internally and internationally (Thiam, Rebecca & Piche, 2004).

Nigeria's vast and porous land boundaries with over 400,000 square kilometers' have been difficult to manage over the years. This difficulty results from the close affinity with other African countries that create the ease for international migration. Geographically, Nigeria shares physical boundaries with Cameroon and Chad from the East and Northeast, with Niger Republic from the north and Benin Republic from the southwest. The southern border of Nigeria, along the coastline, shares border with Benin Republic in the west which extends eastwards with Cameroon. Ethno-culturally, Nigeria is a federation made up of over 250 ethno-linguistic groups with the Hausa, Ibo, and Yoruba as the dominant groups. These ethnic groups share cultural similarities and traits with other Africans countries ethnic groups thereby sustaining social interactions with citizens of neighboring countries and ease physical and social mobility and invariably international migration.

The features of Nigeria's population and its dynamics show profound imbalance when evaluated with critical development indicators like the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). For instance, Nigeria Infant Mortality Rate, of 117 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2021, has remained astronomically high, compared to situations in more developed countries, where it has reduced drastically (IPA/UNICEF, 2021). This also applies to Maternal Mortality Ratio, of 917 per 100,000 live births in 2021 (IPA/UNICEF, 2021). Nigeria life expectation at birth has been increased to 60.87 years in 2021 from the 55.02 years in 2020 (Statista, 2021). Also, education is considered as pivotal for sustainable development and Nigeria has suffered the blunt of low quality and inaccessible education of the years. Currently, the education indexes how a low but with an increasing adult literacy rate. Gender disparity in education calls for worries.

The adult literacy rate for both genders is 62.02% in 2021. Based on gender differentiation, the rates for males and females were respectively 71.26% and 52.66 per cent for 2020. The teacher-student classroom learning ratio has been high and fluctuating. There are three levels of basic education in Nigeria, namely, Pre-Primary Centers, Primary and Junior Secondary Schools. For the three, there are a total of 76,827 schools, with 570,188 classrooms for 31,236,624 pupils. This means on average, there are 55 learners to a classroom in Nigeria. Also, there are, on average, 71 students to a teacher in the country (Adeyeye, 2020). The economic power of every nation relies strong on the purchasing power

of her citizen which is measure in GDP per Capita and the national poverty level per day. Currently, Nigeria GDP per capita is estimated at \$2273.22, while for the proportion of the population living below a dollar per day gave a national poverty incidence of 40 per cent for 2020 (Adeyeye, 2020). Nigeria sole reliance on the oil sector, over the years, and the rising insecurity threaten the expansion of business have majorly contributed to the steady decrease and fluctuating Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs) into the country. Foreign direct investment into Nigeria slumps to its lowest in 11 years. Specifically, FDI dropped to \$77.97 million in Q2 2021, indicating a 49.6% and 47.5% decline compared to \$154.76 million and \$148.59 million recorded in the previous quarter and Q2 2020 respectively (Oyekanmi, 2021).

From the incidence above, it may be ideal to ask question on whether is the low level of development in Nigeria, as reflected by the indices of development as examined that significantly influence internal and international migration in the country? With migration as a selective phenomenon, will Nigeria youth rather stay back or gain better employment opportunities and social security through migrating to other African countries and to Europe and North America?

This paper, from a sociological perspective, examines the pattern, trends and determinant of migration in Nigeria. Majorly relying on secondary source of information, the paper reviews relevant literature on Africa migration and Nigeria with the intention to critically appraise them to bring out the overlapping knowledge gap in the literature. The review process will specifically focus on varied migration process in terms of scale, pattern and reasons for migration. The precise operational model and theories of migration that justifies the pattern of migration in Nigeria will be reviewed and applied to the varied factors responsible for migration. The reader is expected to understand the diversification of migration streams in Nigeria, the changing cause of migration, the predominance of certain categories of migration such as brain-drain and the trafficked and to measure the consequence of the nation sustainable development.

2. Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

2.1 Conceptual Clarification

Migration refers to the movement of people from one place to another that involves a change of usual residence. It is the relatively permanent movement of people across territorial boundaries either refers to as immigration and outmigration, or immigration and emigration when the boundaries crossed are international. The place of in-migration or immigration is called the receiver population while the place of out-migration or emigration is called the sender population. Migration has two major types i.e., the Internal and international migration. While internal migration refers to a residential change within national boundaries, like between states, provinces, cities, or municipalities or someone moving to a different administrative territory, the international migration entails change of residence across national boundaries. These kinds of migrants move to a different country. The classifications of international migration are legal immigrants, illegal immigrants, and refugees.

While the legal immigrants moved with the legal permission from their home country to the receiving nation; illegal immigrants moved without legal permission and the refugee's crosses international boundary in order to escape persecution. As pointed out by Weinstein and Pillai (2001), the fourth classification is the forced migration. In forced migration, people movement is against their will as obtained during slavery or the movement is results from external factors like civil war or natural disaster. Despite both types of migration happen for different reasons, structural barriers are more likely to hinder the movement of a prospective international migrant than an internal migrant. In order word, there is more structural barriers like meeting the administrative procedures, greater expense, and the difficulties associated with gaining employment, access to state services, learning foreign language in the process of international migration than internal migration (Kuhnt, 2019; Neumann, & Hermans, 2017; Wong, & Celbis, 2015).

Migration occurs in all through human history though varying in patterns and scale from country to country and at different periods. Historical evidence in Nigeria do suggests that different human groupings had move from one place to another inhabiting new territories and intermingling with people the different regions for several thousand years before colonialism (Docquier, Lohest & Marfouk, 2007; Loschmann & Siegel, 2014; Byrne, 2016). This evidence is said to be one of the greatest processes that facilitated the transformation of mankind. Migration scholars, in the earlier time, created distinctions in the migration history of Nigeria. They connected the following: The Hausa transnational links through trans-Sahara trade route on pilgrimage to Mecca, the trans-Atlantic slave trade, migration within Nigeria during the colonial period, intraregional migration within Africa, and international migration of Nigerians across the continent of Africa to North America and Europe (Konseiga, 2006; De Haas, 2010; Wong & Celbis, 2015).

2.2 Trends of Migration in Nigeria

Migration has always taken an integral part of the Nigerian reality, varying in trends and degrees. Of the most prominent is the International Migration. International migration, an emerging pattern of migration at the end of colonialism, was with the flows or movements directed towards the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA). Despite the current degree of migration was low, those who travelled went for the purpose of further studies with the intention to return to participate in the nation-building process of the country after their studies (Konseiga, 2006; Ratha, Mohapatra & Silwal, 2010; William, Ayuk, Chukwu, & Chukwu, 2014). Those who returned after studying were given public offices and positions, thereby contributing towards national development and the

country's educational system. This pattern, thereafter, change swiftly in a few years later. Several economic, political and social conditions combined were responsible for the changes of the unprecedented waves of international migration in Nigeria where Nigerians shun coming back home and developed the tendency to remain abroad. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) estimated that as of 2005, over 15 percent of Nigeria's population left to settle abroad between 1980-2005 (UNDP, 2009). Currently, this figure has soared higher according to Kazeem (2019) due to the current socio-economic predicaments the nation has been plunged into. Not only that this trend has had unprecedented quantitative consequences on the nation's population in terms of the massive flight of human population from the country, but it has also affected public life and development efforts in the country. The above phenomenon have received some research attention from scholars interested in interpreting the consequences of migration on the economic and socio-demographic statuses of Nigeria and receiving countries in terms of population size-effects such as those of loss of labour and decline in productivity in Nigeria, on the one hand; and increase in population, productive capacity and the associated negative consequences created in receiving countries, like increasing crime (Amara & Jemmali, 2018).

Literature indicates that international migration in Nigeria as dramatically experienced a departure from what it used to be before the 1980s. The usual movements where those who travelled went for the purpose of further studies (with many of them returning afterwards) dramatically changed to witnessing a semblance of massive disappearance of the nation's active population with no specific idea on when to return. Attempting to give explanation to this unprecedented migration pattern posited that the movements were aggravated by the growing economic hardship lighted with the introduction of the structural adjustment programme (SAP) and the guided policies of the eighties (Shimada, 1993; Afolayan, 1988). Contrary to what studies suggested that many of these migrants were migrated towards the more industrialized countries of Europe and North America, there are evidence suggesting that some of these international migrants settled within the African continent like in the West Africa and Central Africa (Okobiah 1989; Afolayan & Adelekan, 1998). The intensity of international migration caused several receiving countries to be more concern about the negative consequences of continuous influx of migrants into their country. Receiving countries started tightening their immigration policies for the purpose of discouraging mass inflow. The policies could not discourage immigration but led to the diversification of receiving countries (Afolayan, 2000; Campbell & Barone, 2012). With the policies, receiving countries were able to select the best of all the migrants coming in. This diversification has reconfigured the directions and patterns of international migration which Nigerians migrants now moveto countries hitherto were not part of the destination federation, aside the developed countries. These countries include Eastern and Southern Europe, the Gulf countries and North Africa, as well as Southeast Asia (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC], 2009). In a bite to understand better the migration trend of Nigeria, this paper looked at the changing cause of migration nationally and regionally.

2.3 Changing Cause of Migration

Discussions around migration cover everything from a human rights issue to inaccessible privileges as a citizen. Most scholars often labelled migration, especially international migration as a 'crisis-driven migration' or out of 'a catalyst for political turmoil' in a country. What has not been pointed out is that even, migration, as a force that is so hotly debated; only few understand its main drivers.

2.3.1 Causes of Migration

Many migrants embark on a journey escaping dire socioeconomic conditions or natural disasters. Examining the causes that drive people to migrate it is helpful to fully understand global migration. in the migration context, there are both push and pull factors with push factors being reasons why people would want to leave their home country and pull factors being reasons why people would want to come to a new country. In migration, push and pull factors can be economic, environmental, social and political.

Economic Factors: Economic migration, whether permanent or seasonal, is a commonly cited reason for migration. In general, it is believed that in economic migration people move from poorer developing areas into richer areas where wages are higher, and more jobs are available. It is also common for people from rural areas to move to more competitive urban areas in order to find more opportunities (Ratha, Mohapatra & Silwal, 2010). Mexican migration into the United States portrays the importance of both push and pull factors in economic migration. All throughout the 20th century, seasonal Mexican labourers have crossed the border in search of work in the American agricultural industry, as the economic state of Mexico did not match the level of economic prosperity found in America. In the 21st century however, Mexican migration has slowed down significantly, and after the American recession of 2009, economic migration from Mexico to the United States began to decline. Studies show that Mexican household economies have improved due to factors like increases in access to education. As Mexico's financial state improved and the United States temporarily struggled, both push and pull factors eroded, causing the dwindling of migration.

Environmental Factors: Migration caused by environmental factors is increasingly involuntary. Environmental factors cause displacement or the forced movement of people by social or environmental factors. Crop failure for example, often results in both food scarcity and a drop in agricultural jobs, prompting people to move to a place with

better job opportunities and climate. Pollution of water, air and soil in both urban and rural settings can also create a serious health risk to locals, forcing them to look for a better life for themselves and their children. Devastating natural disasters such as tsunamis, hurricanes and earthquakes are environmental factors that the news most often covered. In January 2010 for example, a deadly earthquake hit Haiti claiming the lives of over 90,000 people, and displacing over 1.5 million others. Despite humanitarian aid, many suffered from disease and a lack of proper shelter and basic supplies. Likewise, recent studies cite global warming as a cause for the increase in violent conflict around the world. The recent example of the Syrian drought from 2006 to 2011 was catastrophic, causing many families to lose their farms and move into big cities. The drought also increased food prices, facilitating poverty (Ratha, Mohapatra & Silwal, 2010). Although global warming did not create the conflict we are witnessing today, environmental factors are important in human migration.

Social Factors: Social factors motivating migration grow from the human needs and desires to achieve a better quality of life. Migrants often move to ensure better opportunities for themselves or their family, like sending their child to a better, safer school or finding a job that would have not only a sufficient salary, but also important benefits and career growth prospects. In terms of education, the United States graduate programs have been a particularly strong attraction for young, talented individuals around the world. Individuals can also migrate in search of services, such as life-saving surgery and medical treatment that are inaccessible in their home area. Therefore, the push-pull factors are summarized as follow:

Table 1 - Push-pull factors

Push Factors	Pull Factor
Prosecution, Violence and War	Safety, Stability and Freedom
Poor wage and Lack of Job	Higher Wages and Job Prospects
Crop Failure, Famine, Pollution and Natural Disaster	Food availability and better environment
Limited opportunities, lack of services family separation	Family Reunification, better quality of life and availability of Service

Source: Author's Compilation, 2021

As discussed above, research scholars and the media predominantly focus on the escapees that flee conflict to explain the arduous migration system that is visibly against them. But not all migration stems from conflict. About 10% of the world's international migrants are refugees or asylum seekers, and less so are irregular migrants (those that cross borders illegally). The World Migration Report and the Migration Data Portal focus on the fact that migrants embark on a journey for many reasons.

Escaping hardship, conflict, and persecution: Perhaps this is the most covered by the media. Scholar posits that many migrants are fleeing war and hardship from their originating countries. By the end of 2016, there were 22.5 million refugees worldwide, the highest number on record. However, this number has been contracting since 2012 (Amara & Jemmali, 2018). There were 2.8 million asylum seekers, mostly in Germany and the USA. Most of the refugees and asylum seekers are fleeing endemic violence: 79% are mostly from Syria, Afghanistan, South Sudan, Somalia, Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Central African Republic, Myanmar, Eritrea and Burundi. Migrants fleeing persecution based on race, religion and/or membership to a particular group may apply for asylum or refugee status elsewhere, and international law strongly encourages countries to accept asylum seekers and refugees. However, there is no statute holding countries accountable if they deny seekers entry, causing many immigrants to remain in uncertainty or to return to their conflict-stricken countries (IOM, 2014).

Seeking a better life: Even those that are not necessarily facing war or explicit violence seek to relocate for better opportunities. One can assess a “better life” in levels of happiness. The World Happiness Reports calculates percentage changes in happiness of migrants when they move to a new country. Included in these calculations is the (a) accepted assumption that migrants’ happiness is usually the same or like locals’ happiness, (b) that overall migrant happiness depends equally on both their destinations' level of happiness and the level of happiness in the origin country, and (c) that one of the main factors influencing migrant happiness is the host country’s attitude towards immigrants. For reference, the United States, which is the biggest destination country for migrants, ranks 18th in the WHR Ranking of Happiness, whereas India, the biggest origin country, ranks 133rd. Some of the countries that produce the highest number of refugees and asylum seekers, Syria, Afghanistan, South Sudan, Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Central African Republic, and Burundi, all rank more than 130th (IOM, 2014).

Displacement because of environmental factors: Each year since 2008, more than 25 million people become displaced due to natural disasters, five times more than those displaced by violence. There are also more host countries (118) for migrants displaced by natural disasters than those displaced by war and conflict (37). The 1992 UN Convention on Climate Change called for countries to understand how migration patterns are affected by environmental factors and natural disasters (Amara & Jemmali, 2018).

Family reunification: There are no global treaties specifically related to family unity, but it usually refers to the rights that ‘respect, protect and support the family, including its ability to be together’. A universal meaning of ‘family’

also does not exist, though the UNHRC says it embodies ‘all interpersonal relations that are held to constitute a family in the society concerned’. Since many family members are pressured to migrate to send remittances back home, families are often separated. When the first in the family to migrate deems it suitable, either because they became properly documented or reached a certain economic level, they usually start the process to bring the rest of their family (IOM, 2014).

Employment: 2013 data indicates that there were around 150 million migrant workers worldwide, almost 2/3rds of the global migrant stock of that year. Most of these are in the services sector, with the remaining generally working in construction, manufacturing, and agriculture.

Studies: In 2016, there were 4.8 million internationally mobile students, almost one million more than in 2011. Internationally mobile students differ from “foreign students” and “credit-mobile students” in that they migrate for the main purpose of studying elsewhere. “Foreign students” refer mostly to those who migrated for other reasons (i.e., parents’ work, asylum) and thus study in a different country by default, and “credit-mobile students” are those that study abroad for a shorter period, and not usually towards a degree qualification. The biggest destinations for internationally mobile students are: The United States of America, the United Kingdom, Australia, France, Germany and the Russian Federation (IOM, 2014). The biggest sender countries are China, India, Germany, South Korea, Nigeria, France, Saudi Arabia and several Central Asian countries.

Following cultures of migration: Children in origin countries grow up either around migrating people, or receiving remittances from migrants in other countries, this creates a culture of migration. In countries like Eritrea and Ethiopia, migration has become normalised to the extent that staying in the country has become stigmatized (IOM, 2014).

Economic reasons remittances: For countries like Kyrgyzstan and Haiti, remittances make up between 24-34% of their GDP, making remittances a main source of income for both individuals and the entire country. Having a migrant family member living abroad is normal, and many families pressure other members to migrate, mostly males of working age (15-60) that can send remittances back home (Kirwin & Anderson, 2018).

The fact that most migrants migrate through regular routes and “just because” does not mean that refugees and asylum seekers are not a pressing issue. Migration patterns reflects deeply rooted political and economic issues, and even if international migrants represent less than 4% of the world's population, it is a 4% that faces long-term uncertainty and difficulties in their destination countries, regardless of their status upon entering.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

The historical realization of the significance of migration in the life of a society made attempts at theoretical elucidation of its propellants inevitable. One of earliest efforts at theoretical systematization in the field of migration theory was by the German geographer, Ernst George Ravenstein (1889) and pursued further by Everette Lee (1966) who inspired the formulation of the “pull-push” factors of migration. The premise of this argument is that the migration process is governed by negative and positive factors with peoples’ expectation as the intervening variable. That is, the decision to migrate tended to be based on the rational calculus of the individual on the conditions or opportunities in origin places relative to conditions and expectations in the prospective destinations. Essentially, this theoretical approach, represented as the classical school, holds the view that push-factors such as poverty, lack of opportunities and unemployment in origin places push people to leave such area. On the other hand, pull-factors such as the existence of opportunities with potentials for social economic enhancement in other places pull or attract people to such areas.

While this submission had been lauded for pointing out the role of lack of opportunities in origin places as propellant factor for emigration and outmigration (Abreu, 2010), it appears to have been silent on the forces propelling certain category of migrants. If it is the lack of opportunities for social and economic enhancements that pushes people to leave an area, people from apparently established socio-economic background and high social standing are not supposed to be pushed out. But observational findings and anecdotal evidence indicate that a significant number of the emigration flow from Nigeria involve people who, by virtue of their backgrounds, are not lacking opportunities. Nonetheless, the push-pull hypothesis held sway in migration theorizing until the emergence of the historical-structural school.

The historical-structural approach to migration represents a body of theoretical pronouncements that emphasizes structural demand for migrants’ labor in advanced capitalist societies, as well as the interpretation of the migration-inducing effects of the penetration of capitalism in peripheral socio-political formations (Sassen 1991; Massey, 1988). The approach still suffers similar limitation observed in the classical school such that both can only explain an aspect of the migration process. To that extent, the adoption of the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) and Campbell and Barone’s (2012) personality perspective of migration is imperative to supplement the explanatory strengths of the classical and historical-structural schools. The NELM posits that migration, particularly international migration, is part of the household’s economic strategies. In other words, while it does not deny the existence of structural constraints implied in the pronouncements of the classical and historical-structural schools, it supposes that in recent history, international migration in many cases is embarked by individuals as a strategy arising from family decision to counter conditions that pose threats to family’s socio-economic standing and wellbeing (Stark and Bloom, 1985, Neumann & Hermans, 2017).

On the other hand, Campbell and Barone postulate that certain personality type, what they called the mobiocentric personality type: people who value action and motion, and are always on the move, and always prone to be on the move, are more likely to migrate. Therefore, according to Cambell and Barone (2012) postulate, some individuals are inclined to always be on the move (migrate) because of their personality characteristics. While the last word on the propellant factors of migration might not have been said, the synergy and eclectic theoretical orientation adopted in this study, no doubt, has illuminated some blurred areas that would have continued to puzzle theoretical imaginations had the paper not adopted a multi-dimensional theoretical approach.

3. Materials and Methods

Methods adopted for this paper were solely qualitative analysis of migration research in Nigeria and other countries. The paper reviewed ethnographical studies and content analysis of studies on internal and international migration in Nigeria. Majority of the empirical studies reviewed complimented for the qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis. Few of the studies reviewed used questionnaire as a tool of data collection to collect migration and socio-economic data. Also, some studies employed regression analysis to discuss the association between migration and socio-economic factors (Adewale, 2005; Neumann & Hermans, 2017; Ikwuyatum, 2006; Yusuf, 2008). Moreover, few other studies applied other quantitative techniques like correlations analysis to examine keys factors propelling migration in Africa and Nigeria in particular (Adegbola, 1972; Udo, 1975; Afolayan, 2001; Ikwuyatum, 2006).

4. Analysis and Findings

Empirical and theoretical studies were reviewed on pattern of migration and the trans-migration demands of Nigerians that propel migration. These pattern and trans-migration demand propelling migration in Nigeria are analyzed under the following:

4.1 Pattern and Trans-Migration Demands Propelling Migration in Nigeria

4.1.1 The Menace of Conflict and Violence

There is a global reached understanding in literatures proving that conflict and violence are the fundamental drivers causing and have caused people to move from their homes to other countries (Cummings, Pacitto, Lauro, & Foresti, 2015; Adhikari, 2012; Melander & Öberg, 2006). Researchers across countries have cross-examined people and countries to discover that conflict and violence are predominant factors influencing individuals' decision to leave their homes and countries to other regions (Melander & Öberg, 2007; Neumann & Hermans, 2017). For instance, Czaika and Kis-Katos (2009) reveals that conflict is a significant push factor for migration in the Aceh Province of Indonesia. Ibáñez and Vélez (2008) found out in Columbia, violence was a significant factor driving people from their homes to other countries. IOM (2016) in qualitative research, illuminated that displacement and migration of youthful African men to Italy was backed by the incessant violence. The Northeast Nigeria is a vivid example of violence-led migration. People in the region are forced daily to relocate from their homes to other places because of the regional conflict and violence. Insecurity in Borno state has increased since 2009, disrupting the lives of the people, forcing them out of the region to other regions and countries.

Various studies have fact that other factors influence people's decision to migrate apart from violence and struggle. The high level of human and national insecurity was seen responsible for the cause of migration in Nigeria. Engel and Ibáñez (2007) claim that environment of conflict, economic reasons and individual attributes are assumed to be critical influential factors for migration in Nigeria. A hypothetical model proposed by Davenport et al., (2003) affirmed that different factors, aside conflict and violence impacted the choices to migrant to migrate. It has been generally agreed that there is a variation in conflict and violence that influences migration to other countries. In a study conducted by Schmeidl (1997), he found out that for countries associated with global and territorial wars, conflict and violence stands as a critical determinant for forced migration.

But Davenport et al. (2003) disapproves of this fact. What the two scholars agreed upon is that migration can be instigated when federations of states will fully and deliberately endanger the safety of their citizens by not taking due action, amidst this global violence. We can see this scenario in Nigeria government inability to address the problem of insecurity in the Northeast, Northwest, North Central and Southeast regions. A lot more citizens of Nigeria are relocating to a safer region and those having the means jetting outside the country. Affirming this point, Dreher, Krieger, and Meierrieks (2011) proved that the reign of terror has strong impact on the migration rate of skilled workers and less impact on the migration rate of unskilled individuals in a country (Ratha, Mohapatra & Silwal, 2010; Amara & Jemmali, 2018). Docquier, Lohest, and Marfouk (2007) on Nigeria migrants confirmed this point that more skilled individuals tend to migrate from politically unstable and violence prone regions of Nigeria like the Northeast and the Southeast to safer countries like the United States or Canada.

4.1.2 Violation of Fundamental Human Right

Human right violation is a key problem lot of people face even in the parent countries. The problem of human right violation is largely considered as a political problem affecting citizens either orchestrated by the government, agencies of the government or others. The absence of human and political right has increased the rate of migration globally (Kirwin & Anderson, 2018; Moore & Shellman, 2004; Neumann & Hermans, 2017). Human right violation is significantly responsible for the increasing number of human displacement (Moore & Shellman, 2004). Supporting this fact, Wong and Celbis (2015) investigations shows that human right protection degree is a significant determinant for migration because no one will relocate to a country that the government and citizens abuse or violate human rights. Violation of the citizens right to associate and worship is significant to determining migration choice. For instance, religion oppression can cause people to migrate form a country to another. In their study, Kolbe and Henne (2014) reveals that more elevated levels of oppression on religion can impact on the number of people migrating from a country to another.

People move to countries that they are free to practice their religion. The southern region for example is dominated mostly by Christians and some Muslims in that region may be afraid to practice their religion, Both Christians and Muslims could relocate to a country that grant them freedom to practice their religion (Amara & Jemmali, 2018). However, human right violation may not prompt migration if there is a vast range of economic opportunities in the country (Adhikari, 2012; Neumann & Hermans, 2017). In order word, political restraint, in the area of violation of fundamental human rights, does not really prompt mass migration if economic opportunities exist (De Haas, 2010).

4.1.3 Degree of Economic Opportunities

An important factor influencing migration in Nigeria is the degree of the available or unavailable economic opportunities. The absence of sufficient and effective employment opportunities will trigger people migrate to other countries. The availability and accessibility of economic opportunities like employment and wage differentials have been viewed as drivers of migration. The sane choice people make affect their actions that inform how they rationalizes and analyses the various income opportunities differentials between parent country and destination country. A lot of scientific proof have been conducted on this hypothetical preposition (Bertoli, 2010; Cummings et al., Amara & Jemmali, 2018; Konseiga, 2006; Neumann & Hermans, 2017). The degree of enhanced financial privileges in a region or nation of origin has been demonstrated as a significant driving element for rural and urban migration and international migration. Like Kuhnt (2019) has asserted that this is not true in all cases that financial incentive triggers all migration i.e. the absence of financial freedom that pushes individuals to migrate or the chance of larger economic opportunities pulls them to a destination country.

Loschmannand Siegel, (2014) uphold this point by criticizing most migration theories and models that explained and solely linked the complex and diverse migration choices of an individual to economic gains. They claimed that factors like insecurity, violent and environmental problem could be responsible for migration (Loschmann & Siegel, 2014; Amara & Jemmali, 2018). However, most scholars, while trying to explain individual's choice to migrate, focus basically on economic opportunities (De Haas, 2010; Byrne, 2016; Neumann & Hermans, 2017). But this is not always true because research account considers the different elements that explained past and present migration rates to be affect by social, political and topographical climate. Studies shows that even with violence and strife individuals settle on a conscious decision on whether to migrate or not (Engel & Ibáñez, 2007). This does not mean that the availability of economic resources and opportunities does not play significant influence on the decision of individual to migrate.

4.1.4 The State of the Nation

Some studies have interrogated the functional impacts of institutions and states structures on individual's choice to migrate to another country (Bergh, Mirkina, & Nilsson, 2015). Specific studies revealed that skilled migrants migrate to nation state having an organized political and economic institutions significantly better than their home country, which is considered as a significant driving force for migration (Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). Bergh et al. (2015), using a cross-country panel data, is of the opinion that institutional quality impact on the migration rate of a country i.e., countries with strong institutions have lesser migration rate, compared to countries with inadequate functioning institutions.

For instance, most Africa countries that have weak economic and political institutions that are predominantly anchored on corrupt practice have high migration rate (Poprawe, 2015). There is an established links between state fragility, migration and relocation (Araya, 2013; Neumann & Hermans, 2017). In migration, the strength of a state is principally characterized as a pull factor such as the presence of rule of law, the authority to avert violence or conflict; and provision of social amenities to the people. However, fragile states, characterized with push factors, are identified by with violence, insecurity, denial of basic human rights or lack of socio-economic growth. When a state suffers these push factors, they will have a lot of people leaving the country.

4.1.5 Unavailability of Infrastructural and Social Amenities

Another critical migration factor is the lack of social amenities and basic infrastructures. The lack of basic social amenities and infrastructure can serve as a reason why people migrate to other countries. Such public basic infrastructures like water pipelines, good roads, electricity, rural healthcare facilities, and marketplaces can trigger people to migrate to other countries using any means available. The lack of social amenities can also lead people to migrate to other countries where these amenities are easy to access. Availability of these amenities is one thing and its accessibility another. Developmental projects initiated and situated, without the people consent on what they need, may need up being abandoned or un-utilized by the people. A lot of people migrate out of the area where they feel that the infrastructural composition of the area does not support their growth and development. The frequent rural-urban migration in Nigeria can serve as an example. Rural dweller drifts to urban centre and settle there in order to have share of the available basic social amenities (Amara & Jemmali, 2018; Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). Most migrants drift to countries that could guarantee the social and economic wellbeing and not where they will suffer the most economically. Hence, the adequacy and accessibility of these social amenities are driving force for migration.

4.2 Consequences of The Pattern of Migration On Nigeria Sustainable Development

A major consequence of the pattern of migration in Nigeria that this paper tends to address is the issue of brain-drain. Literature in migration studies has identified brain-drain as the principal factors hammering the growth in Nigeria (Poprawe, 2015; Neumann & Hermans, 2017). These consequences are currently being felt especially in the healthcare sector, university system, and other research institutions steering the growth and development of Nigeria. However, we have been made to believe that migration resulting to brain-drain has solely negative consequence on the nation. But this is not true as this paper has unravelled that there are some positive consequences that migration of nation's citizen could provide for the nation. Looking at the positive and the negative consequences on the Nigeria sustainable development over the years reveals a fix of why and why not migration should be discouraged (Amara & Jemmali, 2018).

4.2.1 Level of Socio-economic Remittance and Sustainable Development

A major effect of brain drains, and other forms of economic migration pattern is remittance. By remittance, we refer to money migrants or foreign workers transfer into their home country. Economic and skilled migrant who relocate to other regions and countries, mostly send remittances back home to meet the needs of their families and friends. This remittance can be in form of money, properties and other forms. Money transferred back to origin country is used to provide for household expenditures (Ratha, Mohapatra & Silwal, 2010). Aside monetary transfer, remittances can be in the form of asset and investment sent back to the home countries. It is estimated that in 2009, emigrants from 3rd world countries, living in other countries, send about \$315 billion to their home countries (Ratha et al., 2010; Amara & Jemmali, 2018).

This asset and investment value represent three times the amount of foreign development assistance provided for 3rd world countries (Ratha et al., 2010). Among the third world countries, Nigeria is ranked in the top 10th recipient of economic remittance from migration to other countries, with an approximate official inflow of about US\$20 billion (Poprawe, 2015). In Nigeria, the actual number of remittances received in 2018 from emigrates globally amounted to about US\$25 billion, which represented 6.1% of Nigeria's GDP. It's argued that the numerous transactions emigrants carried out are unrecorded or occur through informal channels, the actual remittance flow into the nation is arguably higher. From this figure remittance flow impact significantly the growth of the nation's Gross Domestic product. Major areas where these remittances are primarily utilized are to subsidize household expenditures, health and education expenditures (William et al., 2014; Amara & Jemmali, 2018). Remittances gotten from other countries are used to impact positively on the socio-economic growth of the nation.

4.2.2 Education and Sustainable Development

Skilled workers' migration from their home country to other countries has negatively impacted sectors like the educational, Information Communication and Technology sector and the health care of a Nation (Ratha, Mohapatra & Silwal, 2010; Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). In the educational sector, Skilled Nigerians who teaches and lectures are emigrating to other countries in search for better opportunities which has impacted negatively on the educational sector of the nation. This massive outflow of highly skilled academia has affected certainly the quality of outputs from Nigeria institutions of learning (Emeghara, 2013; Amara & Jemmali, 2018) and has crippled the educational standard and system in Nigeria. Omonijo et al (2011), opined that economic migration and brain drain has increased the high level of illiteracy and has influenced and limited human capital formulation in Nigeria. Brain drains and economic migrations affecting the educational sector, most especially the massive outflow of skilled professors from Nigeria to other countries, has impacted the student-teacher ratio.

The country has one of the most awful student ratios in colleges and universities globally (Varrella, 2020; Amara & Jemmali, 2018). The teacher student ratio approved by the Nigeria University Commission (NUC) is on an average

of 1:30. The growing total number of undergraduate in Nigeria universities and the outflow of lecturers to other countries are making difficult the realization of this goal. In 2017, there were about 1.7 million undergraduate students, while there were just about 9,500 full time professors lecturing in Nigerian universities. Based on these finding a professor would have to lecture almost about 178 students, if they must have contact with student, which may have physical and mental effect on them. The quality of education will be affected since they are overworked. Most of these skilled lecturers who find it difficult to face this reality, seek for better opportunities outside the country resulting to brain drain. Nigeria economic sustainability cannot be achieved with the continuous outflow of skilled educators from the country. The required skilled manpower to pilot the affairs of the country will be far from reach.

4.2.3 Human Capital Factor and Sustainable Development

According to William et al. (2014), brain drain, and economic migration have resulted to loss of human capital and manpower, like have discussed in the case of education sector. The loss of manpower and human capital that have in turn crippled the rate of productively and advancement in the country strongly results from the massive outflow of skilled workers from Nigeria to other countries in search of greener pasture and greater economic opportunities (Amara & Jemmali, 2018). Brain drain, and economic migration result to loss of human capital in the country. Human capital plays a vital role in the growth of any country's economy. The outflow of human capital has worsened the healthcare system in Nigeria. Thousands of doctors have left and are still leaving Nigeria in the past few years. Those who have left and still leaving pass blame on the poor working condition and lack of economic opportunities in the country.

Over 14 percent of Nigeria trained doctors, nurses and other medical specialists currently work abroad, of which 90% of these skilled medical workers live and work in either in the United States of America or the United Kingdom alone (Poprawe, 2015; Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). The emigration of Nigerian medical personnel has eroded the healthcare system in Nigeria and negatively affected mortality rate in the country. The rate doctors, nurses and other medical professionals are migrating from Nigeria due to insufficient economic opportunities is drastically expanding and the few that are left are over worked and stressed out. We have frequently lost count of the number of time medical doctors have embark of destructive strike actions in the country resulting from poor remuneration and inhuman working conditions provided by the government. These have affected their decision to leave the country for greener opportunities (Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). The rate of available doctors to patients in Nigeria is one doctor to 5,000 patients which is far below the World Health Organization (WHO) recommendation of a doctor to 600 patients if doctors must work effectively.

Due to brain drain, economic migration and other factors, Nigeria cannot realize the WHO recommendation of a doctor to 600 patients. The brain drains or the fall in human capital in the medical profession, most especially among doctors, results to unemployment of the nurses and other auxiliary staff in the medical sector (Poprawe, 2015; Amara & Jemmali, 2018). Aside the falling human capital in the medical sector, the information and communication sector (ICT) has also had a fair share due to brain drain and economic migration. Many ICT and software personnel in Nigeria have left to other countries in search of better opportunities and that has led to loss of human capital in the country. With the absence of these engineers and ICT personnel, the level of technological growth and advancement in Nigeria will grow slow, affecting the level of productivity and development in the nation. The loss of human capital is not only pronounced in the health and ICT sectors of the country but also in other sectors such as the banking and administrative sectors, the creative industry and others. A country that suffers the lowering of available manpower and human capital cannot sustain her development.

4.2.4 Innovation for Growth and Sustainable Development

The problem of brain drain has robbed countries like Nigeria of potential innovations for growth. The menace of brain drain has limited the growth and development of the nation. The migration of highly skilled workers has contributed to the slow economic growth and development in most third world countries with an increasing inequality and poverty (Jamil & Salmi, 2017; Amara & Jemmali, 2018). Skilled worker's migration has the potential of reducing productivity level in the home countries. Most developing countries where these skilled migrants are migrating from now depend on the developed countries for innovation and growth. Brain drain reduces the growth of human capital and that affects the growth and sustainable development of nation (Poprawe, 2015; Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). In Nigeria, skilled workers like engineers, policy makers and researchers' migration have reduced the innovative and productive capacity of the nation. Countries like Nigeria cannot innovate and produce for growth what it needs without these skilled workers. The resultant effect of brain drain is why the country imports more than they export. Importation has great and negative impact on the GDP of the nation and lowers the economic growth of the country. Even though we have discussed initially the positive effect of migration remittance contribution to GDP, the long run effect impact innovation and growth, push inflation high and lower productivity of nation. Brain drain resulting from migration cannot help any nation sustain economic development (Amara & Jemmali, 2018; Kirwin & Anderson, 2018).

5. Conclusion

There is a knowledge gap between the pattern and the dynamics of migration in Nigeria and across the world. This knowledge gap has thwarted attempts to truly understand the very dynamics of migration in Nigeria. As more and more people are seeking to emigrate from the country, there hardly anything the authority can do to cease the flow, aside putting up a favorable atmosphere for potential immigrants to stay and develop the country. Scholars have debated the fact that migration has brought both positive and effects and consequences on the nation. It was observed that potential migrants make the decision to leave the country partly because of the menace of conflict and violence that threaten the human fundamental rights and violation of their social liberty. Most Nigerians feared being attacked by terrorist and bandits during any social gathering, at marketplace and other locations. The limited economic opportunities resulting from poor governance, weak institution and corrupt practices bedeviling the leadership structures was considered as partly factors responsible for region and international migration in Nigeria. Critical among the findings that propel migration was the unavailability of basic social amenities such as water pipelines, good roads, electricity, rural healthcare facilities, and marketplaces.

Migration has serves as crucial avenue for brain drain in a nation like Nigeria. As more people decide to, and leave the country sectors like the education, health, creative and information technology sector experience a continuous brain drain. The reality of migration has plunged Nigeria into limitation in skilled human capital that the country needs to drive its productive sector. Despite the negative propelling factors of migration, as discussed, a hand full of scholars opined a positive consequence of migration to be economic remittance to the home countries. Migration creates a pull of remittance back home to meet the needs of families and friends. This remittance can be in form of money, properties and other forms. Most countries, like Nigeria, have gain heavily from the economic remittance of migration amounting to billions of dollars. In 2018 alone, it was accounted that Migration economic remittance represented 6.1% of Nigeria's GDP. As long as the country benefit from migration, it will be difficult to implement policies that will certainly halt migration.

6. Recommendations

This paper strongly recommends that government should in essence start to address the driving factors of migration in order to balance the negative effect migration cause on the economy. Nigerians' desperation to travel outside the country can be mitigated when they see the country taking the right step in leadership or governance, human right protection, enabling environment for business to thrive and embracing peace and security.

Acknowledgment

The authors fully acknowledged the Department of Criminology and Security Studies, Federal University of Kashere, the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Benin and the Department of Political Science, Delta State University for supporting this work.

References

- Abba, A. I. (1993). The Niger factor in the implementation of Kino's policy on Almajirai. In Asiwaju A. I. and Barkindo, B. M. (eds.), *The Nigeria- Niger Trans-Border Cooperation*, Malthouse, Lagos: 390-396.
- Abreu, A. (2010). The new economics of labour migration: Beware of neoclassicals bearing gifts. In *Association for Social Economics*. Retrieved from <http://www.springerlink.com/349009>.
- Adegbola, O. (1972). The impact of migration on the rural economy of Osun division of western Nigeria. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Department of Geography, University of Ibadan, Ibadan Nigeria.
- Adegbola, O. (1991). Demographic effects of economic crisis in Nigeria: the brain drain component, in A. Adepaju (Ed), *South-North Migration- the African Situation*, 9th seminar, Geneva.
- Adepaju, A (1991). South-north Migration: The African Experience. *International Migration Review*, 29 (2): 205-222.
- Adepaju, A. (1996). *International migration in and from Africa: Dimensions, Challenges and Prospects*. Population, Human, Resources and Development in Africa (PHRDA), Dakar.
- Adewale J. G. (2005). Socio-Economic Factors Associated with Urban-Rural Migration in Nigeria: A Case Study of Oyo State, *Nigeria Journal of Human Ecology*, 17 (1).
- Adeyeye, P. (2020). Rethinking school reopening: only 5 out of 10 classrooms in nigeria are good, accommodate 104 students per class, Dataphyte. Retrieved on 17-10-2021, Retrieved from <https://www.dataphyte.com/latest->

reports/education-development/rethinking-school-reopening-only-5-out-of-10-classrooms-in-nigeria-are-good-accommodate-104-students-per-class/

Adhikari, P. (2012). The plight of the forgotten ones: Civil war and forced migration. *International Studies Quarterly*, 56(3), 590-606. 52

Afolayan, A. A. (1988). Immigration and Expulsion of ECOWAS Aliens in Nigeria. *International Migration Review*, 22:4-27

Afolayan, A. A. (2000). Trans-border Movement and Trading: A Case Study of a Borderland in Southwestern Nigeria. *Trans-border Studies*, 13:33-48

Afolayan, A. A. (2004). Circulatory migration in West Africa: a case study of Ejigbo in Southwestern Nigeria. Pp. 17-66. L'Harmattan France.

Afolayan, A. A. & I. O. Adelekan, (1998). The role of climatic variations on migration and human health in Africa, *The Environmentalist*. 18: 213 - 218 University of Ibadan, Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Afolayan, A. A., Ikwuyatum, G. O. & Abejide, O. (2008). Dynamics of International Migration in Nigeria: Review of Literature, African Perspectives on Human Mobility Programme, MacArthur Foundation.

Alkali, M. N. (1985). Some Contributions to the study of Pilgrimage tradition in Nigeria, *Annals of Borno*, 2:127-138.

Amara, M. & Jemmali, G. (2018). Deciphering the relationship between internal migration and regional disparities in Tunisia. *Social Indicators Research*, 135(1), 313-331.

Araya, Y. (2013). State fragility, displacement and development interventions. *Forced migration review*, 63-65.

Asiwaju, A. I. (1984). Artificial boundaries. University of Lagos Inaugural lecture. University of Lagos Press, Nigeria.

Asiwaju, A. I. (1989). Borderlands: Policy implications of definition for Nigeria's Gateway,' State Administrations and Local governments. In A.I Asiwaju and P.O. Adeniyi (eds), *Borderland in Africa*. University of Lagos Press, Lagos, Nigeria.

Bergh, A, Mirkina, I, & Nilsson, T. (2015). Pushed by poverty or by institutions? Determinants of global migration flow, *15(1)*, 13-31.

Bertoli, S. (2010). Networks, sorting and self-selection of Ecuadorian migrants. *Annals of Economics and Statistics* ,5 (4): 261-288.

Byrne, B. (2016). Determinants of forced migration. The varying effects of violence and economic conditions on Syrian refugee flight. Baltimore.

Campbell, B. & Barone, L. (2012). Evolutionary basis of human migration. In *Causes and consequences of human migration: An evolutionary perspective*, edited by Michael Crawford and Benjamin Campbell, 45-65. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Cummings, C, Pacitto, J, & Foresti, M. (2015). Why people move: Understanding the drivers and trends of migration. London: (ODI) Overseans Development Institute.

Czaika, M. & Kis-Kastos. (2009). Civil conflict and displacement: Village-level determinants of forced migration in Aceh. *Journal of Peace Research* 46(3), 399-418.

De Haas, H. (2010). Migration and development: A theoretical perspective. *International Migration Review*, 44(1), 227-264.

Docquier, F, Lohest, O, & Marfouk, A. (2007). Brain drains in developing countries. *The World Bank Economic Review*, 21(2), 193-218.

- Dreher, A, Krieger, T, & Meierrieks, D. (2011). Hit and (they will) run: The impact of terrorism on migration. *Economic Letters*. 42-46.
- Emeghara, E. (2013). Brain Drain as A Clog in The Wheel of Nigeria's Development: The University Education System in Focus. *International journal of Development and management*. 8, 1-12.
- Engel, S, & Ibáñez, M. (2007). Displacement due to violence in Colombia: A household-level analysis. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 55(2), 335-365.
- Findley, S. E. (2004). Mali: Seeking Opportunity Abroad. Migration Information Source, Migration Policy Institute. Washington, D.C.
- Goldstein, S. & Goldstein., A. (1991). Permanent and temporary migration differentials in China. *Papers of the East-West Population Institute*, No. 117, Hawaii: East-West Centre.
- Harris, J., & Todaro, M. P. (1970). Migration, unemployment, and development: A two sector analysis. *American Economic Review*, 60, 126-42.
- Ikwuyatum, G.O. (2006). A Spatial Analysis of Rural Out-migration and its consequences in Benue State, Nigeria'. (Unpublished PhD Thesis) Department of Geography University of Ibadan, Nigeria.
- International Migration Report. (2016). *International Migration Report 2015 (ST/ESA/SER.A/384)*. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division.
- International Organizations of migration (IOM). (2016). Study on migrants' profiles, drivers of migration and migratory trends: A research on the socioeconomic profile of migrants arriving in Italy. Italy: IOM.
- IOM (2014). Migration in Nigeria: A country Profile. Retrieved from International organization of migration: https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/mp_nigeria.pdf.
- IPA/ UNICEF. (2021). Do no harm: Maternal, newborn and infant care during COVID-19, Retrieved on 17-10-2021, Retrieved from <https://data.unicef.org/resources/do-no-harm-maternal-newborn-and-infant-care-during-covid-19/>
- Jamil, S, & Salmi, K. (2017). Is brain drain always negative? Retrieved from <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20170321102746248>.
- John, W. (2019). Labour Migration: Causes and Patterns in Nigeria, *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science (IJRISS)*3(10):116-123.
- Kazeem, Y. (2019). Nigeria's ongoing middle-class brain drain is costing it two generations in one swoop, *Quartz Africa*, retrieved on 17-10-2021, Retrieved from <https://qz.com/africa/1615518/nigerias-middle-class-keep-emigrating-to-canada-australia/>
- Kirwin, M, & Anderson, J. (2018). Identifying the factors driving West African migration Paris: OECD Publishing. Paris: OECD.
- Kolbe, M, & Henne, S. (2014). The effects of religious restrictions on forced migration 7(1). *Politicis and religion*, 665-683.
- Konseiga, A. (2006). Household migration decisions as survival strategy: The case of Burkina Faso. *Journal of African Economies*, 16(2): 198-233.
- Kuhnt, J. (2019). Literature review: drivers of migration Why do people leave their homes? Is there an easy answer? A structured overview of migratory determinants.
- Labo, A. (2000). The motivation and integration of immigrants in the Nigeria-Niger border area: a study of Magma-Jibia. *Trans-Border Studies*, 6(3): 98-123.
- Lee, E. (1966). A theory of migration. *Demography*, 3(1), 47-57.

- Loschmann, C, & Siegel, M. (2014). The influence of vulnerability on migration intentions in Afghanistan. *Migration and Development*, 3(1), 142-162.
- Massey, D. (1988). Economic development and international migration in comparative perspective. *Population and Development Review*, 14 (3), 383-413.
- Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., & Taylor, J. E. (1993). Theories of international migration: A review and appraisal. *Population & Development Review*, 19, 431-466.
- Melander, E. & Öberg (2007). The threat of violence and forced migration: Geographical scope trumps intensity of fighting. *Civil Wars*, 9(2), 156-173.
- Mitra, A., & Murayama, M. (2011). Rural-to-Urban Migration in India: A District-level Analysis. In I. Rajan (Ed.), *Migration Identity and Conflict: India Migration Report 2011*. Pages 25–51.
- Moore, H. & Shellman, F. (2004). Fear of persecution: Forced migration. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 48(5), 723-745.
- Mortimore, M. (1988). *Adapting to drought: framers, famines and desertification in West Africa*. London, Cambridge.
- Neumann, K, & Hermans, F. (2017). What drives human migration in Sahelian countries? A meta-analysis. *Population, Space and Place*, 23(1), 1-16. 57.
- NISER. (1998). *Migration and Urbanization Surveys*, NISER Publication, Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Okobiah, O. S. (1989). *Population in History (National and International) Population Education monographs no 13*, Lagos: NERDC.
- Omonijo, D, Nuedum, O, & Jude, E. (2011). Understanding the Escalation of Brain Drain in Nigeria from Poor Leadership Point of View Mediterranean. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(3), 434.
- Oyekanmi, S. (2021). Foreign direct investment into Nigeria slumps to its lowest in 11 years, retrieved on 17-10-2021, Retrieved from <https://nairametrics.com/2021/08/02/foreign-direct-investment-into-nigeria-slumps-to-its-lowest-in-11-years/>
- Poprawe, M. (2015). On the relationship between corruption and migration: Empirical evidence from a gravity model of migration. *Public Choice*, 163(3), 337-354.
- Prothero, R. M. (1957). Migratory Labour from North Western Nigeria', *Journal of International African Institute*, 27 (3).
- Prothero, R. M. (1959). *Migrant Labour from Sokoto Province Northern Nigeria*. Kaduna Government Press.
- Ratha, D, Mohapatra, S., & Silwal, A. (2010). Outlook for remittance flows 2010-11. *Migration and development*. Retrieved from <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/10931>
- Ravenstein, E. (1889). The laws of migration. *Journal of the Statistical Society of London*, 52(2), 241-305.
- Riccio, B. (2003). More than a Trade Diaspora: Senegalese Transnational Experiences in Emilia-Romagna. In Khalid Koser, ed. *New African Diasporas*. Routledge: London.
- Sassen, S. (1991). *The global city*, New York: Princeton University Press.
- Shimada, F. (1993). Migration and change in agricultural production systems in rural Nigeria: a case study. *Geography*, 43(2), 63-90. *Science Reports Tohoku University, Seventh Series*.
- Stark, O, Taylor, J. E. & Yitzhaki, S. (1986). Remittances and inequality. *Economic Journal*, 96, 722–740. doi:10.2307/2232987.
- Stark, O. & Bloom, E. D. (1985). The new economics of labour migration. *American Economic Review*, 75(2), 173-178

- Thiam, M, Rebecca P, & V. Piche. (2004). "Migration and HIV in Northern Senegal." Population Reference Bureau. www.prb.org.
- Todaro, M. P. (1976). *Internal Migration in developing countries: A review of theory, evaluation, methodology, and research priorities*. Geneva: International Labour Office.
- Udo, R. K. (1975). *Migrant tenant farmers of Nigeria: a geographical study of rural migrations in Nigeria*. African University Press, Lagos.
- Varrella, S. (2020). Monthly minimum wage in Nigeria from 2018 to 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/1119133>
- Varrella, S. (2020). Number of full univeristiy professors in Nigeria as of 2017, by gender. Retrieved from Statista: <https://www.statista.com>
- Varrella, S. (2020). Poverty headcount rate in Nigeria 2019, by state. Retrieved from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/1121438/poverty-headcount-rate-in-nigeria-by-state>.
- Varrella, S. (2021). African Countries with the largest population as of 2021. Retrieved from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/1121246/population-in-africa-by-country/>
- Varrella, S. (2021). Literacy rate in Nigeria in 2018, by area and gender, Society: Science and Education, Statista, retrieved on 17-10-2021, Retrieved from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/1124741/literacy-rate-in-nigeria-by-area-and-gender/>
- Weeks, J. R. (2008). *Population: An Introduction to Concepts and Issues*. Belmont, CA: Thomson/ Wadsworth.
- Weinstein, J. A., & Pillai, V. K. (2001). *Demography: the science of population*, Boston, Mass: Allyn and Bacon.
- William, F, Ayuk, E, Chukwu, J, & Chukwu, D. (2014). Dynamics of Remittance Utilization by Nigerian Household. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/269853553_DYNAMICS_OF_REMITTANCE_UTILIZATION_BY_NIGERIAN_HOUSEHOLDS
- Wong, H, & Celbis, G. (2015). Migration as a response to differences in human rights and income: A bilateral panel study (MERIT Working Paper 053). Maastricht: United Nations University, Maastricht Economic and Social Research Institute on Innova. Maastricht: MERIT.
- Yusuf, N.A. (2008). Spatial analysis of impact of out-migration on the Ejigbo local government area of Osun state. An M.Sc Dissertation, Department of Geography, University of Ibadan.