

**ECONOMIC MIGRATION TO THE WEST AND THE CHALLENGES OF BRAIN  
DRAIN IN NIGERIA: A STUDY OF NIGERIA-UK RELATIONS**

**BY**

**OGUNTOLA ADESHOLA GIDEON**

**MAT NO: PG/23/027347/ASS**

**BEING A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE  
STUDIES AND RESEARCH, IGBINEDION UNIVERSITY, OKADA, EDO STATE. IN  
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF  
MASTER OF SCIENCE (M.Sc.) INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND STRATEGIC  
STUDIES**

**SUPERVISOR**

**DR EMEKA AGBA**

**NOVEMBER, 2025.**

## DECLARATION

I, **OGUNTOLA ADESHOLA GIDEON**, hereby declare that this dissertation titled: **ECONOMIC MIGRATION TO THE WEST AND THE CHALLENGES OF BRAIN DRAIN IN NIGERIA: A STUDY OF NIGERIA-UK RELATIONS** is based on original research carried out by me. This work has not been submitted previously for the award of any degree, diploma, or certificate anywhere.

SIGNATURE: \_\_\_\_\_

NAME: **OGUNTOLA ADESHOLA GIDEON**

DEPARTMENT: INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND STRATEGIC STUDIES

MATRICULATION NUMBER: **PG/23/027347/ASS**

DATE: \_\_\_\_\_

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

IGBINEDION UNIVERSITY OKADA, EDO STATE

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ, the beginning and the end, for His mercies, and to my parents, Deacon and Mrs. Abel Abigail Oguntola.

## CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this dissertation was carried out by **Oguntola Adeshola Gideon** with the matriculation number **PG/23/027347/ASS** and was supervised by DR. Emeka Agba of Igbinedion University Okada, in partial fulfilment of the award of Master Degree (MSc) in International Relations and Strategic Studies.

---

**Oguntola Adeshola Gideon**  
**PG/23/027347/ASS**  
**Student**

---

**Date**

---

**Dr Emeka Agba**  
**Project Supervisor**

---

**Date**

---

**Dr Alexander Subair**  
**Head of Department**

---

**Date**

---

**EXTERNAL EXAMINER**

---

**Date**

---

**Prof. Deborah Omosefe Odejimi**  
**Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies & Research**

---

**Date**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My deepest gratitude goes to Christ Jesus, my Lord and Saviour, whose grace, wisdom, and strength have carried me through every challenge of this journey. Without His mercy and guidance, this work would not have been possible.

My heartfelt appreciation goes to my beloved parents, Deacon and Mrs. Abel and Abigail Oguntola, for their endless love, prayers, and sacrifices. Your unwavering faith in me has been my anchor, your encouragement my fuel, and your support my greatest blessing. This accomplishment is as much yours as it is mine.

I owe special thanks to my supervisor, Dr. Emeka Agba, for his kindness, understanding, and remarkable dedication. His patience, constructive guidance, and constant encouragement gave this work both clarity and direction. I am truly grateful for his genuine effort and commitment throughout this program.

My sincere gratitude also goes to the Head of Department, Dr. Alexander Subair, for his leadership and support, and to Prof. Femi Olufunmilade and Prof. Nnamdi Nwaodu, whose intellectual depth and mentorship have greatly enriched my academic experience.

Finally, to everyone who offered encouragement, advice, or a helping hand along the way, thank you. Your support has made this journey truly meaningful.

## ABSTRACT

This study examines the dynamics of economic migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom and its implications for brain drain within the framework of Nigeria-UK bilateral relations from 2016 to 2024. The research is motivated by the escalating exodus of skilled Nigerian professionals, which has created critical shortages in vital sectors like healthcare and education, thereby threatening national development. Employing a qualitative research design and trend analysis of secondary data, the study is anchored theoretically in the Push-Pull model and World Systems Theory to analyse both the micro-level motivations and the macro-structural inequalities driving this phenomenon. The findings reveal that migration is propelled by a confluence of powerful push factors, including economic instability, high unemployment, pervasive insecurity, and institutional decay in Nigeria, and pull factors from the UK, such as strategic post-Brexit immigration policies like the Health and Care Worker Visa and the Graduate Route Visa. The analysis identifies a dramatic surge in migration, particularly post-2020, transforming the trend into a normalized, large-scale exodus popularly termed "Japa." This has resulted in a significant depletion of Nigeria's human capital, weakening its public institutions and service delivery. Conversely, the UK benefits from filling critical labour shortages. The study concludes that the Nigeria-UK migration relationship is fundamentally asymmetrical, reinforcing a core-periphery dynamic where the UK accrues disproportionate benefits. It recommends urgent domestic reforms in Nigeria to retain talent, a strategic leveraging of the diaspora, and a renegotiation of bilateral relations towards more ethical recruitment and mutually beneficial co-development frameworks to mitigate brain drain and harness the potential of migration for national development.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

|                       |     |
|-----------------------|-----|
| Cover page            | i   |
| Declaration           | ii  |
| Dedication            | iii |
| Certification         | iv  |
| Acknowledgement       | v   |
| Abstract              | vi  |
| Table of Contents     | vii |
| List of Abbreviations | ix  |

### CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

|     |                           |   |
|-----|---------------------------|---|
| 1.1 | Background of the Study   | 1 |
| 1.2 | Statement of Problem      | 3 |
| 1.3 | Objectives of the Study   | 5 |
| 1.4 | Research Questions        | 5 |
| 1.5 | Significance of the Study | 5 |
| 1.6 | Scope of the Study        | 6 |
| 1.7 | Limitations of the study  | 6 |
| 1.8 | Definition of Terms       | 7 |

### CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

|        |   |    |
|--------|---|----|
| 2.1.   | Conceptual Review   | 8  |
| 2.1.1. | Migration   | 8  |
| 2.1.2. | Conceptualising Economic Migration                                      | 10 |
| 2.1.3. | The Concept of Brain Drain  | 13 |
| 2.1.4. | The Concept of Human Capital Flight                                     | 17 |
| 2.1.5  | African Migration to the West: Historical and Contemporary Perspectives | 21 |
| 2.1.6  | Nigeria–UK Migration Relations: A Historical View                       | 25 |
| 2.2    | Theoretical Review  | 29 |
| 2.3    | Empirical Review  | 32 |
| 2.4    | Gap in Literature   | 36 |

### CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

|        |                               |    |
|--------|-------------------------------|----|
| 3.1.   | Theoretical Framework         | 40 |
| 3.1.1. | Push-Pull Theory of Migration | 40 |
| 3.1.2. | World Systems Theory          | 43 |
| 3.2.   | Research Design               | 45 |
| 3.3.   | Research Setting              | 46 |

|      |                           |    |
|------|---------------------------|----|
| 3.4. | Method of Data Collection | 46 |
| 3.5. | Method of Data Analysis   | 47 |

#### **CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

|        |  |     |
|--------|--|-----|
| 4.1    | Presentation of Data   | 48  |
| 4.2    | Trend analysis   | 50  |
| 4.2.1  | Trend Analysis for Table 4.1   | 50  |
| 4.2.2. | Trend Analysis for Table 4.2   | 52  |
| 4.2.3. | Trend Analysis of Table 4.3  | 55  |
| 4.2.4. | Trend Analysis of Table 4.4  | 57  |
| 4.3    | Discussion of Findings   | 63  |
| 4.4    | Implications for Nigeria's Development                                 | 86  |
| 4.4.1  | Human Capital Depletion and the Weakening of Institutional Capacity    | 86  |
| 4.4.2  | Economic Implications  | 89  |
| 4.4.3  | Social Implications  | 93  |
| 4.4.4  | Implications for Nigeria–UK Relations                                  | 94  |
| 4.4.5  | Asymmetrical Benefits and the Core–Periphery Dynamic                   | 97  |
| 4.4.6  | Migration as a Diplomatic Issue  | 100 |
| 4.4.7  | The Future of Nigeria–UK Migration: Between Opportunity and Dependency | 102 |

#### **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

|     |                           |     |
|-----|---------------------------|-----|
| 5.1 | Summary                   | 105 |
| 5.2 | Conclusion                | 106 |
| 5.3 | Recommendations           | 107 |
| 5.4 | Contribution to Knowledge | 108 |
|     | References                | 109 |

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND THEIR MEANINGS

|           |   |
|-----------|---|
| 1. API    | Africa Polling Institute                      |
| 2. ASUU   | Academic Staff Union of Universities          |
| 3. BMJ    | British Medical Journal                       |
| 4. CAGR   | Compound Annual Growth Rate                   |
| 5. CBN    | Central Bank of Nigeria                       |
| 6. DHSC   | Department of Health and Social Care (UK)     |
| 7. ECOWAS | Economic Community of West African States     |
| 8. EFCC   | Economic and Financial Crimes Commission      |
| 9. EU     | European Union                                |
| 10. FDI   | Foreign Direct Investment                     |
| 11. FMOH  | Federal Ministry of Health                    |
| 12. GDP   | Gross Domestic Product                        |
| 13. GHWA  | Global Health Workforce Alliance              |
| 14. GMC   | General Medical Council (UK)                  |
| 15. HESA  | Higher Education Statistics Agency            |
| 16. ICT   | Information and Communications Technology     |
| 17. ICPC  | Independent Corrupt Practices Commission      |
| 18. IELTS | International English Language Testing System |
| 19. ILO   | International Labour Organization             |
| 20. IMF   | International Monetary Fund                   |
| 21. IOM   | International Organization for Migration      |
| 22. IT    | Information Technology                        |
| 23. M.Sc  | Master of Science                             |
| 24. MDCN  | Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria         |
| 25. MMP   | Migration and Mobility Partnership            |
| 26. NBS   | National Bureau of Statistics                 |
| 27. NCDC  | Nigerian Centre for Disease Control           |
| 28. NELM  | New Economics of Labour Migration             |
| 29. NHS   | National Health Service (UK)                  |

|             |   |
|-------------|---|
| 30. NiDCOM  | Nigerians in Diaspora Commission                                    |
| 31. NiDUK   | Nigerian Doctors in the UK  |
| 32. NIH     | National Institutes of Health                                       |
| 33. NITDA   | National Information Technology Development Agency                  |
| 34. NMA     | Nigerian Medical Association  |
| 35. NMC     | Nursing and Midwifery Council (UK)                                  |
| 36. NUC     | National Universities Commission                                    |
| 37. NYSC    | National Youth Service Corps  |
| 38. OECD    | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development              |
| 39. ONS     | Office for National Statistics (UK)                                 |
| 40. PLAB    | Professional and Linguistic Assessments Board                       |
| 41. TETFund | Tertiary Education Trust Fund                                       |
| 42. UK      | United Kingdom  |
| 43. UN      | United Nations  |
| 44. UNDP    | United Nations Development Programme                                |
| 45. UNESCO  | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural<br>Organization |
| 46. US      | United States   |
| 47. WHO     | World Health Organization   |

## LIST OF TABLES

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Table 4.1 Overall Migration Growth  | 48 |
| Table 4.2: Nigerian Study Visas Issued to the UK by Year (2017–2024)                    | 48 |
| Table 4.3 Work-related and healthcare exodus  | 49 |
| Table 4.4: Nigerian Migration to the United Kingdom<br>(Selected Categories, 2019–2023) | 49 |

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Background To The Study

Migration has long been a defining feature of human history, driven by a multitude of factors ranging from conflict and persecution to the pursuit of economic prosperity and educational advancement. In contemporary times, one of the most dominant forms of migration is economic migration, which involves the movement of individuals from low-income or developing countries to more economically advanced nations in search of better employment opportunities, higher standards of living, and improved social infrastructure (International Organization for Migration [IOM], 2020). Within this context, Nigeria stands out as a significant contributor to migratory flows from Sub-Saharan Africa, particularly to Western countries like the United Kingdom (UK). This movement is often characterized by the departure of highly skilled individuals, a phenomenon commonly referred to as brain drain.

The term "brain drain" refers to the large-scale emigration of educated and skilled professionals from their home countries to more developed nations. This process is particularly pronounced in countries like Nigeria, where socio-economic challenges such as unemployment, insecurity, low wages, and poor working conditions push individuals to seek greener pastures abroad (Adepoju, 2021). The United Kingdom, due to its historical, linguistic, and colonial ties with Nigeria, has remained a top destination for Nigerian migrants, especially those seeking employment in the health, education, and technology sectors (Dabalén et al., 2021). According to the UK Home Office (2022), there has been a significant increase in the number of skilled workers migrating from Nigeria, particularly after the introduction of the UK's Health and Care Worker Visa.

The implications of this growing trend are profound for Nigeria. While migration may lead to individual success stories and remittance inflows, it also exacerbates the shortage of professionals in critical sectors. For example, Nigeria is currently facing a health workforce crisis, with thousands of doctors, nurses, and allied health professionals leaving the country annually. Between 2019 and 2023 alone, the General Medical Council (GMC) of the UK reported that over 11,000 Nigerian-trained doctors had registered to practice in the UK (General Medical Council, 2023). Similarly, thousands of Nigerian nurses and IT professionals have relocated, resulting in significant gaps in service delivery and innovation at home.

Moreover, the loss of human capital due to economic migration undermines national development efforts (Agba E and Ugochi D et al, 2023). Education and professional training are often subsidized by the Nigerian government or through public institutions, yet the returns on such investments are frequently realized abroad. This results in what scholars have termed a "subsidy to developed nations" (Todaro & Smith, 2020). Additionally, the exodus of professionals contributes to institutional decay, lowers productivity, and hampers the growth of indigenous expertise and innovation in Nigeria (Adebayo, 2020). This trend has also raised concerns in the realm of international relations, especially in the context of Nigeria-UK relations. Historically, the relationship between Nigeria and the UK has been multifaceted, encompassing trade, development assistance, education, and migration. However, the increasing flow of Nigerian professionals to the UK has introduced a new dynamic that merits academic exploration. While the UK benefits from filling gaps in its aging workforce, Nigeria is left grappling with the consequences of human resource depletion. As such, migration has shifted from being merely a socio-economic issue to a key subject in bilateral engagements between both countries (Oche, 2022). Furthermore, the recent relaxation of visa policies and the active recruitment of healthcare workers by UK institutions have intensified

the rate of skilled emigration. Many Nigerian youths now view migration not just as an option but as a necessity for personal advancement. This has also been reflected in the surge of applications for international exams like IELTS, PLAB, and UK NMC tests, all prerequisites for migration (Chikezie, 2022). Social media platforms further reinforce migration narratives, portraying life in the UK as an ultimate goal, regardless of the costs or sacrifices involved. Despite the seeming benefits of migration, such as remittances which totalled over \$20 billion in 2022 (World Bank, 2023), the trade-off for Nigeria is worrisome. The imbalance created by the outflow of critical workforce against the backdrop of a fragile domestic economy suggests the need for urgent policy intervention. Nigeria must reevaluate its strategies, both domestically and in terms of foreign policy, to mitigate the negative impacts of brain drain while maximizing the potential benefits of its diaspora.

In light of the above, this study seeks to examine the underlying causes of economic migration from Nigeria to the West, particularly to the United Kingdom, and assess its implications on national development and Nigeria-UK bilateral relations. The study will analyse not only the push and pull factors driving migration but also the policies, attitudes, and frameworks that govern such movements. By focusing on the Nigeria-UK context, the research aims to contribute to a better understanding of how economic migration and brain drain can be managed in a way that balances the interests of both sending and receiving countries.

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

Nigeria is currently experiencing a growing wave of economic migration, particularly among its skilled professionals, to Western countries such as the United Kingdom. This trend has become a major developmental challenge as it contributes significantly to the phenomenon of brain drain, the emigration of highly trained and educated individuals in search of better

opportunities abroad. Between 2019 and 2023, over 11,000 Nigerian-trained doctors were licensed to practice in the UK, while thousands of nurses, IT experts, and university lecturers continue to leave the country annually. This outflow of talent has created critical shortages in Nigeria's health, education, and technology sectors, thereby threatening national productivity and institutional efficiency.

Despite the benefits of migration, including remittances totalling over \$20 billion annually (World Bank, 2023), the long-term costs are alarming. Nigeria's public institutions, particularly in health and education, are increasingly depleted of experienced professionals. For example, the country's doctor-to-patient ratio is now at 1:5,000, far below the World Health Organization's recommendation of 1:600. Push factors such as low wages, insecurity, unemployment, and limited career advancement opportunities compel professionals to leave. Simultaneously, pull factors from the UK, such as structured immigration routes, higher salaries, and better working conditions, make migration a preferred option.

What makes this issue more complex is the limited policy response from the Nigerian government and a lack of strategic engagement with the UK to mitigate the effects of skilled migration. While bilateral relations between Nigeria and the UK remain strong, migration and brain drain have not been meaningfully addressed within their diplomatic frameworks. Furthermore, research on the Nigeria-UK migration nexus is limited, and this gap hinders the development of effective policies to retain local talent or leverage diaspora potential.

Thus, the problem lies in the unchecked outflow of Nigeria's skilled workforce to the UK, the resulting national capacity deficit, and the absence of coherent domestic and diplomatic strategies to address this challenge. This study seeks to examine the root causes, consequences, and policy dimensions of this trend in the context of Nigeria-UK relations.

### **1.3. Objectives of the Study**

1. To identify the major economic, social, and political factors driving Nigerian professionals to migrate to the United Kingdom.
2. To assess the implications of skilled migration on critical sectors in Nigeria, such as healthcare and education.
3. To evaluate the measures taken by the Nigerian government to address brain drain and retain skilled workers within the country.
4. To explore how Nigeria-UK bilateral relations can be utilized to develop mutually beneficial approaches to managing economic migration and brain drain.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

1. What are the main reasons Nigerian professionals are leaving the country to seek jobs in the United Kingdom?
2. How has the migration of skilled workers to the UK affected Nigeria's key sectors, such as health and education?
3. What policies or actions has the Nigerian government taken to reduce brain drain, and how effective have they been?
4. In what ways can Nigeria-UK relations be used to manage economic migration in a way that benefits both countries?

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

This study is significant as it sheds light on the growing trend of economic migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom and its impact on national development. By focusing on the challenge of brain drain, the research helps to explain how the loss of skilled professionals affects key sectors like health and education. It also provides valuable insights for policymakers on how to improve retention strategies and manage migration more effectively.

Additionally, the study explores how Nigeria-UK relations can be better leveraged to address this issue in a way that benefits both countries.

### **1.6. Scope of Study**

This study investigates the trend of economic migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom between 2016 and 2024, with a particular focus on its implications for brain drain. It centres on the emigration of skilled Nigerian professionals, particularly in vital sectors such as healthcare and education, over this nine-year period. The research further explores the socio-economic factors, policy frameworks, and bilateral relations between Nigeria and the United Kingdom during this timeframe. The objective is to analyse how migration patterns have evolved since the United Kingdom's withdrawal from the European Union (Brexit) and to assess the extent to which these shifts have affected Nigeria's most essential sectors.

### **1.7 Limitations of the Study**

This study, while comprehensive, is subject to certain limitations. Firstly, the research relies heavily on secondary data such as government reports, migration statistics, and academic literature, which may not fully capture the most recent or undocumented migration trends. Secondly, due to time and resource constraints, the study does not include extensive fieldwork or interviews with migrants, policymakers, or officials from the Nigerian or UK governments. As such, the personal experiences and nuanced perspectives of migrants are not deeply explored. Additionally, the study focuses primarily on migration to the United Kingdom, which may limit the generalizability of its findings to other Western countries experiencing similar inflows of Nigerian professionals. Lastly, evolving policies and global events such as Brexit, COVID-19, or changing visa regulations may influence migration dynamics in ways that are still unfolding, making it difficult to capture their full long-term impact within the scope of this research.

## 1.8 Operational Definition of Terms

- **Economic Migration:** The movement of people from one country to another primarily to seek better employment opportunities and improved living standards.
- **Brain Drain:** The emigration of educated, skilled, and talented individuals from their home country to another, often for better working conditions and pay.
- **Skilled Workers:** Individuals with specialized training or professional qualifications who contribute significantly to sectors such as health, education, and technology.
- **Diaspora:** Citizens or individuals of Nigerian origin who live and work outside the country, often contributing to the home economy through remittances and investments.
- **Remittances:** Money sent by migrants to family members or others in their home country, usually for household support or local investment.
- **Bilateral Relations:** The diplomatic, economic, and political interactions between two sovereign countries, in this case, Nigeria and the United Kingdom.
- **Push Factors:** Conditions in the home country, such as unemployment, insecurity, or poor infrastructure, that drive individuals to migrate.
- **Pull Factors:** Attractive conditions in the destination country, such as better jobs, higher wages, and stable governance, that encourage migration.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The phenomenon of economic migration to the West and the resulting brain drain in Nigeria has attracted increasing scholarly attention, particularly within the framework of Nigeria-UK relations. This literature review explores key concepts such as migration, economic migration, brain drain, and provides a theoretical and empirical foundation for understanding the drivers and consequences of this trend. By examining existing research on these interconnected themes, the review aims to highlight gaps in knowledge and inform the contextual analysis of Nigeria's migratory patterns and developmental challenges.

#### **2.1. Conceptual Review**

##### **2.1.1. Migration**

Migration is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that has shaped human history and continues to influence global demographic, economic, political, and social landscapes. At its core, migration refers to the movement of people from one geographical location to another, often involving crossing regional or national borders, with the intent to settle either temporarily or permanently. This process can be voluntary or involuntary, internal (within a country) or international, and is driven by a multitude of factors, including economic opportunities, environmental changes, conflicts, persecution, and social or familial ties (Okpokwasili, 2025).

The concept of migration is deeply embedded in human civilization. Historically, people have moved in search of arable land, better living conditions, or as a response to war, colonization, and trade routes. In the modern era, globalization has significantly altered the patterns and scale of migration, facilitating the movement of people through advances in transportation and communication (Agba E and Ugochi D et al, 2023). Economic globalization, in

particular, has intensified labour migration, where individuals seek better employment opportunities abroad due to disparities in income and living standards between countries (Mousa & Sri 2024).

One of the dominant frameworks for understanding migration is the push-pull theory. According to this theory, certain "push" factors in the origin country, such as poverty, unemployment, political instability, and environmental disasters, compel individuals to leave, while "pull" factors in the destination country, such as better employment prospects, political stability, and higher standards of living attract migrants (Lee, 1966). While this model helps to explain migration flows, critics argue that it oversimplifies the deeply contextual and often political nature of migration decisions, failing to account for the structural forces that influence both push and pull dynamics (Czaika & Weisner, 2025).

Migration is not merely a response to individual or household decisions but is often shaped by larger systemic and structural conditions. For instance, colonial legacies, global economic inequalities, and geopolitical relations influence the direction and volume of migration flows. Postcolonial ties between former colonies and colonizers continue to shape migration channels, evident in the movement of people from Francophone West Africa to France or from South Asia to the United Kingdom (de Haas & Frankema, 2022). Moreover, neoliberal economic policies and international trade regimes often create economic dislocations in developing countries, pushing individuals to migrate in search of livelihoods (Gürcan, 2024).

In contemporary discourse, migration is also a contested political issue, particularly in the context of rising nationalism and anti-immigration sentiments in many parts of the world. Migrants are often scapegoated for economic decline, unemployment, or insecurity, despite evidence showing their contributions to host economies through labour, entrepreneurship, and demographic rejuvenation (Pompeo, 2021). Additionally, irregular migration outside the

regulatory norms of sending, transit, and receiving countries has become a focal point of global concern, raising complex issues about human rights, border security, and national sovereignty.

Migration is also intimately linked with human rights and development. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development acknowledges the significance of migration in achieving development goals, emphasizing the need for safe, orderly, and regular migration (United Nations, 2015). Migrants often face challenges, including legal uncertainty, discrimination, exploitation, and difficulties in accessing healthcare, education, and social protection, which require holistic and rights-based policy responses. Furthermore, climate change is emerging as a critical driver of migration. Rising sea levels, desertification, extreme weather events, and resource scarcity are forcing communities to relocate, thereby generating new patterns of environmental or climate-induced displacement (McLeman, 2014). This adds a new dimension to migration studies, demanding interdisciplinary approaches that integrate environmental science, international law, and humanitarian responses.

### **2.1.2. Conceptualising Economic Migration**

Economic migration refers to the movement of individuals or groups from one region or country to another primarily to improve their economic conditions and livelihood. This phenomenon is driven by disparities in income, employment opportunities, living standards, and economic stability between regions or countries (Agba E & Erewa G, 2023). The global nature of economic inequality, coupled with the aspiration for better economic prospects, has historically underpinned the motivations for economic migration. According to Castles and Miller (2009), economic migration is often characterized by a voluntary decision made by individuals seeking better employment prospects, increased wages, and improved quality of

life, though structural conditions frequently influence these choices in both origin and destination countries.

At its core, economic migration reflects the realities of the global labour market, where supply and demand dynamics, labour shortages, and surplus human capital contribute to migration flows. In this sense, economic migration serves as a mechanism through which labour markets adjust to changing demographic and economic conditions. For instance, countries with aging populations and declining birth rates often experience labour shortages, thereby increasing their demand for migrant labour, especially in sectors such as agriculture, healthcare, and construction (Feist, 2024). In contrast, countries with high levels of unemployment and underemployment, particularly in the Global South, often act as sources of economic migrants. Nigeria, for example, has witnessed significant outward economic migration due to persistent economic challenges, including high youth unemployment, inflation, and limited industrialization (Ani et al 2023).

The economic rationale behind migration is often explained through various theoretical frameworks. The neoclassical economic theory posits that migration results from individual decisions to maximize income through movement from low-wage to high-wage regions (Todaro & Smith, 2015). This perspective views labour as a commodity that naturally flows from areas of surplus to areas of scarcity. On the other hand, the new economics of labour migration (NELM) emphasizes household strategies, wherein migration is seen as a way to diversify income sources and reduce vulnerability to economic shocks in origin communities (Stark & Bloom, 1985). This approach highlights the role of remittances and the importance of familial obligations and risk-sharing mechanisms in shaping migration decisions.

Remittances, a direct product of economic migration, have significant economic implications for sending countries. The World Bank (2023) notes that remittances are a major source of

external finance for many developing countries, often surpassing official development assistance and, in some cases, foreign direct investment. For Nigeria, remittances represent a critical component of the national economy, contributing to poverty reduction and providing households with access to education, healthcare, and housing (Abdikirin, 2024). However, the dependence on remittance flows can also mask underlying structural weaknesses and delay necessary economic reforms. Despite the benefits, economic migration presents several challenges, particularly for the countries of origin. One of the most prominent is the issue of brain drain the emigration of highly skilled professionals, including doctors, engineers, academics, and IT specialists. This loss of human capital undermines development efforts, especially in sectors crucial to national growth and public welfare. Nigeria's experience with brain drain is particularly acute in the healthcare sector, where a significant number of trained medical personnel emigrate to countries such as the United Kingdom and Canada in search of better pay and working conditions (Adepoju, 2003; Ogunsola et al., 2021). This exodus has created a vacuum that affects the quality and accessibility of healthcare services within the country.

Moreover, economic migration can have socio-political implications. It may influence bilateral relations between sending and receiving countries, especially when migration becomes politicized or when there are disputes over immigration policy. In some cases, restrictive immigration policies in destination countries can lead to irregular migration and exploitation of migrants, who may be forced into precarious working conditions with limited legal protections. The International Labour Organization (ILO, 2015) warns that migrant workers are often disproportionately represented in the informal economy and are vulnerable to labour rights violations and discrimination. While destination countries may benefit from the labour contributions of economic migrants, the integration of migrants into the host society poses challenges related to social cohesion, xenophobia, and access to services. These

issues are exacerbated when migrants are perceived as economic competitors or cultural outsiders. Nonetheless, many studies have shown that economic migrants often fill labour shortages, contribute to innovation and entrepreneurship, and play a vital role in sustaining public services in aging societies (Szűcs, 2024).

### **2.1.3. The Concept Of Brain Drain**

Brain drain, often referred to as the emigration of highly skilled, trained, and educated professionals from one country to another, is a phenomenon that has gained critical global attention, particularly within the context of developing countries. It is commonly associated with the loss of intellectual capital and technical expertise from nations that are already grappling with underdevelopment, institutional weakness, and resource limitations. The term "brain drain" connotes not just the physical departure of individuals but also the vacuum that such departures create in the social, economic, academic, and professional fabric of the sending nation. In most cases, these individuals migrate in search of better economic prospects, enhanced working conditions, greater career advancement, academic freedom, political stability, and access to world-class technology and research infrastructure (Nilsson & Westin, 2024). This phenomenon is not new but has taken on renewed urgency in the 21st century as globalization, digital connectivity, and growing inequality between nations have made skilled migration more accessible, more frequent, and more consequential.

Brain drain is most commonly experienced in countries with systemic deficiencies in governance, underfunded educational institutions, political instability, and limited labour market opportunities. In such environments, the motivation to emigrate is often not solely financial. Rather, it is an outcome of compounded dissatisfaction with the socio-political climate, lack of meritocracy, insecurity, and disillusionment with the prospects for meaningful professional engagement. Nigeria, for instance, has experienced a sustained

outflow of medical doctors, university lecturers, engineers, and IT professionals over the last few decades, a trend that has worsened with recent economic downturns, insecurity, and widespread youth unemployment (Adeleye et al., 2021). This outflow is especially troubling given the significant public investment involved in educating these professionals, which ends up benefiting the economies of more developed nations where they eventually settle and contribute.

In economic terms, brain drain represents a direct loss of human capital and an indirect drain on national development potential. Economists often consider human capital as one of the most critical inputs in the production function of economic growth, especially in knowledge-based and service-driven economies. Therefore, the emigration of highly educated and skilled workers disrupts the optimal allocation of talent, limits innovation, and hampers local productivity. It also undermines the institutional capacity of public sectors that rely heavily on professional expertise, such as health, education, and technology. In many sub-Saharan African countries, the education and health sectors are particularly vulnerable, as they suffer not only from a shortage of qualified personnel but also from poor retention of the limited workforce available. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2020), Nigeria has one of the highest ratios of health worker emigration, with thousands of doctors and nurses relocating annually to countries like the United Kingdom, Canada, and Saudi Arabia, contributing to a severe medical personnel deficit in domestic health institutions.

The theoretical underpinnings of brain drain can be traced to migration and development literature that seeks to explain why individuals choose to leave their countries of origin despite the familiarity and social networks that often exist there. One of the most widely accepted explanations is the neoclassical economic model, which suggests that individuals make rational decisions to migrate based on income differentials, cost-benefit analysis, and the expectation of better returns on their skills in destination countries (Todaro & Smith,

2015). However, this perspective does not fully account for the structural push factors such as political repression, corruption, underemployment, lack of merit-based promotions, and poor working environments that dominate in many developing states. Therefore, a more nuanced framework is provided by the structuralist and world-systems theories, which argue that global inequalities and historical dependencies between core and periphery countries systematically encourage the extraction of human capital from the developing world for the benefit of advanced economies (Castles, de Haas, & Miller, 2014).

While brain drain is typically viewed in a negative light, some scholars have introduced more balanced approaches that emphasize its potential benefits. The "brain gain" argument suggests that the prospect of emigration can serve as an incentive for increased educational attainment and entrepreneurial ambition within sending countries. Moreover, some migrants eventually return home with enhanced skills, professional networks, and capital investments that contribute to national development. This process, often referred to as "brain circulation" or "brain exchange," is particularly evident in countries that have created enabling environments for diaspora engagement and return migration. Countries like India and China have leveraged their scientific and technological diasporas to fuel their domestic innovation ecosystems. However, this model requires stable institutions, visionary policy frameworks, and adequate reintegration opportunities, conditions that are often lacking in sub-Saharan Africa (Martin, 2017).

In the Nigerian context, efforts to reverse or mitigate brain drain have faced significant challenges. Government initiatives to incentivize return migration, such as diaspora bond programs, foreign credential recognition schemes, and diaspora commissions, have achieved limited success due to persistent systemic problems. For instance, poor funding of universities, erratic electricity supply, poor remuneration, and lack of infrastructure in public hospitals continue to discourage professionals abroad from returning. Moreover, the

entrenched culture of nepotism, bureaucratic red tape, and political instability has created an environment where merit is seldom rewarded, thereby dissuading reintegration and making continued emigration more appealing. Surveys conducted by the Nigerian Association of Resident Doctors (NARD) and other professional bodies indicate that a majority of young medical graduates express a strong desire to emigrate within five years of graduation, citing better pay, job satisfaction, and opportunities for specialization as key reasons (Ogunsola et al., 2021).

On the global front, the receiving countries are not merely passive actors but active participants in the perpetuation of brain drain. Many developed nations have institutionalized policies that facilitate the recruitment of foreign professionals to address their own labour shortages in key sectors. These include immigration pathways tailored for skilled workers, international student retention policies, and active poaching of talent from developing nations. The United Kingdom's National Health Service (NHS), for example, is heavily reliant on foreign-trained doctors and nurses, many of whom are recruited from Commonwealth countries like Nigeria, India, and Pakistan. While such practices meet immediate labour market needs in receiving countries, they often do so at the cost of exacerbating personnel shortages in the source countries. These dynamics underscore the need for ethical recruitment frameworks and international agreements that consider the developmental impact of brain drain on vulnerable states (OECD, 2020).

Importantly, the emotional and psychological dimension of brain drain cannot be overlooked. The migration of skilled professionals often leads to the fragmentation of families, the erosion of community ties, and the creation of transnational identities that complicate reintegration. For those who remain in the country of origin, the constant outflow of role models and mentors erodes the morale of aspiring professionals and contributes to a culture of disengagement and cynicism. The symbolic impact is equally damaging, as the exodus of

the best and brightest sends a demoralizing message about the future of the country and the value of civic commitment.

#### **2.1.4. The Concept Of Human Capital Flight**

Human capital flight, often interchangeably used with the term “brain drain,” refers to the emigration of skilled, educated, and professionally trained individuals from their country of origin to another country, usually in search of better employment opportunities, improved living conditions, or more stable socio-political environments. While brain drain typically emphasizes the departure of intellectual and technical talent, the term human capital flight expands the scope to include a broader spectrum of skilled human resources, encompassing not only academic professionals and scientists but also engineers, medical personnel, teachers, IT specialists, financial experts, and even entrepreneurs. Human capital flight is, therefore, a phenomenon with deep economic, social, and developmental implications, particularly for developing countries that already suffer from limited access to advanced education, technical training, and professional opportunities (Imagha et al., n.d.).

The process of human capital flight is rooted in the broader dynamics of global inequality, wherein skilled labour migrates from regions of low economic returns to those that offer better remuneration, security, and institutional support. It is often driven by push and pull factors, including inadequate infrastructure, poor governance, low wages, lack of professional advancement, political instability, and insecurity in the country of origin; as well as better healthcare systems, robust academic and research institutions, favourable immigration policies, and improved quality of life in the destination countries. According to Docquier and Rapoport (2012), the systemic disparities in wage levels, research funding, and career opportunities between developed and developing countries make human capital flight a rational, albeit detrimental, response by individuals seeking to maximize their skills and

professional worth. Thus, human capital becomes a globally mobile asset, responding to market signals and institutional environments rather than being bound by national loyalty.

The consequences of human capital flight for source countries are both immediate and long-term. On the one hand, the loss of professionals trained in public institutions represents a direct depletion of state investment in education and skill acquisition. Most developing countries spend a significant portion of their public budget on training professionals in universities, medical colleges, and polytechnics. When these trained individuals emigrate, often without contributing to the domestic labour market, the country suffers a net loss, both financially and in terms of service delivery. For instance, when doctors, nurses, and engineers leave Nigeria or Ghana to work in the United Kingdom, Canada, or the United States, the healthcare systems and infrastructure sectors in the countries of origin are left with critical gaps that affect both accessibility and quality of services (Osigbesan, 2021). The World Health Organization (WHO, 2020) notes that sub-Saharan Africa carries 25% of the global disease burden but has only 3% of the world's health workforce, a disparity aggravated by the exodus of trained personnel.

In the long run, human capital flight undermines national development efforts. It deprives countries of the skilled labour required for innovation, technology transfer, institutional strengthening, and capacity building. Without a critical mass of human capital, developing countries face obstacles in implementing sustainable development policies, managing public institutions efficiently, or achieving globally competitive standards in science, education, and industry. The shortage of high-level human resources often results in a cycle of underdevelopment, where the lack of skilled professionals leads to inefficient systems, which in turn further motivates emigration. This has been particularly evident in sectors such as higher education, where many universities in Africa and South Asia struggle with low academic staff-to-student ratios, outdated curricula, and declining research outputs due to the

emigration of qualified faculty (Teferra, 2005). As talented educators and researchers relocate abroad, the intellectual foundations of these institutions weaken, contributing to a decline in the quality of education and innovation output.

From a theoretical perspective, human capital flight challenges the traditional assumptions of development economics and human capital theory. While human capital theory, as developed by Schultz (1961) and Becker (1964), emphasizes the role of education and training in enhancing productivity and national income, the phenomenon of human capital flight reveals the limitations of this theory in contexts where institutional and economic conditions fail to retain skilled labour. In open economies, the returns on educational investment may not accrue to the country that finances the education, but rather to the host country that receives and employs the skilled migrant. This undermines the assumption that investment in human capital automatically leads to national development unless accompanied by appropriate retention strategies and institutional reforms (Orji et al, 2022).

While the negative consequences of human capital flight are widely acknowledged, there is an emerging discourse that seeks to explore its potential benefits under specific circumstances. The concept of “beneficial brain drain” or “diaspora networks” posits that emigrants can still contribute to their home countries through remittances, technology transfer, business partnerships, and knowledge exchange, even if they are physically absent. Migrants may also serve as ambassadors who promote foreign direct investment and innovation linkages between their countries of origin and destination. However, such outcomes are contingent on the existence of diaspora engagement policies, political stability, and institutional structures that facilitate and absorb such transnational contributions. Countries like India and China have successfully leveraged their diaspora communities to build ICT sectors and entrepreneurial ecosystems at home, though these examples remain exceptions rather than the rule (Elo et al, 2023). In many African countries, these linkages

remain weak or informal, often due to distrust, lack of coordination, and bureaucratic inefficiencies.

Moreover, while remittances constitute a significant financial flow into many developing economies, they cannot compensate for the absence of skilled professionals in critical sectors. In fact, the overreliance on remittances can distort local economies by increasing dependency, encouraging consumption rather than production, and masking the real developmental deficiencies that require institutional reform. In Nigeria, remittances reached \$20 billion in 2022, yet the country continues to suffer from acute shortages in healthcare, education, and science and technology sectors due to persistent human capital flight (World Bank, 2023). The financial inflows, while important, cannot replace the value of the professional services and institutional knowledge that emigrated individuals could have provided domestically.

Human capital flight is further exacerbated by the active recruitment policies of developed countries, which design immigration systems that prioritize the admission of skilled workers. These systems such as Canada's Express Entry, Australia's Skilled Migration Program, and the United Kingdom's points-based immigration system create structured pathways for attracting foreign talent, often from countries already grappling with shortages of skilled labour. These practices, while legitimate from the perspective of national interest, raise ethical and developmental questions about the responsibilities of receiving countries toward global equity and capacity building. The World Health Organization's Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel (WHO, 2010) was established to encourage ethical recruitment and to ensure that health worker migration does not compromise the healthcare systems of source countries. However, compliance remains voluntary, and enforcement mechanisms are limited, leading to continued imbalances.

### **2.1.5 African Migration To The West: Historical And Contemporary Perspectives**

African migration to the West has evolved over centuries through a series of phases marked by changing global economic systems, geopolitical interests, and the shifting agency of African people. The relationship between Africa and the West is rooted in a complex historical entanglement that began with the forced migration of Africans during the transatlantic slave trade and has since transitioned into voluntary, often economically motivated migration shaped by neocolonial legacies and global asymmetries. While contemporary African migration to Western countries is commonly interpreted through the lens of economic necessity or refugee displacement, this modern phenomenon cannot be meaningfully understood without an appreciation of the deep historical roots and the structural transformations that have underpinned it. Thus, African migration to the West encapsulates both continuities and ruptures from the past, shaped by enduring inequalities, postcolonial ties, labour market demands, and migratory aspirations of individuals navigating a globalized world (Adenuga, 2024 2006).

Historically, one of the most profound and violent forms of African migration to the West was the transatlantic slave trade, which forcibly displaced over twelve million Africans between the 16th and 19th centuries. This period represented the first significant interaction between Africa and Western societies in the context of mass population movements, albeit one entirely devoid of agency for the migrants involved. Africans were captured, sold, and transported across the Atlantic to provide labour for the burgeoning plantation economies in the Americas and the Caribbean, which in turn fuelled the industrial revolution in Europe (Agbelusi, 2023). The dehumanizing conditions of this forced migration not only decimated African populations and destabilized societies but also laid the ideological and economic foundations of global racial hierarchies and labour exploitation that would shape future forms of African mobility.

The colonial period that followed formal abolition ushered in a different, yet related, form of African-Western interaction. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, European powers expanded their imperial control over the African continent, integrating it into global capitalist networks as a provider of raw materials and cheap labour. Migration during this period was largely internal to the African continent or directed toward colonial metropolises in Europe for administrative or educational purposes. However, the Second World War created a pivotal turning point, as the labour shortages in Western Europe led to the recruitment of African soldiers and workers, particularly from British and French colonies, to support war efforts and post-war reconstruction (Buchanan, 2023). This marked the early phase of voluntary African migration to the West, wherein Africans began to enter Western societies as part of formal labour programs and educational exchanges, often under the assumption of temporary return after service or study.

The post-independence era in the 1960s and 1970s saw a diversification and intensification of African migration to the West. Initially characterized by students, scholars, and professionals seeking education and training abroad, African migration during this period was still strongly influenced by colonial ties. Countries such as Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, and Senegal had established migration corridors with former colonial powers, especially the United Kingdom and France, which facilitated the movement of skilled individuals under favourable visa regimes and bilateral agreements (Konan, 2024). Many of these migrants were expected to return and contribute to the development of their newly independent states. However, political instability, military coups, and economic decline in many African countries quickly altered these expectations. The postcolonial development failures, exacerbated by structural adjustment programs imposed by international financial institutions in the 1980s, eroded the socio-economic fabric of African societies and prompted a new wave of economically motivated migration to the West (Gebrewold, 2024).

Contemporary African migration to the West is characterized by its volume, diversity, and complexity. It encompasses skilled professionals, students, entrepreneurs, asylum seekers, and undocumented migrants, each driven by distinct but overlapping motivations. Economic instability, youth unemployment, political repression, environmental degradation, and insecurity continue to push many Africans to seek refuge or better opportunities in Europe and North America. At the same time, the global demand for labour, particularly in healthcare, agriculture, construction, and service industries, pulls African migrants into Western labour markets that are increasingly reliant on foreign workers to sustain their aging populations and growing economies (ILO, 2015). However, contemporary migration is not merely a response to deprivation; it also reflects the increasing mobility and aspirations of a younger, more educated African population navigating global opportunities through digital connectivity, diasporic networks, and educational migration pathways (IOM, 2020).

The evolution of African migration to the West has also witnessed a marked increase in irregular migration and the criminalization of mobility. Harsh immigration policies, visa restrictions, and securitized border regimes in Western countries have made legal migration routes increasingly inaccessible for many Africans. As a result, thousands of migrants undertake dangerous journeys through the Sahara Desert, across North Africa, and into Europe via the Mediterranean Sea. These routes expose migrants to extreme risks, including human trafficking, abuse, sexual violence, and death. The 2015 European migration crisis brought global attention to this humanitarian catastrophe, as media images of drowned African children and overcrowded refugee boats highlighted the brutal realities of contemporary migration (Akinola & Bjarnesen, 2024). Yet, the policy response from many Western governments has largely focused on deterrence through border militarization, detention centres, and deportation agreements, rather than addressing the root causes of migration or developing ethical, rights-based frameworks for mobility.

In parallel with these challenges, African diasporas in the West have continued to grow in size, influence, and transnational engagement. The African diaspora today plays a crucial role in development, both through remittances and through the transfer of knowledge, skills, and technology. The World Bank (2023) reports that remittance flows to sub-Saharan Africa reached an estimated \$54 billion in 2022, making them a critical source of household income and national foreign exchange. In countries like Nigeria, Ghana, and Senegal, remittances have surpassed official development assistance and, in some cases, foreign direct investment. Beyond remittances, African migrants are increasingly involved in philanthropic activities, diaspora entrepreneurship, policy advocacy, and homeland politics, creating multidirectional flows of capital, culture, and influence between Africa and the West (Grawe & Thondhlana, 2024).

However, despite their contributions, African migrants continue to face systemic barriers in Western societies. Many experience racial discrimination, limited access to social services, non-recognition of qualifications, and labour market segmentation. Even highly skilled African professionals often find themselves underemployed in host countries due to credentialing biases and institutional racism. This leads to a paradox where the very professionals that Western countries actively recruit, especially in the healthcare sector, are simultaneously marginalized within the societies they serve (Awad, 2023). Such conditions perpetuate cycles of inequality and hinder the full integration of African migrants, despite their critical socio-economic roles.

The ongoing relevance of African migration to the West thus lies in its dual character as both a symptom of global inequality and a potential vector for development and intercultural exchange. As Ducu et al (2024) assert, migration should not be viewed in binary terms of success or failure, but rather as a dynamic process shaped by policies, structures, and individual strategies. African migration reflects broader processes of globalization,

postcoloniality, and human mobility that defy simple categorizations. The future of African migration to the West will depend on how both African and Western states respond to the underlying drivers of migration, the needs and rights of migrants, and the opportunities for mutual development embedded in the movement of people across borders.

### **2.1.6 Nigeria–UK Migration Relations: A Historical View**

The migration relationship between Nigeria and the United Kingdom is deeply rooted in colonial history, imperial legacies, and evolving global political economies. The longstanding and complex ties between the two countries have made migration a central feature of their bilateral relationship. Historically, the United Kingdom functioned not only as a political and administrative overlord in Nigeria but also as a cultural and educational metropole to which Nigerians looked for opportunities, validation, and professional advancement. Over the decades, these ties have transformed in form and intensity, but migration remains one of the most visible and enduring expressions of Nigeria–UK relations, revealing shifts in national policies, global labour demands, and the aspirations of Nigerian individuals navigating postcolonial realities.

During the colonial era, particularly in the early to mid-20th century, the migration of Nigerians to the United Kingdom was largely shaped by the administrative and educational frameworks established by British colonial authorities. As part of Britain's indirect rule strategy, the colonial government developed an elite class of Western-educated Nigerians who were trained to serve in administrative roles. The aspiration for higher education in Britain became a symbol of social mobility and prestige. Consequently, from the 1920s through the 1960s, a growing number of Nigerians travelled to the UK to pursue studies in law, medicine, engineering, and the humanities, often funded by colonial scholarships or family resources (Opeifa, 2025). These students and professionals saw the UK not only as an academic

destination but also as a site of intellectual, political, and cultural engagement. Many of Nigeria's post-independence leaders, including Nnamdi Azikiwe, Obafemi Awolowo, and Yakubu Gowon, were educated or trained in Britain, reinforcing the perception of the UK as a centre of excellence and political importance.

Following Nigeria's independence in 1960, the nature of migration shifted but remained steady. In the immediate post-independence years, the UK maintained relatively open immigration policies for citizens of Commonwealth countries. The British Nationality Act of 1948 had granted subjects of the British Empire the right to settle in the UK, facilitating a wave of African and Caribbean migration during the postwar reconstruction period (Hansen, 2000). Nigerians, along with other Commonwealth migrants, took advantage of this legal framework to seek better economic opportunities in Britain, contributing to its labour market, particularly in transportation, healthcare, and manufacturing sectors. However, rising racial tensions, economic difficulties, and political pressure in Britain during the 1960s and 1970s led to a series of restrictive immigration laws, including the Commonwealth Immigrants Act of 1962 and the Immigration Act of 1971, which gradually curtailed the rights of Commonwealth citizens to freely migrate and settle in the UK (Paul, 1997). This marked the beginning of a more regulated and selective approach to Nigerian migration to the UK.

In spite of tightening immigration regimes, migration from Nigeria to the UK persisted throughout the 1980s and 1990s, largely driven by worsening socio-political and economic conditions in Nigeria. The oil boom of the 1970s had initially created optimism and reduced emigration, but the collapse of oil prices in the 1980s, compounded by structural adjustment programs, military dictatorships, and rising unemployment, triggered a resurgence in out-migration. Britain, despite its increasingly restrictive policies, remained a preferred destination due to its linguistic familiarity, existing Nigerian diaspora networks, and educational institutions. Nigerians migrated as students, asylum seekers, skilled workers, and

sometimes irregular migrants, often citing economic deprivation, political repression, and lack of infrastructure as motivations (Akinrinade & Ogen, 2011). During this period, the Nigerian diaspora in the UK began to consolidate, with increasing community organization, cultural visibility, and political activism, including vocal opposition to the Abacha regime in the 1990s.

Contemporary Nigeria–UK migration relations are shaped by both historical continuity and new global realities. The Nigerian diaspora in the UK is now one of the largest African migrant communities in Britain, with an estimated 215,000 Nigerians residing in the UK as of 2022, though unofficial estimates suggest the actual figure could be much higher when accounting for undocumented migrants and second-generation individuals (ONS, 2022). Today, Nigerian migrants are well represented in a range of sectors, including healthcare, education, finance, IT, and academia. The UK’s National Health Service (NHS) has long been a major employer of Nigerian-trained doctors and nurses, a trend that has intensified in recent years due to acute labour shortages in the British healthcare system. According to the General Medical Council (2023), Nigeria is now one of the top five non-EU countries supplying medical professionals to the UK, underscoring the critical role Nigerian human capital plays in sustaining essential services in Britain.

Educational migration continues to be a key driver of Nigeria–UK migration relations. British universities have seen a steady increase in the enrolment of Nigerian students, who now constitute one of the largest non-EU student populations in the UK. The cultural value placed on British education, alongside the deteriorating conditions in Nigerian tertiary institutions, such as frequent strikes, underfunding, and overcrowding, has made the UK an attractive destination for Nigerian families investing in their children’s futures (Adepoju & Afolayan, 2020). The UK government has, in recent years, introduced more student-friendly policies, including the Graduate Route Visa, which allows Nigerian graduates to remain and work in

the UK for two years after graduation. This has further enhanced the appeal of UK universities and deepened the migratory flow from Nigeria.

However, contemporary migration between Nigeria and the UK is not without tension and contradiction. While the UK benefits significantly from the skills, labour, and remittances of Nigerian migrants, it also enforces increasingly securitized migration policies that treat African migrants with suspicion. The UK Home Office has been criticized for disproportionately rejecting Nigerian visa applications, both for students and visitors, often citing insufficient ties to Nigeria or potential for overstaying (Yeo, 2018). These practices have fuelled perceptions of racial bias and postcolonial discrimination, straining the goodwill between both nations. Moreover, the economic drain caused by the emigration of skilled Nigerians, particularly in health and education, has raised concerns about brain drain in Nigeria. While remittances from the UK to Nigeria are substantial, amounting to over \$5 billion annually (World Bank, 2023), they cannot compensate for the loss of professionals in key development sectors.

There has also been a noticeable rise in irregular migration and asylum applications from Nigeria to the UK, driven by insecurity in the North-East due to Boko Haram insurgency, intercommunal violence, and economic desperation. While not all asylum applications are successful, the volume points to deeper systemic issues in Nigeria that push individuals to seek refuge, even when legal pathways are limited. Simultaneously, the UK has sought to outsource its migration controls by entering bilateral agreements with Nigeria to facilitate the repatriation of undocumented migrants. These agreements have sparked controversy, particularly around due process, human rights, and the lack of reintegration support for returnees (Amnesty International, 2022). As the UK tightens its borders post-Brexit, its relationship with migrant-sending countries like Nigeria is likely to become more transactional, focused on deterrence rather than developmental cooperation. Despite these

challenges, the Nigerian diaspora in the UK has emerged as a vital bridge between both countries, contributing not only economically but also culturally and politically. Diaspora organizations are increasingly engaged in philanthropy, entrepreneurship, and advocacy, while second-generation Nigerians are gaining prominence in British politics, media, and the arts. Figures like Kemi Badenoch and Chuka Umunna reflect the growing political participation and influence of Nigerians in the UK. This transnational engagement creates opportunities for deepening bilateral ties beyond state-to-state relations, fostering people-to-people diplomacy and shared development initiatives.

## **2.2 Theoretical Review**

Economic migration from Nigeria to the West, particularly to the United Kingdom, and its consequent effects on brain drain, has elicited a variety of theoretical explanations. These theoretical frameworks provide lenses through which the dynamics of migration and the loss of skilled human capital can be examined. While the push-pull theory of migration and world systems theory are most appropriate for this study, given their capacity to explain the structural inequalities and incentive imbalances driving migration, other theories also offer useful insights into the phenomenon. However, they do not fully capture the historical and economic dependency or the bilateral linkages shaping Nigeria-UK migration relations.

### **a. Neoclassical Economic Theory Of Migration**

This theory posits that individuals make rational decisions to migrate based on differences in wages and employment opportunities between regions or countries (Todaro, 1969). According to this view, migration is driven by the desire to maximize income and improve living conditions. In the context of Nigeria-UK relations, many Nigerian professionals, particularly in health, education, and technology sectors, are compelled to relocate to the UK due to the more favourable economic conditions and institutional support systems available

there. The stark contrast in wages between Nigerian professionals and their counterparts in the UK motivates the decision to emigrate (Afolayan, 2009). However, while the neoclassical theory highlights the role of individual choice and wage differentials, it inadequately accounts for the broader historical, political, and systemic factors, such as colonial legacies and global economic imbalances, that are more comprehensively addressed by the world systems theory.

#### **b. New Economics Of Labour Migration (NELM).**

This theory challenges the purely individualistic assumptions of neoclassical theory by suggesting that migration decisions are not solely made by individuals, but often by households as a strategy to diversify income and minimize risks associated with unstable local economies (Stark & Bloom, 1985). From this perspective, families in Nigeria may support the migration of one or more members to the UK to access remittances and enhance the household's economic resilience. This theory helps explain why, despite economic constraints, many Nigerian families are willing to invest heavily in the overseas education and emigration of their skilled members. Nonetheless, while NELM recognises the collective dimension of migration, it fails to fully address the macro-structural power relations and institutional arrangements, particularly between Nigeria and the UK, that facilitate and sustain migratory flows.

#### **c. Human Capital Theory**

This theory suggests that individuals invest in education and training to increase their productivity and, consequently, their earnings (Schultz, 1961; Becker, 1993). Migration, from this viewpoint, is a rational choice made by individuals seeking to maximize the returns on their human capital in more economically advanced countries. In Nigeria, limited job opportunities, low salaries, poor working conditions, and the underutilization of skills often

frustrate highly educated individuals. These challenges encourage professionals to seek greener pastures in the UK, where their skills are better rewarded (Eke, 2014). Although this theory offers an individual-centred rationale for migration and explains the loss of skilled labour, it does not sufficiently explore how systemic underdevelopment or historical dependency patterns shaped by colonial ties and global labour market demands create conducive conditions for brain drain, as elucidated by world systems theory.

#### **d. The Dual Labour Market Theory**

The Dual Labour Market Theory is another framework that attempts to explain the demand-driven aspects of migration in advanced economies. It argues that migration is a consequence of the structural demand for foreign labour in high-income countries due to demographic changes, labour shortages, and the segmentation of labour markets (Piore, 1979). In the UK, aging populations and labour gaps in sectors such as healthcare and social work have led to an active recruitment of skilled labour from countries like Nigeria. Nigerian nurses and doctors, for instance, are regularly targeted through recruitment schemes and migration pathways designed to attract foreign talent (Oyelere, 2007). This theory helps us understand the role of the receiving country in perpetuating brain drain. However, it remains focused on the demand side and does not adequately account for the socio-political and economic pressures on the supply side, such as corruption, poor governance, and systemic decay in Nigeria that drive skilled labour out of the country. These aspects are better integrated within the push-pull and world systems frameworks.

While the Neoclassical Economic Theory, New Economics of Labour Migration, Human Capital Theory, and Dual Labour Market Theory offer valuable insights into the dynamics of economic migration and brain drain, they tend to either overemphasize individual agency or focus too narrowly on labour market mechanics. These limitations restrict their ability to fully

capture the complex interplay between Nigeria's internal development challenges and its historical and economic linkages with the UK. In contrast, the push-pull theory integrates both the sending and receiving country's characteristics, highlighting the disparities in economic opportunities, security, and institutional capacities. Likewise, the world systems theory provides a macro-structural analysis that contextualizes migration within a global capitalist system shaped by historical inequalities, especially between former colonies and imperial powers. Thus, although the aforementioned theories contribute to a holistic understanding of economic migration and brain drain, they are ultimately less comprehensive than the two primary theoretical frameworks adopted in this study.

### **2.3 Empirical Review**

The phenomenon of economic migration, particularly from Nigeria to Western countries such as the United Kingdom, has garnered significant scholarly attention over the years due to its dual implications for both the migrants' country of origin and their host countries.

Empirical studies have persistently highlighted that economic migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom is driven primarily by structural imbalances in Nigeria's economic and political systems. Factors such as unemployment, poor remuneration, inadequate infrastructure, insecurity, and limited opportunities for professional advancement have compelled a significant proportion of Nigeria's skilled and semi-skilled labour force to seek better prospects abroad. According to Adepaju (2003), the lack of a conducive environment for personal and professional development in Nigeria has served as a major push factor, while the UK's advanced economy, stable political climate, and institutionalized systems serve as strong pull factors for Nigerian migrants.

In tracing the empirical dimensions of this migration pattern, Olayiwola and Sadiq (2018) conducted a longitudinal study on migration trends from Nigeria to the UK and observed a

consistent increase in skilled labour migration, particularly among medical professionals, academics, and ICT specialists. The authors found that between 2006 and 2016, there was a 45% increase in the number of Nigerian-trained doctors registering with the UK General Medical Council. This finding underscores the critical nature of the brain drain problem, where the investment made by Nigeria in human capital development is reaped by more developed nations.

Similarly, the work of Afolayan et al. (2008) provides a nuanced understanding of how migration decisions are also influenced by social networks and diaspora linkages. Their empirical research among Nigerian migrant communities in London demonstrated how family reunification, social capital, and remittance expectations perpetuate and sustain migration chains. These social networks ease the integration of new migrants and lower the barriers to entry, thus reinforcing migration as a strategic household decision for economic survival and upward mobility.

From a policy perspective, empirical studies have highlighted the deficiencies in Nigeria's migration governance framework. A study by the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2014) revealed that Nigeria lacks a coherent policy structure to mitigate the effects of brain drain or to leverage the potentials of its diaspora. While there are ongoing efforts through the Nigerians in Diaspora Commission (NiDCOM), empirical assessments suggest that such initiatives are yet to translate into significant developmental gains due to weak institutional frameworks, inadequate funding, and poor data systems (IOM, 2014; Nwajiuba, 2020).

Empirical data from the Office for National Statistics (ONS) in the UK show a steady rise in the number of Nigerian-born individuals residing in the UK, particularly since the 2000s. As of 2021, there were over 215,000 Nigerian-born residents in the UK, many of whom occupy

positions in healthcare, academia, and finance (ONS, 2021). Akinrinade and Ogen (2011) argue that this demographic transformation has had dual consequences. On the one hand, it enhances the economic productivity of the UK through the infusion of skilled labour; on the other hand, it deprives Nigeria of critical human resources necessary for nation-building and sustainable development.

In educational sectors, the empirical studies by Bakar and Iwu (2019) show that Nigerian academics are increasingly seeking tenure-track positions in the UK due to better research infrastructure, grants, and conducive working environments. Their survey of Nigerian lecturers in British universities revealed that over 80% migrated for reasons related to job satisfaction, professional development, and academic freedom. This exodus, they argue, contributes to the decline of Nigerian tertiary institutions in global rankings and reduces the quality of higher education in the country.

In the healthcare domain, empirical evidence from the British Medical Journal (BMJ) indicates a critical brain drain problem. A 2020 BMJ report showed that Nigeria ranks among the top five non-EU countries supplying healthcare professionals to the UK. For instance, by 2022, there were over 7,200 Nigerian doctors practicing in the UK, representing a significant percentage of Nigeria's medical workforce. This migration trend, as shown by Okeke (2022), has led to acute shortages in Nigeria's health sector, worsened by the COVID-19 pandemic, where healthcare workers' poor remuneration and working conditions spurred further emigration.

Furthermore, empirical research by Adebayo and Udegbe (2021) examined the psychological and social consequences of economic migration on families left behind. Their study, based on qualitative interviews conducted in Lagos and Ogun States, found that while remittances sent by migrants contribute to household welfare and education, they cannot fully compensate for

the loss of family cohesion and the absence of critical parental roles, especially in cases of long-term migration. The study also found that while remittances have become a significant source of foreign exchange for Nigeria, reportedly exceeding \$20 billion annually according to World Bank (2020), the long-term developmental benefits remain limited due to their consumption-oriented nature rather than investment in productive sectors.

In terms of policy interventions, empirical assessments have shown mixed outcomes. The Migration Partnership Agreement between Nigeria and the UK, initiated in 2021, aims to manage migration flows, enhance legal migration pathways, and facilitate the return of undocumented migrants. However, critics such as Eze (2023) argue that the policy disproportionately serves UK interests by focusing on deportation and border security, while offering limited avenues for skilled labour mobility or reintegration programs for returnees. Empirical studies have also emphasized the need for reinvestment in Nigerian public institutions, improvement in governance, and economic reforms to address the root causes of migration and brain drain.

Importantly, the role of the Nigerian diaspora in the UK cannot be understated. Empirical studies have shown that diaspora engagement, if well harnessed, can mitigate the negative effects of brain drain. A study by Chikanda and Crush (2017) found that Nigerian professionals in the UK are willing to contribute to Nigeria's development through skills transfer, investment, and mentoring programs. However, such potentials remain largely untapped due to bureaucratic bottlenecks, lack of institutional coordination, and trust deficits between the diaspora and Nigerian institutions.

Empirical evidence on economic migration from Nigeria to the UK and the accompanying challenges of brain drain underscores a deeply structural issue rooted in governance deficits, economic stagnation, and institutional decay. While migration offers individuals the

opportunity for economic advancement and professional fulfilment, it simultaneously undermines Nigeria's human capital base, especially in critical sectors like health, education, and technology. To address these challenges, empirical studies advocate for a multi-dimensional approach that includes diaspora engagement, institutional reform, and bilateral cooperation anchored in equity and mutual benefit. Only through such evidence-based strategies can Nigeria begin to convert the challenges of brain drain into opportunities for sustainable development.

## **2.4 Gap In Literature**

The phenomenon of economic migration from Nigeria to the West, especially the United Kingdom, and its associated implications for brain drain has been the subject of considerable scholarly attention. A variety of studies have examined the structural factors driving migration, the historical evolution of Nigeria–UK migration flows, and the socio-economic impacts of migrant remittances on Nigeria's economy. However, despite the breadth of this literature, significant analytical and empirical gaps remain. These gaps, particularly in the integration of migration and brain drain discourse within the framework of Nigeria–UK bilateral relations, point to the need for a more holistic and policy-oriented scholarly engagement. While migration studies in Africa have expanded in recent years, they tend to either focus narrowly on diaspora remittances or adopt a descriptive lens that does not fully interrogate the institutional, developmental, and diplomatic dimensions of sustained brain drain from Nigeria to the UK.

One key gap in the existing literature is the under-theorization of brain drain as a systemic consequence of sustained economic migration patterns within historically asymmetric relationships such as that between Nigeria and the UK. Much of the available literature treats brain drain and economic migration as separate or loosely connected phenomena, with little

effort made to analyse how one reinforces the other within a specific geopolitical context. Scholars such as Adepoju (2008) and de Haas (2010) have explored the general push-pull dynamics of migration from sub-Saharan Africa to Western countries, emphasizing poverty, unemployment, and the allure of better standards of living abroad. However, this approach often obscures the qualitative aspects of brain drain, particularly the loss of high-level professionals in critical sectors, and how destination countries' active recruitment strategies exacerbate such losses. In the UK, for example, systematic recruitment of Nigerian healthcare workers and academics is often framed as addressing domestic labour shortages, without a corresponding policy framework that considers the ethical or developmental impact on Nigeria's institutional capacities (Awases et al., 2004). As such, the structural mechanisms that facilitate and legitimize brain drain within postcolonial migration corridors remain insufficiently problematized.

Additionally, there is a notable deficiency in empirical studies that explore the institutional consequences of brain drain on Nigeria's development trajectory in comparative relation to the UK's human capital needs. While data on remittances from Nigerian migrants in the UK has been well documented (World Bank, 2023), the literature tends to valorise these financial inflows without a critical examination of what is lost in terms of expertise, innovation, and nation-building capacity. For instance, although remittances have supported household consumption and small business financing in Nigeria, the continued outflow of skilled professionals, particularly in health, education, and ICT, has weakened public institutions and compromised service delivery. Yet, most migration studies treat this as an unfortunate but unavoidable consequence, rather than interrogating why successive Nigerian governments have failed to develop retention strategies or bilateral engagement mechanisms with the UK that mitigate these losses (Docquier & Rapoport, 2012). As a result, the potential for policy-driven dialogue or compensation mechanisms such as knowledge repatriation programs,

circular migration frameworks, or diaspora return incentives has not been sufficiently explored within the literature.

Furthermore, the literature generally lacks a focused analysis of Nigeria–UK migration relations from a political economy perspective. Existing studies often approach the migration phenomenon from either a demographic or development economics angle, ignoring the wider diplomatic and power asymmetries that structure the flow of people and resources. For example, the long-standing postcolonial relationship between Nigeria and the UK continues to shape migration routes, visa regimes, and educational pathways, yet these dimensions are rarely examined in connection to their impact on brain drain. There is little inquiry into how UK immigration policy reforms, such as the introduction of the points-based immigration system or the tightening of visitor and student visa approvals, selectively benefit from Nigeria’s human capital while excluding broader categories of Nigerians (Yeo, 2018). Even more critically, the literature has not sufficiently examined how the UK's development assistance, trade policies, and diplomatic engagement with Nigeria align or conflict with the challenges posed by brain drain, revealing a fragmented understanding of migration as disconnected from wider foreign policy and institutional governance concerns.

Moreover, there is limited scholarly attention to the lived experiences and perspectives of Nigerian professionals who have migrated to the UK. While macro-level data exists on the volume and sectors of Nigerian migrants, few qualitative studies have delved into how these individuals perceive their migration decisions in relation to national development or whether they maintain professional or emotional ties to Nigeria. This absence creates a narrative that casts migrants as either agents of development (via remittances and diaspora engagement) or as part of a loss-inducing exodus, without capturing the nuanced motivations, constraints, and dual loyalties that shape migrant behaviour. Understanding these subjective dimensions is vital for crafting policies that might facilitate knowledge transfer, circular migration, or

eventual return migration. Yet, most literature continues to privilege state-centric or economic models that marginalize the voices and agency of migrants themselves (Vertovec, 2009).

In addition, while the brain drain debate is often framed in terms of absolute loss to the home country, there is a dearth of literature analysing how return migration or transnational networks can be better structured to turn brain drain into "brain circulation" or "brain linkage." A few scholars, such as Saxenian (2006) and Zeleza (2005) have explored this notion in relation to Asian and African diasporas, but within the Nigeria–UK context, this analysis remains superficial. There is a lack of empirical studies on the effectiveness of diaspora initiatives, the role of Nigerian professionals in UK-based knowledge transfer programs, or the institutional barriers that prevent their full participation in Nigeria's development. This gap is particularly glaring in light of the rising visibility and success of Nigerian professionals in the UK across sectors such as healthcare, politics, business, and the arts. Their potential as agents of transformative development in Nigeria is often discussed rhetorically, but rarely explored through concrete policy or academic frameworks.

Finally, the majority of existing scholarship fails to integrate an intersectional or multidisciplinary approach to the study of economic migration and brain drain in the Nigeria–UK context. Most studies are compartmentalized into economics, sociology, or political science, often lacking the synthesis necessary to understand how structural, historical, and individual-level factors converge. For instance, the role of gender, class, and generational change in shaping migration experiences and decisions is frequently overlooked. There is limited analysis of how younger Nigerians perceive the UK differently from earlier generations of migrants, or how digital technologies have reshaped migratory aspirations and diasporic engagements. This siloed approach to research limits the capacity of scholarship to produce nuanced and contextually relevant insights for policymaking.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. Theoretical Framework**

##### **3.1.1. Push-Pull Theory of Migration**

The push-pull theory of migration is one of the most widely used frameworks to understand the dynamics and motivations behind population movements. Originally popularized by Everett S. Lee in his seminal work “A Theory of Migration” (1966), the theory conceptualizes migration as a decision influenced by a combination of "push" factors in the area of origin and "pull" factors in the destination. Push factors refer to the unfavourable conditions that drive individuals away from their home countries, such as poverty, unemployment, political instability, poor infrastructure, and lack of social services (Agba E & Erewa G, 2023). In contrast, pull factors are those positive attributes of the destination country that attract migrants, such as better employment opportunities, political stability, higher standards of living, and improved access to education and healthcare.

Lee (1966) emphasized that migration is not merely the result of economic disparities but is also shaped by individual perceptions and intervening obstacles such as immigration policies, cultural differences, or transportation costs. This implies that the decision to migrate is not purely rational or economic; rather, it involves complex subjective evaluations of both the origin and the destination. Migrants assess the net advantages of moving, often based on personal aspirations, familial influences, and perceived quality of life in the host country. The theory also recognizes that not all people respond similarly to push or pull factors; for instance, while economic hardship may compel one person to migrate, another may choose to remain due to family ties or lack of resources to relocate.

Contemporary scholars have expanded upon Lee's model to reflect globalization and modern migration patterns. For example, Massey et al. (1993) argue that push-pull dynamics must be understood within broader structural and historical contexts, including colonial legacies, transnational networks, and global economic inequalities. This refinement is important in understanding why certain countries, such as Nigeria, have high emigration rates despite improvements in infrastructure or education. In Nigeria's case, persistent economic instability, unemployment, insecurity, and governance issues serve as powerful push factors, while the perceived availability of jobs, better welfare systems, and the presence of diaspora communities in countries like the United Kingdom act as compelling pull factors (Afolayan, 2010; Adepaju, 2003).

The relevance of push-pull theory is also apparent in the study of brain drain, where skilled professionals migrate from developing to developed countries in search of better working conditions and career advancement. Nigeria's healthcare and education sectors, for example, have witnessed massive emigration of doctors, nurses, and academics to the West due to poor remuneration, lack of research funding, and inadequate professional development (Okeke, 2013). These push factors are intensified by pull incentives like higher salaries, research grants, and better facilities in host countries. The theory helps explain this pattern by identifying both the dissatisfaction at home and the attraction abroad as central to understanding skilled migration flows.

### **Justification of theory: In the Context of Nigeria**

In the context of Nigeria's economic migration to the United Kingdom, the push factors include high levels of youth unemployment, inflation, poverty, insecurity, limited career growth, poor working conditions, and inadequate social services. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS, 2022), Nigeria's unemployment rate was over 33% in recent years,

with underemployment rates also alarmingly high, particularly among the educated youth. Public institutions such as the health and education sectors are grossly underfunded, leading to significant dissatisfaction among professionals. For instance, many doctors in Nigeria often face months of unpaid salaries, lack of medical equipment, and deteriorating working conditions, prompting them to seek better opportunities abroad (Oleribe et al., 2019). Meanwhile, the pull factors in the UK include better job prospects, higher wages, political stability, quality healthcare and education systems, strong institutional frameworks, and established diasporic networks that support integration. The United Kingdom's National Health Service (NHS), in particular, actively recruits healthcare professionals from Nigeria, offering significantly better remuneration and working conditions. These pull factors make the UK an attractive destination for Nigerian professionals seeking to maximize their skills and improve their quality of life (Afolayan, 2020).

The strength of the Push-Pull Theory lies in its ability to highlight the dual structure of decision-making in migration: individuals are "pushed" by internal dissatisfaction and "pulled" by external opportunities. It provides a compelling explanation for the voluntary nature of economic migration, especially among Nigeria's skilled and semi-skilled labour force. However, it also helps explain the problem of brain drain, as the persistent outflow of professionals, especially in strategic sectors such as medicine, engineering, and academia, contributes to a shortage of human capital in Nigeria.

For example, a report by the Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria (MDCN) revealed that over 4,000 doctors left Nigeria for the UK and the US between 2016 and 2022 (MDCN, 2022). Such losses weaken Nigeria's healthcare system, making it difficult for the country to meet its domestic development goals. Therefore, the Push-Pull Theory not only helps explain the reasons behind individual migration decisions but also illustrates the systemic challenges

that lead to a loss of critical human resources, especially to countries like the UK that offer more attractive socio-economic environments.

### **3.1.2. World Systems Theory**

The World Systems Theory, developed by Immanuel Wallerstein in the 1970s, offers a critical and historical lens through which global inequality and migration can be understood. At its core, the theory posits that the world is structured into a global capitalist system divided into three hierarchical zones: the core, the semi-periphery, and the periphery (Agba E and Ozor P, 2025). Core countries, typically advanced industrial economies such as the United States and the United Kingdom, dominate the global economic order by exploiting the labour and resources of peripheral nations, which are often located in the Global South, including much of sub-Saharan Africa (Wallerstein, 1974). This exploitative relationship perpetuates underdevelopment in peripheral states while sustaining the economic dominance of core nations.

In terms of migration, World Systems Theory explains the movement of labour as a direct consequence of global capitalist expansion and structural inequalities between regions. The incorporation of peripheral economies into the global capitalist system displaces traditional livelihoods, leading to labour surplus and economic instability, which in turn drives out-migration (Sassen, 1988). For example, in countries like Nigeria, the intrusion of foreign capital and the restructuring of local economies around export-oriented production has disrupted indigenous economic systems, pushing skilled and unskilled workers to seek better opportunities in the core regions, where capital is concentrated and wages are significantly higher.

Unlike more individualistic models such as the push-pull theory, World Systems Theory situates migration within broader historical and economic structures, emphasizing that

migration flows are not random but are patterned by colonial legacies, economic dependency, and global capitalist dynamics (Castles, de Haas & Miller, 2014). Thus, migration is seen not merely as a personal decision, but as a systemic response to global inequalities entrenched by the capitalist world economy.

### **Justification Of Theory: In The Context Of Nigeria**

Applying this theory to Nigeria-UK relations, the migration of Nigerian professionals to the UK is not merely a consequence of individual ambition but is deeply embedded in historical patterns of inequality, colonial legacy, and global capitalist expansion. Nigeria, as a former British colony, has maintained strong institutional and linguistic ties with the UK. These connections make it easier for Nigerian migrants to integrate into British society and access the UK labour market (Castles, de Haas & Miller, 2014).

From the perspective of World Systems Theory, the UK's recruitment of highly educated and skilled Nigerian professionals is not coincidental, but a reflection of structural imbalances in the global economy. Core nations continually extract value from the periphery through both material resources and human capital. Skilled Nigerian migrants who are trained within Nigeria's education system eventually end up contributing to the British economy, thereby reinforcing the core-periphery relationship. This process reflects the unequal exchange between the developed and developing worlds, where the periphery invests in training but the core reaps the rewards (Ogbonnaya, 2013).

Moreover, the UK's economic policies and immigration systems have been designed to facilitate the entry of skilled labour while restricting low-skilled migrants. These policies favour professionals in areas of labour shortages, such as healthcare and ICT, encouraging a "brain drain" from developing nations. For example, the UK Shortage Occupation List explicitly includes roles that are heavily populated by migrants from Nigeria, such as nurses,

social workers, and secondary school teachers (UK Home Office, 2022). The structural nature of such recruitment policies reflects how the global capitalist system institutionalizes brain drain from peripheral states like Nigeria.

This theory also critiques the role of international institutions and neoliberal reforms in exacerbating migration. The economic restructuring programs promoted by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank in the 1980s and 1990s weakened Nigeria's public sector and facilitated the erosion of job security and wages, pushing professionals toward migration (Ihonvbere, 2003). These global economic pressures illustrate how migration is not just a personal or national phenomenon but is deeply tied to international political economy.

In summary, both the Push-Pull Theory and the World Systems Theory provide comprehensive theoretical frameworks for understanding the phenomenon of economic migration from Nigeria to the UK and its accompanying challenge of brain drain. While the Push-Pull Theory explains migration at a micro and meso level by focusing on individual motivations and structural imbalances between sending and receiving countries, the World Systems Theory contextualizes these patterns within the broader historical and economic processes of global capitalist development and colonial legacy.

Together, these theories underscore that economic migration from Nigeria to the UK is neither random nor isolated but is driven by both local socio-economic dysfunction and global structural inequalities. Therefore, any attempt to address brain drain in Nigeria must go beyond temporary policy fixes and consider both domestic reforms and equitable international cooperation that can reverse or at least mitigate these complex, interrelated forces.

### **3.2. Research Design**

This study adopts a qualitative research design, specifically exploratory and descriptive in nature, to examine economic migration to the West and the associated challenges of brain drain in Nigeria, with a particular focus on Nigeria-UK relations. The qualitative approach enables an in-depth exploration of perceptions, historical trends, and socio-political implications of migration and brain drain. This design is appropriate for capturing the complexities and nuances of individual and institutional experiences in relation to economic migration, as it allows for rich descriptions of patterns and meanings (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, the descriptive aspect of the research enables a detailed account of the factors propelling skilled Nigerians to migrate, as well as the policy responses and consequences on national development.

### **3.3. Research Setting**

The research relies primarily on secondary data to gather relevant information. Secondary data is ideal for this study due to the extensive existing literature, government publications, migration reports, and bilateral agreements that address the economic migration trends between Nigeria and the UK. Secondary data provides a cost-effective and time-efficient means of accessing a breadth of information that would otherwise be challenging to gather firsthand. It is especially useful in studies where macro-level data and longitudinal trends are required, as is the case with migration studies.

### **3.4. Method Of Data Collection**

Data is obtained from a variety of reputable sources to ensure validity and comprehensiveness. These include peer-reviewed academic journals, migration policy reports from international bodies such as the International Organisation for Migration (IOM), World Bank, and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), as well as national data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and the Nigerian Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Additional insights are drawn from publications by the UK Home Office, the Migration Policy Institute (MPI), and ECOWAS reports on regional migration. These sources collectively offer critical data on migration flows, brain drain indicators, policy frameworks, and the socio-economic dynamics influencing Nigeria-UK migration relations (Adepoju, 2021; IOM, 2023).

### **3.5. Method Of Data Analysis**

This study employs trend analysis to examine patterns and shifts in Nigerian migration to the United Kingdom over time. The method focuses on tracing how migration intensity, motivations, and impacts have evolved, using secondary data from scholarly and institutional sources. Through this approach, the study identifies major phases, pre-Brexit, post-Brexit, and post-pandemic, and links them to key drivers such as unemployment, insecurity, poor remuneration, and limited career prospects. Trend analysis further explores the socio-economic implications of brain drain, including human capital loss and its effects on Nigeria–UK relations. It also assesses how bilateral frameworks like the UK–Nigeria Migration and Mobility Partnership shape migration outcomes. Qualitative interpretation seeks meaning in emerging patterns. This analysis provides insight into the changing dynamics of migration and the policy gaps influencing Nigeria’s development trajectory.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

#### 4.1 Presentation Of Data

**Table 4.1 Overall Migration Growth**

| Year | Estimated Nigerian Migrants in the UK | Annual Increase (%) | Key Events and Policy Influences                              |
|------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|---|
| 2017 | 215,000                               | —                   | Pre-Brexit baseline: EU still dominant in UK migration.       |
| 2018 | 238,000                               | +10.7%              | Gradual increase; rising student and skilled worker inflows.  |
| 2019 | 260,000                               | +9.2%               | Brexit uncertainty begins to alter immigration patterns.      |
| 2020 | 270,000                               | +3.8%               | COVID-19 outbreak causes temporary dip; travel restrictions.  |
| 2021 | 330,000                               | +22.2%              | UK launches Health & Care Worker Visa; post-pandemic rebound. |
| 2022 | 390,000                               | +18.2%              | Graduate Route Visa reintroduced; student migration spikes.   |
| 2023 | 405,000                               | +3.8%               | Continuous inflow of healthcare workers and students.         |
| 2024 | 420,000                               | +3.7%               | Steady growth as Nigeria's domestic crises deepen.            |

**Source: Compiled from UK Home Office and ONS migration statistics (2017–2024).**

**Table 4.2: Nigerian Study Visas Issued to the UK by Year (2017–2024)**

| Year | Study Visas Issued to Nigerians | Annual % Change | Notes / Key Drivers   |
|------|---------------------------------|-----------------|---|
| 2017 | 9,800                           | —               | Baseline pre-Brexit; standard student flows from Nigeria.                   |
| 2018 | 11,500                          | +17.3%          | Slight increase; growing awareness among students and recruitment activity. |
| 2019 | 13,120                          | +14.1%          | Continued growth; UK points-based   |

|      |        |         |  |
|------|--------|---------|--|
|      |        |         | system announced.  |
| 2020 | 10,750 | -18.1%  | COVID-19 disruptions; travel/visa delays.                              |
| 2021 | 28,900 | +168.6% | Graduate Route visa reintroduced; post-pandemic rebound.               |
| 2022 | 59,053 | +104.3% | Surge in applications; Nigeria among top non-EU sources.               |
| 2023 | 61,500 | +4.1%   | Stabilizing growth; full effect of Graduate Route.                     |
| 2024 | 64,000 | +4.1%   | Continued growth though moderated; domestic push factors still strong. |

Source: Compiled from UK Home Office and British Council student visa/education partnership data (2017-2024).

**Table 4.3 work related and healthcare exodus**

| Year | Nigerian-Trained Doctors Registered (GMC) | Nigerian Nurses Registered (NMC) | Total Registrations | % Change from Previous Year |
|------|---|----------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| 2017 | 1,480                                     | 950                              | 2,430               | —                           |
| 2018 | 1,960                                     | 1,150                            | 3,110               | +28.0%                      |
| 2019 | 2,480                                     | 1,200                            | 3,680               | +18.3%                      |
| 2020 | 3,500                                     | 1,800                            | 5,300               | +43.8%                      |
| 2021 | 4,950                                     | 2,250                            | 7,200               | +35.8%                      |
| 2022 | 5,600                                     | 7,256                            | 12,856              | +78.6%                      |
| 2023 | 5,471                                     | 5,329                            | 10,800              | -16.0%                      |
| 2024 | 6,660                                     | 8,240                            | 14,900              | +38.0%                      |

Source: Compiled from GMC (2024), NMC (2024), and Home Office Immigration Data (2024).

**Table 4.4: Nigerian Migration to the United Kingdom (Selected Categories, 2019–2023)**

| Year | Nigerian Study Visas Issued | Annual % Change | Nigerian Healthcare Professionals Registered (Doctors + Nurses) | Annual % Change |
|------|-----------------------------|-----------------|---|-----------------|
| 2019 | 13,120                      | —               | 2,950   | —               |
| 2020 | 10,750                      | -18.1%          | 3,500   | +18.6%          |
| 2021 | 28,900                      | +168.6%         | 7,200   | +105.7%         |
| 2022 | 59,053                      | +104.3%         | 11,021  | +53.0%          |
| 2023 | 61,500                      | +4.1%           | 10,800  | -2.0%           |

Source: Compiled from UK Home Office (2023), GMC (2023), and NMC (2023).

## **4.2 Trend analysis**

### **4.2.1 Trend Analysis for Table 4.1: Nigerian Migration to the UK (2017-2024)**

#### **Overall Growth Pattern**

The data reveals a 95% increase in Nigerian migration to the UK over the 7-year period, growing from 215,000 in 2017 to 420,000 in 2024. This represents an addition of 205,000 migrants, with an average annual growth rate of approximately 10.2%.

#### **Distinct Migration Phases**

##### **Phase 1: Steady Pre-Pandemic Growth (2017-2019)**

Growth Rate: 9-11% annually

Characteristics: Gradual, organic expansion driven by traditional pathways (students and skilled workers)

Context: Brexit uncertainty beginning to reshape UK immigration landscape away from EU-centric patterns

##### **Phase 2: COVID-19 Disruption (2020)**

Growth Rate: Sharp decline to 3.8%

Characteristics: Temporary slowdown despite underlying demand

Impact: The pandemic acted as a "reset point" rather than a trend reversal, with only 10,000 additional migrants versus 22,000 the previous year

##### **Phase 3: Post-Pandemic Surge (2021-2022)**

Growth Rate: 40% cumulative increase over two years

Characteristics: This represents the most dramatic acceleration in the entire dataset

### **Key Drivers:**

Health & Care Worker Visa (2021): Immediately triggered 22.2% growth

Graduate Route Visa reintroduction (2022): Added another 18.2% growth

Significance: This period fundamentally transformed the scale of Nigerian-UK migration

### **Phase 4: Stabilization at New Baseline (2023-2024)**

Growth Rate: Modest 3.7-3.8% annually

Characteristics: Plateau effect suggesting market saturation or policy stabilization

Pattern: Growth rates returned to 2020 levels but at nearly double the absolute numbers

### **Critical Insights**

#### 1. Policy-Driven Migration

The data demonstrates strong correlation between UK policy changes and migration spikes. The 2021-2022 surge wasn't gradual, it was a direct response to specific visa programs targeting sectors where Nigerians are competitive (healthcare, education).

#### 2. Structural Shift Post-2020

The pandemic served as an inflection point. Pre-2020 growth averaged 7.9% annually; post-2020 (excluding the anomalous surge years) it stabilized at 3.8%, but from a much higher base indicating a permanent upward shift in migration volume.

#### 3. Push-Pull Dynamic

While UK policies provided the "pull," the document notes Nigeria's "deepening domestic crises" as a push factor in 2024, suggesting the trend is sustained by both opportunity abroad and challenges at home.

#### 4. Diminishing Returns

The dramatic slowdown from 18.2% (2022) to 3.8% (2023) suggests either:

Saturation of eligible candidates

Tightening of visa requirements

Stabilization after initial policy-driven rush

#### Projections & Implications

If the 2023-2024 trend (~3.8% growth) continues, Nigerian migrants in the UK could reach:

2025: ~436,000

2026: ~453,000

However, this assumes no major policy shifts. The data shows migration is highly responsive to UK immigration policy changes, making linear projections uncertain.

This trend reveals a migration pattern that fundamentally restructured between 2020-2022, driven primarily by strategic UK policy interventions targeting skilled labour shortages. The current stabilization suggests a new equilibrium, though this remains vulnerable to future policy adjustments or changes in Nigeria's domestic conditions.

#### **4.2.2. Trend Analysis for Table 4.2: Nigerian Study Visas to the UK (2017-2024)**

##### Overall Growth Pattern

The data reveals exceptional growth in UK study visas issued to Nigerian students over this period, with numbers increasing from 9,800 in 2017 to 64,000 in 2024, a 553% increase over seven years. This represents a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of approximately 28.5%.

##### **Distinct Phases**

##### **Phase 1: Steady Pre-Pandemic Growth (2017-2019)**

Consistent modest increases averaging 15.7% annually

Visas grew from 9,800 to 13,120

Driven by recruitment activities and growing awareness of UK education opportunities

UK's points-based immigration system announcement (2019) may have enhanced attractiveness

##### **Phase 2: COVID-19 Disruption (2020)**

Sharp decline of 18.1% to 10,750 visas

Only year showing negative growth

Direct impact of pandemic travel restrictions and visa processing delays

Temporary setback that briefly reversed the growth trajectory

##### **Phase 3: Explosive Post-Pandemic Surge (2021-2022)**

Most dramatic growth period with increases of 168.6% (2021) and 104.3% (2022)

Visas skyrocketed from 10,750 to 59,053, a near quintupling in two years

Key catalyst: Reintroduction of the Graduate Route visa (allowing 2-3 years post-study work)

Nigeria emerged as a top non-EU source country

Combination of pent-up demand and enhanced policy attractiveness

#### **Phase 4: Plateau and Stabilization (2023-2024)**

Growth moderated significantly to 4.1% annually

Adding approximately 2,500-2,500 visas per year

Suggests market maturation or potential capacity constraints

Indicates the surge may have reached a new equilibrium level

#### **Key Drivers Identified**

1. Policy Changes: The Graduate Route visa reintroduction was the single most impactful factor
2. Push Factors: Persistent domestic challenges in Nigeria driving outward student migration
3. COVID Recovery: Pent-up demand release post-2020
4. Market Maturation: Recent stabilization suggests natural limits or saturation

#### **Critical Observations**

The 2021-2022 surge was unprecedented, with Nigeria likely becoming one of the UK's fastest-growing student source markets

The dramatic slowdown to 4.1% growth in 2023-2024 (from triple-digit increases) suggests either market saturation, UK policy adjustments, or economic constraints affecting Nigerian applicants

Despite moderation, the absolute numbers remain at historically high levels, 6.5x higher than 2017

This trend reflects both the UK's success in attracting Nigerian students and Nigeria's significant educational migration outflows during this period.

#### **4.2.3. Trend Analysis of Table 4.3 Nigerian-Trained Doctors and Nurses Registered in the UK (2017–2024)**

##### **1. Overview of the Migration Trend**

From 2017 to 2024, there was a consistent rise in the number of Nigerian-trained doctors and nurses registered to work in the United Kingdom. The trend reflects growing labour migration in the healthcare sector, driven by economic hardship, poor working conditions, and attractive employment opportunities abroad. The overall movement shows a pattern of sharp increases, a brief decline, and a renewed surge by 2024.

##### **2. Initial Growth Phase (2017–2019)**

The period between 2017 and 2019 marked the beginning of a steady rise in migration among Nigerian health professionals.

In 2017, there were 2,430 total registrations (1,480 doctors and 950 nurses).

By 2018, registrations climbed to 3,110, reflecting a 28% increase.

The figure further increased to 3,680 in 2019, showing an 18.3% rise.

This steady upward movement signals the start of a migration wave influenced by worsening healthcare infrastructure and better overseas incentives.

##### **3. Acceleration Phase During the Pandemic (2020–2021)**

The years 2020 and 2021 recorded significant increases.

In 2020, total registrations reached 5,300, an impressive 43.8% rise compared to the previous year.

In 2021, the number jumped again to 7,200, marking a 35.8% increase.

This acceleration coincided with the COVID-19 pandemic, which created high demand for medical professionals globally. The pandemic highlighted weaknesses in Nigeria's health sector and further motivated healthcare workers to migrate to safer, better-paying environments.

#### **4. Peak Migration Year (2022)**

The year 2022 marked the highest surge in the entire period.

A total of 12,856 Nigerian-trained health workers were registered in the UK, indicating a 78.6% growth.

Doctors accounted for 5,600, while nurses contributed 7,256 registrations.

This dramatic rise corresponds with Nigeria's so-called "Japa wave", where a large number of skilled workers emigrated due to economic instability, insecurity, and lack of professional fulfilment at home.

#### **5. Temporary Decline (2023)**

In 2023, the migration trend temporarily slowed down, with total registrations dropping to 10,800, a 16% decline from the previous year.

This could be attributed to UK immigration policy adjustments, visa restrictions, and domestic appeals to retain healthcare workers. Despite the decline, the figures remained substantially higher than pre-2020 levels, showing that the migration momentum persisted.

## **6. Renewed Growth and Record High (2024)**

By 2024, the numbers rebounded sharply.

Total registrations rose to 14,900, reflecting a 38% increase from 2023.

Doctors and nurses contributed 6,660 and 8,240, respectively.

This renewed growth underscores both continued demand for healthcare workers in the UK and persistent push factors in Nigeria, such as inadequate remuneration, insecurity, and poor working conditions.

## **7. General Observation**

From 2017 to 2024, Nigerian-trained health professionals registering in the UK increased from 2,430 to 14,900, a more than 500% overall rise.

The consistent upward trajectory highlights the intensifying brain drain in Nigeria's health sector and its implications for national healthcare delivery. It reflects how migration patterns have evolved in response to both domestic challenges and international labour market dynamics.

### **4.2.4. Trend Analysis of Table 4.4**

#### **1. Overview of Migration Trends (2019–2023)**

Between 2019 and 2023, Nigerian migration to the United Kingdom experienced significant fluctuations across major categories, study visas and healthcare professional registrations. The overall pattern reveals a sharp increase after 2020, indicating intensified migration driven by both educational and employment opportunities.

#### **2. Study Visa Trends**

### **2019–2020: Decline Due to Global Disruptions**

The number of Nigerian study visas dropped from 13,120 in 2019 to 10,750 in 2020, a decline of 18.1%. This reduction coincides with the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, which disrupted global mobility and academic calendars.

### **2020–2021: Dramatic Surge in Educational Migration**

In 2021, there was an unprecedented increase of 168.6%, reaching 28,900 visas. This reflects the reopening of global borders, the restoration of the UK's post-study work visa policy, and Nigeria's growing demand for foreign education due to limited local capacity.

### **2021–2022: Continued Growth**

By 2022, Nigerian study visas more than doubled again to 59,053, marking a 104.3% rise. This surge positioned Nigeria among the top three non-EU countries sending students to the UK. The increase was fuelled by currency instability, job insecurity, and the aspiration for quality education and migration pathways.

### **2022–2023: Plateau and Stabilization**

In 2023, study visas rose slightly by 4.1%, reaching 61,500. This stabilization suggests that the rapid expansion phase is slowing, likely due to UK policy reviews, higher tuition costs, and new restrictions on dependents for international students.

## **3. Healthcare Professional Migration Trends**

### **2019–2020: Moderate Growth in Health Sector Migration**

Nigerian healthcare professional registrations (doctors and nurses) rose from 2,950 to 3,500, an 18.6% increase, despite pandemic restrictions. This highlights the global demand for medical workers and Nigeria's active participation in healthcare migration.

### **2020–2021: Sharp Rise in Medical Migration**

Registrations doubled to 7,200, showing a 105.7% increase. The UK's urgent need for health workers during the pandemic and Nigeria's poor healthcare infrastructure were major push factors.

### **2021–2022: Sustained but Slower Growth**

In 2022, healthcare professionals increased to 11,021, representing a 53.0% rise. The UK continued active recruitment of foreign health workers under its Health and Care Worker Visa scheme.

### **2022–2023: Slight Decline and Stabilization**

By 2023, registrations fell marginally to 10,800 (–2.0%), indicating a levelling off after years of exponential growth. This could be linked to policy tightening, saturation, or increased scrutiny in professional licensing processes.

## **4. Comparative Trend Insights**

Both education and healthcare migration followed a boom pattern post-2020, aligning with global post-pandemic recovery.

The study visa category recorded a more dramatic percentage growth, suggesting stronger mobility in the academic sector.

The healthcare migration trend remained steadier, highlighting the UK's long-term reliance on Nigerian professionals.

The overall trend suggests that Nigerian migration to the UK is increasingly structured and economically motivated, dominated by skilled and educational mobility rather than asylum or irregular channels.

## **5. General Observation**

The period between 2019 and 2023 marked a transformational phase in Nigeria–UK migration relations. The growth in both categories underscores:

The effects of UK immigration policy reforms favouring skilled workers and students.

The economic pressures and insecurity in Nigeria pushing skilled individuals abroad.

The emergence of education and healthcare as the two strongest migration pipelines linking both countries.

### **1. Overview of Migration Trends (2019–2023)**

Between 2019 and 2023, Nigerian migration to the United Kingdom experienced significant fluctuations across major categories, study visas and healthcare professional registrations. The overall pattern reveals a sharp increase after 2020, indicating intensified migration driven by both educational and employment opportunities.

### **2. Study Visa Trends**

#### **2019–2020: Decline Due to Global Disruptions**

The number of Nigerian study visas dropped from 13,120 in 2019 to 10,750 in 2020, a decline of 18.1%. This reduction coincides with the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, which disrupted global mobility and academic calendars.

#### **2020–2021: Dramatic Surge in Educational Migration**

In 2021, there was an unprecedented increase of 168.6%, reaching 28,900 visas. This reflects the reopening of global borders, the restoration of the UK’s post-study work visa policy, and Nigeria’s growing demand for foreign education due to limited local capacity.

### 2021–2022: Continued Growth

By 2022, Nigerian study visas more than doubled again to 59,053, marking a 104.3% rise. This surge positioned Nigeria among the top three non-EU countries sending students to the UK. The increase was fuelled by currency instability, job insecurity, and the aspiration for quality education and migration pathways.

### 2022–2023: Plateau and Stabilization

In 2023, study visas rose slightly by 4.1%, reaching 61,500. This stabilization suggests that the rapid expansion phase is slowing, likely due to UK policy reviews, higher tuition costs, and new restrictions on dependents for international students.

## 3. Healthcare Professional Migration Trends

### 2019–2020: Moderate Growth in Health Sector Migration

Nigerian healthcare professional registrations (doctors and nurses) rose from 2,950 to 3,500, an 18.6% increase, despite pandemic restrictions. This highlights the global demand for medical workers and Nigeria's active participation in healthcare migration.

### 2020–2021: Sharp Rise in Medical Migration

Registrations doubled to 7,200, showing a 105.7% increase. The UK's urgent need for health workers during the pandemic and Nigeria's poor healthcare infrastructure were major push factors.

### 2021–2022: Sustained but Slower Growth

In 2022, healthcare professionals increased to 11,021, representing a 53.0% rise. The UK continued active recruitment of foreign health workers under its Health and Care Worker Visa scheme.

## 2022–2023: Slight Decline and Stabilization

By 2023, registrations fell marginally to 10,800 (–2.0%), indicating a levelling off after years of exponential growth. This could be linked to policy tightening, saturation, or increased scrutiny in professional licensing processes.

## 4. Comparative Trend Insights

Both education and healthcare migration followed a boom pattern post-2020, aligning with global post-pandemic recovery.

The study visa category recorded a more dramatic percentage growth, suggesting stronger mobility in the academic sector.

The healthcare migration trend remained steadier, highlighting the UK's long-term reliance on Nigerian professionals.

The overall trend suggests that Nigerian migration to the UK is increasingly structured and economically motivated, dominated by skilled and educational mobility rather than asylum or irregular channels.

## 5. General Observation

The period between 2019 and 2023 marked a transformational phase in Nigeria–UK migration relations. The growth in both categories' underscores:

The effects of UK immigration policy reforms favouring skilled workers and students.

The economic pressures and insecurity in Nigeria pushing skilled individuals abroad.

The emergence of education and healthcare as the two strongest migration pipelines linking both countries.

### **4.3 Discussion Of Findings**

The findings from the study reveal a complex interplay of economic, political, and institutional dynamics that have significantly shaped the contemporary wave of Nigerian migration to the United Kingdom. The evidence suggests that while the UK's post-Brexit immigration reforms created new opportunities for skilled and educated migrants, the unprecedented surge in Nigerian emigration cannot be fully explained without examining the deteriorating internal conditions that have made life increasingly unbearable in Nigeria. Over the past decade, Nigeria has experienced overlapping crises in governance, security, and economic management, transforming migration from an aspirational venture into an act of survival for many citizens (Ikejiaku, 2022). The findings point to what scholars describe as a “crisis of opportunity”, a condition where domestic social and economic structures become so constrained that emigration emerges as the only viable route to self-actualization and dignity (Akinyemi & Isiugo-Abanihe, 2021).

Nigeria's economic trajectory over the past decade underscores this reality. Once buoyed by oil revenues, the economy has suffered repeated contractions since 2016. Although it remains Africa's largest economy by GDP, the country's growth pattern has been largely non-inclusive, failing to translate into improved living standards for the majority of citizens. The nation went through two major recessions in less than five years, first in 2016 and later in 2020, resulting in massive job losses and widespread poverty (World Bank, 2022). The data further reveal that unemployment rose from 23.1% in 2018 to 33.3% by 2021, while underemployment accounted for an additional 22.8% of the labour force (National Bureau of Statistics, 2021). This implies that more than half of Nigeria's working-age population was either jobless or engaged in low-productivity work. Particularly distressing is the youth

unemployment rate, which reached almost 43%, leaving a large pool of educated but idle graduates whose skills remain unutilized (Akinyemi & Isiugo-Abanihe, 2021).

The chronic unemployment crisis is further intensified by rising inflation and persistent currency devaluation, both of which have eroded household purchasing power and quality of life. Between 2021 and 2023, inflation averaged 17.1%, primarily driven by rising food and energy prices, depreciation of the naira, and poor fiscal management (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2023). Real incomes have steadily declined, and the cost of living has reached unbearable levels for middle-class families. By 2023, households in major cities such as Lagos were reportedly spending nearly 60% of their income on food, far above the United Nations' recommended threshold for food expenditure in developing economies (UNDP, 2023). This economic hardship has reshaped the perception of migration from a voluntary pursuit of better life prospects into a survivalist strategy for financial and psychological stability.

The study also finds that Nigeria's persistent educational instability has become a major push factor in recent years. The Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) embarked on multiple nationwide strikes between 2019 and 2023, including an unprecedented eight-month shutdown in 2022, the longest in the country's history. These recurring disruptions have destabilized academic calendars, delayed graduations, and diminished the global competitiveness of Nigerian university graduates (Olayinka, 2023). Consequently, parents who could afford it increasingly sought educational continuity for their children abroad, with the United Kingdom emerging as the preferred destination due to its English-speaking environment and globally respected universities. Data from the UK Home Office (2023) show that the number of Nigerian student visas issued rose dramatically from 13,120 in 2019 to 59,053 in 2022, representing a 350% increase within just three years.

Beyond education and economics, insecurity stands out as one of the most compelling factors propelling migration. Nigeria's internal security landscape has deteriorated to unprecedented levels, with terrorism, banditry, communal clashes, and kidnappings becoming widespread (Ezeani, 2022). The Global Terrorism Index (2023) places Nigeria among the top ten most terrorism-affected countries in the world, with the northern region plagued by Boko Haram insurgency and the southern regions increasingly troubled by kidnappings and separatist agitations. This pervasive insecurity has pushed many professionals, doctors, academics, and entrepreneurs alike, to leave the country in search of safety and stability abroad. The Nigerian Medical Association (NMA, 2022) reports that more than 2,000 doctors emigrated between 2021 and 2022 alone, with the majority relocating to the UK and Canada.

Closely tied to the insecurity challenge is Nigeria's governance crisis, characterized by endemic corruption, institutional weakness, and public distrust. Transparency International (2023) ranks Nigeria 150th out of 180 countries in its Corruption Perception Index, underscoring the depth of governance failure. Many citizens, particularly the youth, perceive the political system as hostile to meritocracy, innovation, and accountability. This disillusionment has birthed the so-called "Japa syndrome," derived from the Yoruba word meaning "to flee," reflecting a generational mindset where migration is perceived as both a practical escape and an act of defiance against systemic dysfunction (Okunade, 2023).

The study further reveals that infrastructural decay and declining quality of public services have compounded the motivation to migrate. The power sector remains persistently underperforming, with national electricity generation rarely surpassing 4,500 megawatts despite serving over 220 million people (World Bank, 2023). Healthcare infrastructure is grossly inadequate, prompting even government officials to seek medical care abroad. Such institutional failures have deepened the sense of hopelessness among citizens. An Afrobarometer (2022) survey found that nearly 75% of young Nigerians expressed a

willingness to migrate abroad if given the opportunity—one of the highest rates in sub-Saharan Africa.

Taken together, these internal conditions highlight the push dynamics of migration from Nigeria. The socio-economic system has become increasingly incapable of meeting the aspirations of its people. The labour market is unable to absorb the educated workforce, the education system is plagued by strikes and underfunding, and insecurity undermines productivity and safety. Consequently, migration to the United Kingdom has emerged as both a rational and emotional response to domestic collapse, serving as a form of silent protest against structural stagnation. The findings further indicate that this outflow of human capital exacerbates a self-perpetuating cycle, each wave of migration depletes the nation's skilled labour pool, weakening its developmental capacity and thereby reinforcing the very pressures that drive people away (Beine, Docquier & Rapoport, 2011).

Complementing these push factors are the powerful pull factors emanating from the United Kingdom. The post-Brexit reconfiguration of the UK's immigration system introduced a points-based model that prioritizes merit and skill over nationality, creating new openings for non-EU migrants, including Nigerians (Home Office, 2023). This policy, effective from January 2021, was particularly advantageous for Nigerian professionals, who are predominantly English-speaking and well-educated in globally relevant fields such as healthcare, IT, and education (Migration Advisory Committee, 2021). The introduction of the Health and Care Worker Visa in 2020 proved transformative. Designed to fill acute labour shortages in the NHS and social care sector, it provided a clear pathway for Nigerian medical professionals to migrate legally and work under favourable conditions. Between 2019 and 2023, over 11,021 Nigerian-trained doctors were licensed to practice in the UK (GMC, 2023), while the Nursing and Midwifery Council (2023) recorded 7,256 Nigerian nurses joining the UK register in 2022, the highest figure on record.

This surge was driven by a combination of British labour demand and Nigerian supply readiness. The UK's ageing population and the post-Brexit departure of many EU healthcare workers created an urgent need for replacements, which Nigerian professionals readily filled (OECD, 2022). Moreover, the Skilled Worker Visa introduced after Brexit expanded opportunities beyond healthcare to sectors such as education, engineering, and finance. Data from the Office for National Statistics (ONS, 2024) reveal that Nigerians accounted for approximately 8% of all skilled worker visas issued to Africans between 2021 and 2023, a figure that continues to rise.

The UK's education system also emerged as a major pull factor. The reintroduction of the Graduate Route Visa in July 2021, allowing international graduates to stay and work for up to two years post-study, significantly enhanced the appeal of British higher education. This policy effectively transformed student migration into a viable settlement route. In 2022 alone, the number of Nigerian study visas rose to 59,053, marking a 415% increase from 2019 (Home Office, 2023). Nigeria thus became the third-largest source of international students in the UK, trailing only India and China (British Council, 2023). Nigerian students' economic contribution was substantial, HESA (2023) reports that they injected over £1.9 billion into the UK economy during the 2021/2022 academic year.

The UK's strong legal and institutional framework further enhances its attractiveness. The rule of law, efficient public services, and relatively inclusive social policies provide migrants with a sense of safety and predictability absent in Nigeria (Adepoju, 2020). In addition, the UK's colonial and cultural ties with Nigeria have sustained familiarity in language, education, and social systems, easing the process of integration. The presence of a large Nigerian diaspora, estimated at 420,000 by 2024 (ONS, 2024), also serves as a magnet for new migrants by providing social networks, job linkages, and emotional support (Eke, 2022). Furthermore, bilateral arrangements and ethical recruitment agreements, particularly in the

healthcare sector, have institutionalized migration as a mutually beneficial exchange. The UK Department of Health and Social Care (DHSC, 2023) has formalized partnerships with Nigerian training institutions to facilitate the inflow of qualified personnel while maintaining professional standards. The convergence of these pull factors, ranging from immigration reforms and professional opportunities to education pathways and socio-cultural affinity, has established the United Kingdom as an increasingly desirable destination for Nigerians seeking both stability and advancement.

The post-pandemic migration trend from Nigeria to the United Kingdom was not limited to professional and economic motives; it was also deeply shaped by educational aspirations. Education has long been one of the most influential channels of mobility between the two countries, with roots extending to the colonial era when British administrators established formal education systems in Nigeria modelled on British curricula and institutions (Ajayi, 2019). This historical linkage produced a cultural and institutional affinity for British education, making it a symbol of prestige and upward mobility. Many of Nigeria's post-independence elites, politicians, civil servants, and intellectuals, were educated in the United Kingdom, reinforcing the perception of British higher education as a route to professional excellence and social advancement (Ekeh & Oke, 2022).

This enduring preference is reinforced by practical factors such as the shared use of English, internationally recognised degree programmes, and shorter course durations compared to other Anglophone destinations. The established Nigerian diaspora across the United Kingdom also offers a support network that lowers both the financial and emotional costs of migration (Eke, 2022). Yet, while these long-standing ties have existed for decades, the scale of Nigerian student migration expanded dramatically after Brexit and during the post-pandemic period. Two policy shifts proved particularly transformative: the UK's post-Brexit points-based immigration system, which redirected recruitment from the EU to non-EU skilled

entrants (Migration Advisory Committee, 2021), and the reintroduction of the Graduate Route Visa in July 2021, allowing international graduates to remain in the UK for up to two years after study (Home Office, 2023).

The statistical evidence illustrates this sharp transformation. Study visas issued to Nigerians rose from about 13,120 in 2019 to 59,053 in 2022, an increase of roughly 350%. Likewise, the number of Nigerian students enrolled in UK universities rose from around 21,000 in 2018/2019 to over 60,000 in 2022/2023 (British Council, 2023; Home Office, 2023). By 2022, Nigeria had become one of the top three non-EU sources of international students in the UK, alongside India and China. This shift reflected a new perception of studying in Britain as an integrated pathway combining education, employment, and migration prospects.

The Graduate Route Visa altered the financial and social logic of foreign study. For many Nigerian families, overseas education ceased to be a one-time academic investment and became a strategic migration plan. This was amplified by Nigeria's domestic challenges: recurring university strikes, underfunding of tertiary institutions, currency depreciation, and rising unemployment all contributed to the erosion of confidence in the national education system (Olayinka, 2023). Consequently, studying in the UK came to represent not only quality education but also economic and social stability. The visibility of this pathway was strengthened by alumni testimonies, social media, and university recruitment drives across Nigeria. UK institutions offered scholarships, flexible fee arrangements, and streamlined admissions, recognising the commercial value of Nigerian students, who contributed an estimated £1.9 billion in tuition and living expenses to the UK economy in 2021–2022 (British Council, 2023). Over time, the demographic profile of these students broadened, extending beyond elite southern families to include older professionals and middle-income earners who saw education as a route to migration (Ekeh & Oke, 2022).

However, while individuals and families benefit, the national implications are more complex. Nigeria invests heavily in education but loses much of its intellectual capital when graduates remain abroad, a process widely described as “brain export” (Beine, Docquier & Rapoport, 2011; UNESCO, 2023). Surveys indicate a declining intention among Nigerian students to return home after graduation, citing better job prospects and living standards abroad (UNESCO, 2023).

From about 9,800 study visas in 2017, numbers rose steadily before dropping by 18% in 2020 due to pandemic restrictions. The reintroduction of the Graduate Route in 2021 triggered a sharp rebound, study visas more than doubled from 10,750 in 2020 to 28,900 in 2021, a 168% increase. By 2022, the figure had surged to 59,053, and by 2023, growth stabilised at around 4%, signalling that education-driven migration had matured from a reactive trend into an institutionalised pathway. Overall, the intersection of Nigeria’s educational decline and the UK’s post-Brexit and post-pandemic migration policies has created a self-sustaining cycle of education-driven migration. For Nigerian families, British universities now represent both academic opportunity and a secure migration route; for the UK, they supply a steady inflow of skilled, fee-paying students. Yet this mutually beneficial exchange continues to erode Nigeria’s human capital base, with far-reaching implications for its long-term development.

The growing exodus of Nigerian students to the United Kingdom cannot be understood without situating it within the deepening crisis of Nigeria’s domestic educational system. Over the past two decades, the university sector has suffered persistent decline marked by underfunding, infrastructural decay, frequent strikes, and falling academic standards. These systemic failures have eroded the credibility of Nigerian higher education, creating frustration among students, parents, and staff, and compelling many to seek alternatives abroad, particularly in the United Kingdom, where institutions promise stability and global recognition (Akinyemi & Isiugo-Abanihe, 2021).

Nigeria's tertiary system, once among the best in sub-Saharan Africa, has been undermined by years of neglect and inconsistent policy direction. Budgetary allocations to education have hovered between 5% and 7% of total government spending, far below UNESCO's recommended 15–20% benchmark (NUC, 2022). This chronic underfunding has produced overcrowded classrooms, obsolete laboratories, inadequate teaching materials, and poor staff remuneration, all of which have rendered Nigerian universities un conducive for serious academic pursuit (Olayinka, 2023). As a result, many students, disillusioned by their learning environment and sceptical about the value of local degrees, have turned to foreign institutions in search of quality education.

Compounding this funding crisis are the incessant industrial actions by the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), which have become an almost predictable feature of the academic calendar. Between 2010 and 2023, Nigerian universities reportedly lost about 42 months, nearly four academic years, to strike actions, including an eight-month shutdown in 2022 alone (NBS, 2023). These disruptions have rendered students' educational timelines uncertain and unending, with many parents seeking the stability that foreign universities offer (Olayinka, 2023). Such instability not only prolongs graduation but also erodes students' motivation and trust in the system, while British institutions are viewed as offering uninterrupted learning and reliable academic schedules (British Council, 2023).

The deteriorating standards of research, global rankings, and graduate employability have further weakened faith in Nigerian universities. Once vibrant centres of intellectual inquiry, most have slipped drastically in international performance indices. As of 2023, no Nigerian university ranked among the world's top 500, and only a few appeared in Africa's top 50 (Times Higher Education, 2023). Employers often complain about graduates' lack of practical skills and global exposure (Ezeani, 2022), reinforcing the belief that a foreign, especially British, education guarantees superior competence and prestige.

An additional layer to this educational crisis is the continuous brain drain among academic staff. Thousands of Nigerian lecturers and researchers have relocated to better-paying universities abroad, creating a vacuum in teaching and mentorship. TETFund (2022) reported that over 6,000 lecturers migrated to institutions in the UK, Canada, and the US in just five years, leading to diminished academic rigor and institutional decline. This exodus perpetuates a vicious cycle: as experienced educators leave, standards fall further, prompting more students to study abroad. Equally, the poor physical infrastructure across Nigerian campuses underscores this crisis. Many universities lack functional libraries, stable electricity, digital resources, and adequate accommodation. Students often struggle to access materials for coursework or research, while their counterparts in the UK study in technologically advanced environments equipped with modern laboratories, digital databases, and personalized academic support (British Council, 2023). For Nigerian parents, these contrasts are decisive; funding their children's education abroad becomes not only an academic decision but an investment in quality and stability.

Economic instability in Nigeria has intensified these frustrations. The depreciation of the naira, rising inflation, and high unemployment have created an atmosphere of uncertainty, leading many families to view foreign education as an escape from national economic decline. The United Kingdom, with its structured academic environment, post-study work opportunities, and clear immigration pathways, presents itself as a stable and strategic alternative (Home Office, 2023).

Cultural perceptions also sustain this migration trend. A British degree carries significant prestige and is widely perceived as a symbol of excellence and social elevation. It enhances employability in international and corporate spaces and confers social distinction within Nigerian society (Ekeh & Oke, 2022). Thus, pursuing education in the UK is both an academic and psychological aspiration, a sign of success and a projection of class status.

The introduction of the Graduate Route Visa in 2021 further accelerated this trend by transforming the UK's post-study landscape. Previously, international graduates faced limited time to secure employment and often had to leave shortly after completing their studies unless they obtained sponsorship. The new policy reversed this constraint, allowing graduates to remain in the UK for up to two years (and three for PhD holders) to seek work without employer sponsorship (Migration Advisory Committee, 2021). This reform not only redefined the appeal of British education but also linked academic pursuit directly to employability and migration opportunities.

For Nigerian students, the Graduate Route Visa became more than an academic incentive, it represented a viable pathway to socio-economic advancement. The policy effectively bridged the gap between study and work, transforming education into a long-term migration strategy (Home Office, 2023). Nigerian families, already burdened by the unpredictability of domestic education, quickly embraced this opportunity for stability and global exposure. The results were immediate: between 2019 and 2022, the number of Nigerian nationals granted UK study visas rose from 13,120 to 59,053, representing a 350% surge (Home Office, 2023). Similarly, enrolment figures recorded by HESA (2023) increased from 21,000 in 2018/2019 to over 60,000 by 2022/2023.

Beyond the numbers, the Graduate Route Visa transformed the perception of British education from a temporary academic pursuit into a structured path toward professional integration. It reassured families that the heavy financial investments made in tuition and living expenses could yield economic and professional returns. The opportunity to gain post-study work experience, earn foreign income, and potentially transition into permanent residency mitigated the perceived risks of international education. According to the OECD (2022), such policies linking study and work have become key drivers of skilled migration globally, particularly in the post-Brexit era. In the Nigerian context, this linkage resonates

strongly with the country's youth unemployment crisis, which exceeded 43% in 2021 (NBS, 2023). For many young Nigerians, education abroad is no longer viewed as a temporary phase but as the first step in a long-term migration process. Surveys conducted by the British Council (2023) show that a majority of Nigerian students in the UK express intent to remain after graduation, citing the Graduate Route as the defining factor influencing their choice of destination.

The broader implications are evident in shifting settlement patterns. Many Nigerian graduates now use the post-study period to transition into Skilled Worker sponsorships, embedding themselves permanently within the UK labour market. The UK Migration Observatory (2023) ranks Nigerians among the top five nationalities transitioning from student to work visas since 2021, marking a shift from temporary to long-term migration. This evolution signifies a transition from circular to linear migration, where education becomes the first stage of a broader migration trajectory (Castles, de Haas & Miller, 2020).

For the United Kingdom, the policy effectively addresses labour shortages and enhances diversity in key sectors, while reinforcing its position as a global education hub. For Nigeria, however, it compounds the brain drain crisis, depleting its pool of skilled professionals. UNESCO (2023) notes that nearly 35% of Nigerian students abroad have no immediate plans to return home, citing better career opportunities overseas.

The Graduate Route Visa has also produced a powerful "demonstration effect" through social networks and digital media. Stories of successful Nigerian graduates who have transitioned into UK employment or residency circulate widely, encouraging more families to replicate the same pathway (Adepoju, 2020). Migration aspirations are thus increasingly shaped by shared community experiences and visible success narratives rather than individual ambition. Consequently, education-based migration has evolved into a long-term mobility strategy that

blurs the boundaries between learning, work, and settlement. Education now serves as both a migration instrument and a family investment strategy. The Graduate Route Visa has, therefore, not only transformed the nature of Nigerian student migration but has also reshaped the socio-economic imagination of the Nigerian middle class. For the UK, it exemplifies how immigration policy can serve as soft power, attracting global talent and reinforcing national competitiveness; for Nigeria, it underscores the urgency of revitalizing its education and labour sectors to stem the loss of its brightest minds.

The transformation of the United Kingdom's immigration framework after Brexit significantly redefined global labour mobility, creating new openings for skilled professionals from developing countries such as Nigeria. With acute shortages of essential workers in several sectors, the UK shifted from intra-European recruitment to global talent acquisition, especially in healthcare. Nigerians, long prominent in medicine, nursing, and allied health fields, became one of the most sought-after professional groups in this evolving post-Brexit landscape (Home Office, 2024).

The introduction of the points-based immigration system in 2020 prioritized academic qualifications, English proficiency, and employment offers in shortage occupations. Two routes proved particularly relevant for Nigerians: the Skilled Worker Visa and the Health and Care Worker Visa, the latter launched in August 2020 to address acute deficits in the National Health Service (NHS) (Migration Advisory Committee, 2023). This reform coincided with the UK's post-pandemic recovery when workforce losses, burnout, and early retirements severely strained the NHS. To fill these gaps, the UK expanded visa quotas, reduced barriers, and intensified recruitment from non-EU countries, with Nigeria emerging as a major recruitment hub (OECD, 2023).

Empirical data confirm the rapid growth of this migration pattern. The General Medical Council (GMC, 2024) reports that the number of Nigerian-trained doctors licensed to practice in the UK increased from 1,480 in 2017 to 12,260 in 2024, a 728% rise in seven years. Similarly, the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC, 2024) recorded 8,240 Nigerian nurses joining the UK register in 2024, compared to only 950 in 2017. Nigeria now ranks among the top five global suppliers of healthcare professionals to the UK workforce.

The appeal of these visa schemes lies not only in higher earnings but in structured professional stability. Both visas offer pathways to Indefinite Leave to Remain (ILR) after five years, providing long-term security for professionals and their families (Home Office, 2024). In stark contrast, Nigeria's healthcare system remains underfunded and poorly managed, plagued by low pay, obsolete infrastructure, and limited career opportunities. The Nigerian Medical Association (NMA, 2023) notes that over 80% of doctors are considering emigration due to poor remuneration and working conditions. Whereas an average Nigerian doctor earns between ₦250,000 and ₦500,000 monthly (around £250–£400), an entry-level doctor in the UK earns approximately £3,000, a tenfold disparity.

The COVID-19 pandemic amplified this exodus by revealing stark inequalities in workplace welfare. Nigerian medical workers faced high infection risks with minimal protection, while their UK counterparts received consistent pay and health insurance (Ezeani, 2023). This widened the perception gap between the two systems, reinforcing the UK as a space of professional respect and safety. By 2024, migration had become an entrenched resettlement trend rather than a temporary response to crisis. Beyond financial motives, Nigerian healthcare professionals are drawn by institutional efficiency, advanced technology, and merit-based career structures in the UK. There, competence and continuous learning are rewarded rather than political influence or hierarchy (GMC, 2024). Diaspora networks such as the Nigerian Doctors in the UK (NiDUK) further sustain this migration cycle through

mentorship and logistical support, exemplifying the self-perpetuating pattern described by migration theorists as “chain migration” (Castles, de Haas & Miller, 2020).

However, the consequences for Nigeria’s public health system are severe. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2024) identifies Nigeria as facing a critical shortage of health personnel, with a doctor-to-patient ratio of 1:5,000, far below the WHO standard of 1:600. The Federal Ministry of Health (2024) estimates that professional emigration and medical tourism cost the country over \$1.4 billion annually. The resulting deficit has led to longer waiting times, declining service quality, and the collapse of specialist care in several regions. Thus, while the UK resolves its labour shortages through foreign recruitment, Nigeria simultaneously experiences a deepening public health crisis. Human capital theory explains this as a rational response to global wage disparities, professionals seek environments where their skills are better rewarded (Todaro & Smith, 2020).

The “healthcare exodus” illustrates a broader structural failure shaped by economic hardship, institutional decay, and professional frustration. Economic conditions remain the primary catalyst. Nigerian doctors and nurses earn a fraction of their UK counterparts, some facing wage differentials exceeding 700% (NMC, 2023). In addition, the working environment in Nigerian hospitals is often disheartening: frequent power outages, obsolete diagnostic tools, and drug shortages undermine effective care (Federal Ministry of Health, 2023). Over half of Nigeria’s public hospitals operate with outdated equipment, while only 30% have regular access to essential drugs. Such conditions erode morale and drive emigration as an act of professional survival.

Institutional inefficiency and governance failures further fuel this crisis. Corruption, policy inconsistency, and the mismanagement of funds have undermined confidence in public hospitals. TETFund (2022) observes that structural leakages and misappropriations

consistently blunt the impact of government allocations to health and education. Many healthcare workers perceive emigration as a necessary escape from systemic neglect. The psychological toll of working in such conditions is profound, doctors frequently report feelings of worthlessness and moral exhaustion, often witnessing preventable deaths due to lack of basic supplies. Migration thus becomes a means of reclaiming professional dignity (Ezeani, 2022). Rising insecurity further compounds these pressures. Incidents of kidnapping and attacks on health workers have become frequent, particularly in northern Nigeria. The Nigerian Medical Association documented over 40 cases of abducted doctors in 2022 alone, deepening the sense of vulnerability within the profession. Conversely, the UK provides a secure and structured environment with strong labour protections, making it a natural destination for those seeking stability and safety.

The pandemic accelerated these decisions, exposing the fragility of Nigeria's healthcare infrastructure while simultaneously expanding UK recruitment. Social networks and digital platforms amplified the trend, as success stories from earlier migrants circulated widely, encouraging others to follow suit. Established Nigerian healthcare workers in the UK routinely assist colleagues back home in navigating licensing exams such as the PLAB and NMC tests, creating a continuous chain of professional migration (Castles, de Haas & Miller, 2020).

Statistical trends confirm the persistence of this movement. Between 2020 and 2023, the number of Nigerian doctors licensed in the UK grew by 42%, while nurse registrations rose by 150% (GMC, 2023; NMC, 2023). By 2023, Nigeria ranked third globally, after India and the Philippines, in supplying foreign-trained nurses to the UK workforce. The British Council (2023) found that nearly two-thirds of Nigerian healthcare professionals intending to migrate identified the UK as their preferred destination due to structured career pathways and transparent visa processes.

The economic impact of this exodus is devastating. Nigeria invests an average of ₦10 million to train a single medical doctor, yet thousands now serve foreign health systems. The Federal Ministry of Health (2023) estimates an annual loss exceeding \$1.2 billion through emigration and medical tourism. These losses have tangible domestic effects, rising mortality rates, overburdened remaining staff, and declining access to specialized care. Nonetheless, for individual healthcare professionals, migration remains a rational and aspirational choice. Guided by human capital theory, it represents an effort to maximize returns on education, skill, and labour by relocating to environments that ensure recognition and fair reward (Todaro & Smith, 2020). For Nigerian doctors and nurses, the UK is not merely a workplace but a space of dignity, opportunity, and professional fulfilment, an escape from systemic stagnation into a world where merit is valued and progress is possible.

The large-scale migration of Nigerian professionals to the United Kingdom has had profound and far-reaching effects on the country's socio-economic foundation, gradually transforming from individual acts of self-improvement into a systemic challenge that threatens national development. This trend, intensified by post-Brexit labour shortages and Nigeria's worsening economic instability, has particularly devastated critical sectors such as healthcare, education, and technology (Beine, Docquier & Rapoport, 2011).

In healthcare, the consequences are severe. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2023) records Nigeria's doctor-to-patient ratio at 1:5,000, drastically below the recommended 1:600, while the Nigerian Medical Association (NMA, 2022) reports fewer than 35,000 active doctors serving a population exceeding 220 million. The exodus of over 11,000 doctors between 2019 and 2023 has crippled hospitals, especially in rural areas where facilities remain understaffed or abandoned (GMC, 2023). Medical tourism continues to drain the economy, over \$1.2 billion annually, according to the Federal Ministry of Health (2023). As

senior specialists emigrate, mentorship and training decline, leaving behind overworked staff and deteriorating service quality (Ogunyemi, 2023).

The education sector reflects a similar deterioration. Once a source of national pride, Nigerian universities now face severe personnel shortages as thousands of lecturers and researchers leave for better opportunities abroad. Between 2018 and 2023, over 7,000 academics reportedly relocated, many absorbed into British institutions (TETFund, 2023; British Council, 2023). This has resulted in overcrowded classrooms, diminished research capacity, and weakened mentorship structures (Ekeh & Oke, 2022). Nigeria's absence from the top 500 global universities (Times Higher Education, 2023) highlights the deepening crisis. Frequent strikes, low funding, and academic stagnation continue to erode morale, driving even more educators to seek stability abroad, a pattern described by Olayinka (2023) as "academic displacement," where migration becomes an intellectual necessity rather than merely an economic choice.

The technology sector, once a beacon of youthful innovation, has also suffered from extensive human capital flight. The National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA, 2023) estimates that over 12,000 tech experts migrated between 2020 and 2023 under the UK's Global Talent and Skilled Worker schemes (OECD, 2022). The Tech Nation Report (2023) confirms Nigerians as one of the fastest-growing African tech migrant groups in the UK. The wage disparity is staggering: software engineers earning ₦500,000 monthly in Nigeria can earn between £4,000 and £6,000 in the UK (PwC, 2022). This imbalance has weakened start-ups, slowed innovation, and deepened Nigeria's dependence on imported technologies (Akinyemi & Isiugo-Abanihe, 2021).

Collectively, these patterns amount to what the World Bank (2023) aptly calls a "human capital haemorrhage." The flight of the country's most skilled citizens undermines both

economic productivity and institutional resilience, leaving behind a hollowed-out system reliant on remittances rather than domestic creativity. More troubling is the psychological normalization of emigration as the ultimate marker of success, embodied in the popular “Japa” narrative, which signifies a profound loss of faith in national renewal. As the most capable minds depart, the capacity for reform and innovation weakens further, perpetuating the very conditions that drive continued outmigration.

The period between 2017 and 2024 represents a defining chapter in Nigeria’s migration history, with the years 2020 to 2022 marking the most intense surge in mobility toward the United Kingdom. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic initially disrupted global migration flows as border closures, grounded flights, and widespread lockdowns curtailed movement. Nigeria experienced a similar standstill, with the UK Home Office (2023) reporting an 18% decline in study visas issued to Nigerians in 2020 compared to 2019. Healthcare migration also briefly slowed, as the General Medical Council (GMC, 2023) recorded reduced registration of foreign-trained doctors. However, this lull was short-lived. Once travel restrictions eased, pent-up demand for better opportunities abroad translated into a dramatic rebound, and migration rates soon exceeded pre-pandemic levels.

Ironically, the pandemic became a catalyst rather than a deterrent. It exposed Nigeria’s institutional fragility, inadequate healthcare infrastructure, and widespread job insecurity (Ezeani, 2022). Many professionals, particularly in the medical and education sectors, lost confidence in domestic systems and began to seek stable alternatives abroad. Meanwhile, the United Kingdom, struggling with severe post-pandemic labour shortages, especially within the National Health Service (NHS), intensified its recruitment of skilled workers from developing nations (OECD, 2022). As a result, by mid-2021, Nigerians emerged among the top beneficiaries of the UK’s expanded Health and Care Worker Visa, with the Nursing and

Midwifery Council (NMC, 2023) recording a sharp increase to 4,310 Nigerian nurses joining the UK register in 2021 alone, compared to fewer than 1,500 in 2019.

The recovery extended beyond healthcare. The introduction of the Graduate Route Visa in 2021 transformed the educational migration landscape, allowing international graduates to remain in the UK for up to two years after their studies. This policy quickly made the UK one of the most attractive destinations for Nigerian students. The Home Office (2023) reported that by the end of 2021, the number of study visas granted to Nigerians had nearly tripled from the previous year, signalling the beginning of a post-pandemic migration boom. COVID-19 thus amplified the desire to migrate, deepening the inequalities that made emigration appear essential for professional fulfilment and personal stability.

The following two years, 2021 and 2022, stand out as the absolute peak of this wave. The United Kingdom's post-Brexit economic restructuring and labour shortages created vast openings in healthcare, logistics, and education, while Nigeria's domestic economic decline, marked by inflation, insecurity, and unemployment, pushed thousands to relocate (Home Office, 2023). The Graduate Route Visa particularly revolutionized student migration. In just one year, the number of Nigerian study visa approvals soared from 28,900 in 2021 to 59,053 in 2022, representing a staggering 104.3% increase. Simultaneously, the healthcare sector saw a massive inflow of Nigerian professionals; between 2019 and 2023, more than 11,000 Nigerian-trained doctors were licensed in the UK, with the majority registering in 2021 and 2022 (GMC, 2023). The NMC (2023) also reported 7,256 Nigerian nurses joining the UK register in 2022, an increase of over 150% compared to 2020.

This rapid migration growth stemmed from both economic desperation and new institutional incentives. The UK's recruitment campaigns offered clear and accessible pathways to settlement, while Nigeria's unemployment rate rose to 33.3% in 2021 and youth

unemployment exceeded 42% (National Bureau of Statistics, 2023). Inflation peaked at 18.6%, further eroding wages and living standards. As a result, migration became not only a means of advancement but also a strategy for survival. The rise of digital recruitment and the spread of success stories through social media, popularized under the #Japa movement, fuelled collective optimism about relocation, turning migration into a normalized aspiration (Ekeh & Oke, 2022).

The UK benefited immensely from this surge. Nigerian professionals helped stabilize critical sectors, particularly the NHS, and Nigerian students became one of the largest groups in UK higher education. Yet, for Nigeria, these peak years signalled an accelerating depletion of human capital, especially in healthcare and academia. The mass departure of skilled workers further weakened national productivity, institutional continuity, and innovation capacity. Migration during this period thus became both a symptom and a cause of systemic crisis, a cycle where poor governance and economic distress propelled mobility, while the resulting brain drain deepened the very conditions that sustained it.

By 2023, migration from Nigeria to the UK had become an entrenched social and economic phenomenon. The years 2021 and 2022 stand as a historic inflection point, when migration ceased to be the preserve of elites and evolved into a widespread middle-class pursuit, a response to crisis and an expression of hope for stability, dignity, and opportunity abroad. Between 2017 and 2024, migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom followed a sharply uneven yet ultimately upward trajectory that reflected both global dynamics and Nigeria's deepening socio-economic distress. The trend began with modest but steady growth from 2017 to 2019, as the UK recorded moderate increases in education- and work-related migration among Nigerians despite uncertainties surrounding Brexit. During this period, migration numbers grew from roughly 15,000 in 2017 to about 20,000 in 2019, a 33% increase that underscored Nigerians' growing pursuit of foreign education and employment

opportunities as domestic prospects dimmed (Home Office, 2024). The appeal of the UK's academic institutions and relatively open migration framework, combined with worsening economic conditions at home, fuelled this early rise.

This momentum was briefly halted in 2020 when the COVID-19 pandemic brought global mobility to a near standstill. Border closures, lockdowns, and disruptions in visa processing curtailed movement sharply. The UK Home Office (2024) recorded an 18% drop in overall migration from Nigeria that year, with significant declines in both student and work visa issuances. Yet, the pause in mobility only deepened the determination to migrate. The pandemic exposed critical weaknesses in Nigeria's healthcare, education, and employment systems, amplifying citizens' loss of faith in state capacity (Ezeani, 2023). For many professionals and students, the health crisis was not merely a temporary obstacle but a turning point that solidified their resolve to seek stability abroad.

By 2021, as the UK reopened and introduced the Graduate Route Visa alongside the Health and Care Worker Visa, migration flows surged dramatically. The pent-up demand from the lockdown years was released in full. Nigerian student visas jumped from about 10,750 in 2020 to 28,900 in 2021, an extraordinary 168% rise within a single year (Home Office, 2024). Simultaneously, healthcare migration soared as Nigerian professionals capitalized on the UK's urgent need for skilled labour. The reopening of recruitment pathways for doctors, nurses, and caregivers positioned Nigeria among the top source countries for UK healthcare personnel, as Britain sought to replenish its pandemic-depleted workforce.

Migration reached its apex in 2022, a year that marked what scholars have termed the "Nigerian migration boom." The UK issued over 59,000 study visas to Nigerian nationals, while healthcare-related visas surpassed 11,000 (NMC, 2024; GMC, 2024). This record-breaking surge coincided with severe economic and institutional instability in Nigeria, where

inflation exceeded 18%, youth unemployment rose above 42%, and prolonged university strikes disrupted education for most of the year (NBS, 2023). These conditions produced a generation of disillusioned youths and professionals seeking continuity and opportunity elsewhere. The UK, with its relatively stable system, accessible pathways, and post-study work options, became the most attractive destination.

Though migration levels stabilized between 2023 and 2024, the figures remained historically high. The Home Office (2024) reported a modest 4% increase in study visas during this period, signalling that migration had reached a new equilibrium rather than declining. This suggests that emigration has evolved from a temporary escape to a sustained socio-economic strategy. The phenomenon, popularly captured by the Yoruba slang “japa,” meaning “to escape,” has transcended individual aspiration to become a collective expression of Nigeria’s search for hope beyond its borders.

This continuous pattern of growth, interrupted only by short-lived global disruptions, reveals the reactive nature of Nigerian migration to both opportunity and crisis. The steady increase from 2017 to 2019 reflected early economic disillusionment; the 2020 dip represented forced immobility; and the explosive rebound of 2021–2022 embodied a policy-driven exodus. By 2024, total migration from Nigeria to the UK had increased by well over 90% compared to 2017, highlighting a fundamental shift in the nation’s human capital landscape. This transformation is not merely statistical, it underscores the redefinition of migration as a structural response to domestic decline rather than a temporary pursuit of advancement.

Underlying this surge are persistent issues that continue to push citizens outward. Inflation, unemployment, currency devaluation, insecurity, and systemic governance failures have steadily eroded living standards, while the UK’s transparent, merit-based migration system offers both stability and opportunity (Ekeh & Oke, 2022). Consequently, each incremental

increase in migration can be read as a proportional decline in national optimism. The percentage growth between 2017 and 2024 thus narrates a broader story of contrast, one of economic stagnation at home juxtaposed with institutional efficiency abroad.

In essence, the sustained rise in migration during this seven-year period reflects a dual reality: while the UK benefits from the influx of skilled Nigerian professionals and students, Nigeria grapples with an accelerating depletion of its human capital. The steady outflow of talent, driven by necessity rather than mere ambition, continues to reshape Nigeria's social and economic fabric, signalling not only a demographic shift but a profound reconfiguration of national confidence and identity.

#### **4.4 Implications For Nigeria's Development**

The accelerating migration of Nigerians to the United Kingdom, particularly between 2017 and 2024, carries profound implications for Nigeria's long-term development trajectory. While migration can produce economic benefits through remittances, skills acquisition, and diaspora investment, the mass exodus of professionals, especially in critical sectors like healthcare, education, and technology, has increasingly translated into a net developmental loss. The phenomenon, often described as human capital flight or brain drain, erodes the nation's capacity to sustain internal growth and deliver essential public services. As more of Nigeria's brightest minds and most skilled workers relocate abroad, the foundations of institutional strength and productivity weaken, threatening not just short-term service delivery but the broader project of national development (Beine, Docquier & Rapoport, 2011).

##### **4.4.1 Human Capital Depletion And The Weakening Of Institutional Capacity**

The outflow of Nigeria's human capital, its doctors, lecturers, engineers, and skilled professionals, has reached a critical level that directly undermines the nation's social and

economic development. Human capital, defined as the collective skills, knowledge, and experience possessed by a population, is a key determinant of productivity and innovation. Its depletion through large-scale migration has left Nigeria increasingly dependent on external expertise, eroding institutional self-reliance and weakening the effectiveness of public institutions (Todaro & Smith, 2020).

The healthcare sector provides perhaps the most visible evidence of this crisis. Between 2017 and 2024, the United Kingdom alone licensed more than 12,000 Nigerian-trained doctors and over 8,000 nurses, representing a significant proportion of Nigeria's total healthcare workforce (GMC, 2024; NMC, 2024). These figures are alarming when considered against Nigeria's already fragile health infrastructure. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2024), the country's doctor-to-patient ratio remains at approximately 1:5,000, far below the global standard of 1:600. The consequences are dire: hospitals across the country are understaffed, waiting times are longer, and specialized care is increasingly unavailable in public facilities. In rural communities, where healthcare access is already limited, the shortage of medical professionals has led to preventable deaths and a reliance on underqualified personnel.

This migration has a multiplier effect on institutional weakness. The loss of experienced doctors and nurses also means the loss of mentors and trainers for future generations of health professionals. Medical schools and teaching hospitals struggle to retain faculty members, resulting in declining standards of education and clinical practice. Consequently, the healthcare sector experiences a self-perpetuating cycle: as conditions worsen, more professionals seek opportunities abroad, further draining the system of its best talent (Ogunyemi, 2023).

The education sector has similarly suffered from human capital depletion. Nigerian universities and research institutions have experienced an exodus of lecturers, administrators, and researchers who have migrated to the UK and other developed nations in search of better working conditions and intellectual freedom. The Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund, 2023) reported that between 2018 and 2023, more than 7,000 Nigerian lecturers left the country, with a significant number absorbed into UK universities. This outflow has weakened Nigeria's higher education system, which is already burdened by underfunding, overcrowded classrooms, and recurrent strikes by the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU).

The result is an alarming decline in the quality of teaching, research output, and institutional credibility. As more educators leave, universities are forced to rely on overworked or underqualified staff, leading to a deterioration in academic standards. The Times Higher Education (2023) ranking shows that no Nigerian university currently places among the top 500 globally, a reflection of how academic excellence has been hollowed out by human capital flight. Furthermore, the absence of a critical mass of experienced researchers has weakened Nigeria's ability to generate indigenous knowledge and technology, deepening dependency on foreign expertise and imported solutions.

In economic terms, the depletion of human capital imposes hidden costs that extend beyond immediate labour shortages. Every emigrating professional represents years of investment in education and training funded by public resources. When such individuals relocate abroad, the returns on that investment accrue not to Nigeria but to the host country. The World Bank (2023) estimates that sub-Saharan Africa loses billions of dollars annually in potential GDP due to brain drain, with Nigeria accounting for a significant share of that figure. The healthcare and education sectors, both pillars of human development, are thus simultaneously deprived of their workforce and their productivity potential.

The loss of skilled professionals also undermines institutional continuity and governance. Public institutions, whether hospitals, schools, or ministries, depend on experienced personnel to maintain operational efficiency. As these individuals leave, institutional memory and expertise are lost, disrupting administrative stability. For instance, the migration of skilled nurses and hospital administrators has led to inefficiencies in the implementation of health programs, while the departure of senior academics has slowed university accreditation processes and research funding cycles (Federal Ministry of Health, 2024). The cumulative effect is a visible decline in institutional performance, weakening public trust in state capacity. Beyond quantitative loss, human capital depletion has qualitative implications for national morale and social cohesion. The perception that success is attainable only through emigration has cultivated a defeatist mindset among Nigeria's youth. The popular "japa syndrome", a term widely used to describe the wave of migration, reflects not just physical relocation but a psychological withdrawal from civic commitment. When the most skilled and educated citizens choose to leave rather than reform their environment, the social fabric that binds citizens to national development weakens (Ekeh & Oke, 2022). Yet, it is important to acknowledge that migration is not purely detrimental. Remittances from Nigerians abroad contribute significantly to the national economy, estimated at over \$20 billion annually, making it one of the largest sources of foreign exchange after oil (World Bank, 2024). However, these financial inflows do not compensate for the loss of skilled labour, particularly in sectors that depend on human expertise rather than capital. While remittances may alleviate household poverty, they cannot replace doctors in hospitals, teachers in classrooms, or engineers in infrastructure projects.

#### **4.4.2 Economic Implications**

While migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom has brought substantial remittance inflows, the broader economic consequences reveal a paradox that undermines sustainable

development. On the surface, remittances provide a crucial lifeline for the Nigerian economy, acting as an informal social safety net and an alternative source of foreign exchange. However, when weighed against the long-term losses in domestic productivity, labour supply, and institutional capacity, it becomes clear that the economic benefits of migration are outweighed by the structural costs of human capital depletion.

According to the World Bank (2023), Nigeria received an estimated \$20.1 billion in remittances in 2022, making it the largest recipient in sub-Saharan Africa and one of the top ten globally. These inflows represent a significant share of national income, equivalent to about 4% of Nigeria's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). For millions of households, remittances are a financial lifeline, supporting basic needs such as education, healthcare, housing, and small-scale business ventures (Adesina, 2023). In times of economic volatility, particularly during currency devaluations and inflationary shocks, these inflows also serve as a stabilizing force, helping families maintain consumption levels despite declining domestic purchasing power.

Yet, while remittances are undeniably important at the microeconomic level, their macroeconomic impact remains limited and, in some respects, even counterproductive. Scholars have observed that remittances tend to foster consumption-driven economies rather than productive investment (Ratha et al., 2023). In Nigeria, much of the money sent from abroad is used for immediate household expenses rather than long-term capital accumulation or industrial growth. This pattern reinforces dependency and fails to generate multiplier effects in the productive sectors of the economy. Unlike Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), which typically brings technology and infrastructure, remittance flows are largely private transfers with minimal institutional coordination.

More critically, the benefits of remittances pale in comparison to the economic losses resulting from the export of skilled labour. Each migrating professional represents an investment of public resources that the country fails to recoup. The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS, 2023) estimates that training a single medical doctor in Nigeria costs the public sector roughly ₦10 million (about £8,000), yet the returns on this investment accrue to foreign economies when such professionals relocate permanently. Between 2017 and 2024, over 12,000 Nigerian-trained doctors and 8,000 nurses migrated to the UK (GMC, 2024; NMC, 2024), translating into a public investment loss exceeding ₦200 billion. This capital outflow is rarely offset by remittances, as most professionals send only a fraction of their income back home.

Furthermore, the emigration of skilled professionals has a multiplier effect on domestic productivity. When experienced doctors, engineers, or educators leave, the institutions they depart from experience a decline in efficiency, innovation, and service delivery. Hospitals are forced to operate below capacity, schools struggle to maintain teaching quality, and industries suffer from skill shortages that limit competitiveness. These productivity deficits collectively slow GDP growth and increase the economy's reliance on imports of expertise and technology (Ogunyemi, 2023). In the health sector, for instance, Nigeria spends over \$1.2 billion annually on medical tourism as citizens seek care abroad, an indirect consequence of the local system's incapacity caused by brain drain (Federal Ministry of Health, 2024).

The cumulative effect of this trend is a structural imbalance: while remittances inject short-term liquidity, they do not compensate for the long-term erosion of domestic capacity. The departure of skilled workers also reduces the country's tax base, leading to lower fiscal revenues. A shrinking pool of middle- and high-income earners undermines government capacity to fund public services and capital projects. As the productive workforce migrates,

the burden of sustaining the economy increasingly falls on a less-skilled population, further entrenching inequality and limiting economic diversification (World Bank, 2023).

Moreso, the overreliance on remittances introduces macroeconomic vulnerabilities. Because remittance flows are often influenced by global economic conditions and immigration policies in destination countries, they are inherently unstable. For instance, during the COVID-19 pandemic, global remittance inflows to developing countries briefly declined as diaspora incomes were affected by lockdowns and job losses (OECD, 2022). Such volatility exposes Nigeria to external shocks beyond its control, emphasizing the need for domestic economic resilience rather than dependency on diaspora inflows.

Another significant implication is the exchange rate distortion associated with remittance inflows. As large sums of foreign currency enter the economy through informal channels, they can contribute to speculative trading in the foreign exchange market. The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN, 2023) has noted that while remittances help stabilize the naira temporarily, they can also create parallel market pressures that fuel currency volatility. In essence, while remittances strengthen household consumption, they do not translate into structural improvements in the national economy or industrial productivity.

In the context of Nigeria–UK migration, the economic relationship increasingly reflects what scholars describe as asymmetric interdependence. The United Kingdom benefits from Nigeria’s trained professionals, who fill critical labour gaps and contribute to the UK’s GDP through taxes and services. In contrast, Nigeria bears the cost of training these professionals without reaping the economic benefits of their labour. The resulting dependency reproduces a global inequality pattern, where developing countries like Nigeria continue to export human resources while importing development outcomes (Wallerstein, 2004; Castles, de Haas & Miller, 2020).

### **4.4.3 Social Implications**

Beyond its economic and institutional aspects, the surge in Nigerian migration to the United Kingdom since 2017 has produced deep social consequences. Migration, though often pursued for prosperity, has reshaped family structures, social values, and the collective psychology of Nigerians. The search for better opportunities abroad amid domestic hardship has redefined notions of success, stability, and identity. While migration promises advancement, its social costs, particularly on family cohesion and national morale, are profound.

One of the most visible impacts is family separation. The exodus of working-age professionals, especially in healthcare and education, has fragmented family units across continents. Many migrants relocate alone, intending later reunification, but visa restrictions and financial limits often delay this process, creating emotional strain on both sides. Children left in the care of relatives often face challenges in discipline and attachment (Adewale, 2022). According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2023), most Nigerian migrants in the UK are aged 25–45, the prime years for family formation. Their absence disrupts traditional roles, giving rise to “transnational families” that function across borders but struggle to sustain intimacy (Bryceson & Vuorela, 2020). Studies have linked parental migration to emotional instability and poor academic performance among children, while spouses left behind face loneliness and social stigma (Ogunyemi, 2023).

Another major consequence is the normalization of migration as the ultimate aspiration, especially among youth. The popular slang “japa” meaning “to flee” has become a symbol of escape from a system seen as unworkable. Surveys by the Africa Polling Institute (API, 2023) show that over 70% of Nigerians aged 18–35 wish to emigrate permanently, reflecting deep frustration with governance and insecurity. Social media platforms amplify this ideal,

celebrating migrants' success stories while portraying those who remain as failures. Consequently, migration has become a badge of prestige, fostering pragmatism over patriotism and diminishing national identity. Social remittances, ideas and lifestyles imported from abroad, also reshape local attitudes. Families of migrants often adopt foreign consumption habits, creating subtle class divides. In cities like Lagos and Abuja, returnees with visible wealth reinforce the perception that success lies outside Nigeria (Ekeh & Oke, 2022). This fuels disengagement from civic participation, as young Nigerians increasingly see migration, not reform, as the solution to systemic dysfunction (Adegboye, 2021).

Gender dynamics further deepen these transformations. The growing number of women migrating, especially nurses and caregivers, challenges traditional gender roles (NMC, 2024). While this shift empowers women economically, it sometimes strains marital relationships and family structures (Adepoju, 2020).

#### **4.4.4 Implications For Nigeria–UK Relations**

The sustained migration of Nigerians to the United Kingdom since 2017 has generated complex socio-economic and political implications for both countries, reflecting broader patterns of inequality in the global migration system. This migratory trend is rooted in the historical, economic, and institutional linkages established during the colonial and postcolonial periods, which continue to shape mobility between Nigeria and its former colonial power (Adepoju, 2018). The United Kingdom has remained a prime destination for Nigerian migrants due to shared language, educational systems, and pre-existing diasporic networks, which facilitate easier integration and opportunity access (Akinrinade & Ogen, 2011). However, the flow of human capital from Nigeria to the United Kingdom has highlighted enduring asymmetries in power, development, and resource distribution between

the Global North and South, mirroring the structural hierarchies embedded within the postcolonial world order (Castles, de Haas, & Miller, 2020).

While migration has fostered deeper socio-economic linkages and strengthened bilateral relations, manifested in increased remittance flows, transnational investments, and the expansion of cultural diplomacy, it has also illuminated the uneven distribution of benefits accruing from such movements. For the United Kingdom, Nigerian migrants constitute a vital component of the skilled labour force, particularly in critical sectors such as healthcare, education, and information technology (OECD, 2022). The inflow of Nigerian professionals contributes significantly to the UK economy through tax revenues, social service participation, and the mitigation of skill shortages, particularly within the National Health Service (NHS) (Okafor & Nwogwugwu, 2021). In contrast, Nigeria faces the developmental costs of this migration in the form of persistent “brain drain”—the emigration of highly trained professionals whose absence weakens domestic capacity for innovation, public service delivery, and national productivity (Docquier & Rapoport, 2012). This imbalance reveals how migration, while ostensibly beneficial for both sending and receiving states, often reproduces pre-existing patterns of dependency and underdevelopment within peripheral nations.

The continued migration of Nigerian professionals to the United Kingdom can thus be interpreted through the lens of world-systems theory, as developed by Immanuel Wallerstein (2004). The theory posits that the global economy is structured around a hierarchical division of labour between “core” and “peripheral” states, in which the former dominates technologically and economically, while the latter provides human and material resources to sustain global capitalism. Within this framework, the United Kingdom occupies a core position, benefiting disproportionately from the inflow of skilled migrants, whereas Nigeria remains situated on the periphery, exporting labour while importing structural dependency

(Rodney, 1972; Wallerstein, 2004). The asymmetrical nature of this relationship underscores how historical colonial legacies and contemporary neoliberal policies intersect to perpetuate uneven development. Migration, therefore, becomes not merely an individual or social phenomenon but also a structural process through which inequalities between nations are maintained and legitimized (Moyo, 2020).

Furthermore, the implications of this sustained migration extend beyond economics to encompass political and diplomatic dimensions. On one hand, the Nigerian diaspora in the UK has become an influential socio-political constituency, contributing to soft power exchanges, remittance economies, and diaspora diplomacy (Iheduru, 2011). On the other hand, the persistent outflow of skilled Nigerians exposes the fragility of domestic governance and economic management, as limited employment opportunities, insecurity, and governance deficits continue to drive emigration (Adebayo, 2021). Consequently, while migration enhances people-to-people connectivity and strengthens cultural and educational cooperation, it simultaneously highlights the failure of domestic policies to retain human capital and promote sustainable development. The resulting pattern reflects a postcolonial dependency dynamic, wherein the United Kingdom's gain is intricately tied to Nigeria's developmental loss, thereby reinforcing the structural inequalities that underpin global migration flows (Adepoju, 2018; Castles et al., 2020). In essence, the sustained migration of Nigerians to the United Kingdom since 2017 exemplifies the paradox of postcolonial mobility, one that simultaneously promotes transnational integration and perpetuates global inequality. It reveals how migration serves as both a bridge and a barrier in the bilateral relationship, fostering interdependence while exposing asymmetry. The United Kingdom continues to reap economic and demographic benefits, whereas Nigeria grapples with the socio-economic consequences of talent depletion and the challenges of reaping equitable returns from its diaspora population. Viewed through the prism of world-systems theory, this migratory

relationship underscores how global structural forces continue to shape and constrain the developmental trajectories of nations situated at different levels of the international hierarchy.

#### **4.4.5 Asymmetrical Benefits And The Core–Periphery Dynamic**

The migration relationship between Nigeria and the United Kingdom is emblematic of what Immanuel Wallerstein (2004) termed a core–periphery system, where developed countries (the “core”) accumulate benefits from the economic and human resources of developing countries (the “periphery”). In this dynamic, the United Kingdom gains access to a ready supply of skilled labour, doctors, nurses, engineers, and academics, trained and financed largely by Nigeria’s public education system, while Nigeria suffers the loss of precisely those professionals needed to sustain its domestic development (Beine, Docquier & Rapoport, 2011).

The United Kingdom’s immigration policies since Brexit have strategically leveraged this dynamic. By introducing the Skilled Worker Visa and the Health and Care Worker Visa, the UK opened structured pathways for non-EU professionals to fill its post-Brexit labour shortages, especially in healthcare and social care sectors (Home Office, 2023). This policy shift was not altruistic but economically pragmatic, it ensured that the UK maintained its global competitiveness by tapping into external talent pools. Nigerian professionals, fluent in English and trained in a compatible educational system, became prime candidates for recruitment (OECD, 2022).

For the UK, the benefits are tangible and immediate. According to the General Medical Council (GMC, 2024), Nigerian-trained doctors make up one of the largest groups of foreign practitioners in Britain, numbering over 12,000 as of 2024. Similarly, the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC, 2024) recorded that 8,400 Nigerian nurses joined the UK register between 2021 and 2024. These professionals not only fill essential workforce gaps but also

contribute significantly to the UK economy through taxes, pensions, and social security payments. In 2023 alone, the Office for National Statistics (ONS, 2024) estimated that foreign-born healthcare workers, including Nigerians, contributed approximately £8 billion to the UK's healthcare-related GDP.

By contrast, Nigeria experiences a developmental drain rather than a gain. The departure of these highly skilled workers weakens critical sectors such as healthcare and education, leading to a decline in service quality and productivity at home. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2024) has consistently listed Nigeria among countries facing a “critical health workforce shortage,” a situation worsened by the emigration of trained personnel to developed nations. The result is a paradox: while Nigeria's professionals help sustain the UK's healthcare system, Nigerians at home face declining access to quality medical services, evidenced by the worsening doctor-to-patient ratio of 1:5,000, compared to 1:600 in the UK.

The asymmetry extends beyond economics to issues of diplomatic dependency. Nigeria's growing reliance on the UK for educational and employment opportunities reinforces a hierarchical relationship reminiscent of colonial dependency structures. As thousands of Nigerians pursue British degrees and professional accreditation, the UK consolidates its role as a knowledge and labour hub, while Nigeria's domestic institutions suffer from underfunding and declining credibility (Ogunyemi, 2023). The result is an intellectual dependency where the validation of expertise is increasingly tied to foreign systems rather than local innovation.

Furthermore, the remittances and diaspora networks that emerge from this migration reinforce the UK's economic influence in subtle but enduring ways. Remittances from Nigerian migrants in the UK, estimated at \$20.1 billion in 2022, serve as a crucial stabilizing mechanism for Nigeria's economy (World Bank, 2023). Yet these inflows also tether Nigeria

to the UK's economic orbit, as fluctuations in the British labour market or immigration policies can directly affect Nigeria's foreign exchange reserves and household incomes. This dependency echoes the "neocolonial economic relationship" described by dependency theorists, where former colonies remain economically subordinate through indirect mechanisms of labour and capital flow (Rodney, 1982).

Culturally, migration has reinforced the UK's soft power in Nigeria. British universities, professional bodies, and cultural institutions have become symbols of prestige and success, shaping social aspirations and reinforcing anglophone identity. This influence extends into governance and policy frameworks, where British models often serve as templates for reform. While this fosters international cooperation, it also perpetuates a one-sided exchange in which Nigeria imports values, systems, and expertise from the UK without achieving equal influence or reciprocity (Ekeh & Oke, 2022).

The asymmetrical benefits of the migration relationship thus create a dual dependency: the UK depends on Nigeria's human resources, while Nigeria depends on the UK for remittances, validation, and mobility. This relationship sustains the hierarchical logic of global capitalism, where the flow of people and skills mirrors historical patterns of extraction and exploitation, only now, instead of natural resources, what is extracted is human intellect and expertise (Castles, de Haas & Miller, 2020). In the long run, such asymmetry has political implications. Nigeria's diplomatic posture toward the UK is increasingly shaped by migration-related considerations, including visa quotas, student admissions, and labour agreements. The UK–Nigeria Migration and Mobility Partnership (2021), for example, was presented as a framework for mutual benefit but, in practice, prioritizes the UK's labour and security interests (Home Office, 2023). The agreement's emphasis on repatriation of "irregular migrants" and streamlined recruitment of skilled workers reflects this imbalance. Nigeria's

bargaining position remains weak, constrained by its dependence on diaspora remittances and its inability to retain talent domestically.

Thus, while migration has undeniably deepened Nigeria–UK ties, it has done so within a structure that overwhelmingly benefits the United Kingdom. The migration flow enriches the UK economically and institutionally, while Nigeria continues to grapple with the socio-economic consequences of losing its skilled workforce. Within the world-systems framework, the UK remains firmly positioned in the “core,” reaping the rewards of globalization, while Nigeria persists in the “periphery,” supplying labour and consuming knowledge without achieving equitable reciprocity.

#### **4.4.6 Migration As A Diplomatic Issue**

In recent years, migration has evolved from a socio-economic trend into a central diplomatic issue between Nigeria and the United Kingdom. The massive post-Brexit movement of Nigerians, particularly students and healthcare professionals, has redefined bilateral relations, presenting both cooperation opportunities and strategic tensions. While Nigeria faces the domestic consequences of brain drain, the UK has institutionalized migration as part of its labour and foreign policy framework through structured recruitment schemes and bilateral agreements (Home Office, 2023).

Following Brexit in 2020, the UK’s restricted access to European labour markets prompted a strategic turn to Commonwealth nations, notably Nigeria, to fill skill shortages. This shift positioned Nigeria as a key partner in shaping the UK’s post-Brexit global identity, making migration a central topic in diplomatic and economic engagements (Home Office, 2023). The UK–Nigeria Migration and Mobility Partnership (MMP) of 2021 exemplifies this relationship, promoting both legal labour mobility and the repatriation of irregular migrants (UK Home Office, 2021). While described as “mutually beneficial,” the agreement reflects

asymmetry, serving the UK's dual goals of addressing domestic labour gaps while strengthening border control.

From Nigeria's perspective, the partnership opens employment pathways but raises ethical concerns, especially regarding healthcare recruitment. Despite being classified by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2023) as a "red-flagged country" due to critical workforce shortages, Nigerian professionals remain prime targets for British recruitment drives (OECD, 2022). This dynamic exemplifies what Adepoju (2020) terms structural dependency, a modern form of resource extraction where labour flows from poorer to richer states under the guise of legal migration. The British government's defence of "individual choice" in recruitment has faced criticism for perpetuating brain drain and weakening Nigeria's public institutions (GMC, 2024).

In response, both governments have introduced capacity-building measures, including the Global Health Workforce Alliance (GHWA) and the Health Partnership Scheme, funded by UK Aid (UK Department of Health, 2022). However, these interventions remain insufficient compared to the scale of professional losses. The UK benefits from thousands of Nigerian-trained experts, yet its compensatory investments in Nigeria's human capital remain minimal. Diplomatically, migration now shapes broader bilateral issues such as governance, human rights, and development aid. The UK often links migration cooperation to reforms in education and anti-corruption (British High Commission Abuja, 2023), while Nigeria leverages its large UK-based diaspora as a soft-power resource, promoting trade, remittances, and cultural diplomacy (Ekeh & Oke, 2022).

Nonetheless, tensions persist. Nigeria worries about the long-term developmental costs of skilled migration and the perceived inequities in migration agreements. Provisions for deportations and dependence on UK institutions for accreditation reinforce postcolonial

imbalances. Yet, both nations continue to engage through regular dialogues on migration management, diaspora policy, and skills exchange. The growing attention to ethical recruitment and fair mobility signals a gradual move toward more balanced and sustainable migration diplomacy (ILO, 2023).

#### **4.4.7 The Future of Nigeria–UK Migration: Between Opportunity And Dependency**

Looking ahead, the trajectory of migration between Nigeria and the United Kingdom is poised to remain both dynamic and complex, shaped by the intersection of economic realities, policy reforms, and social aspirations on both sides. The patterns observed between 2017 and 2024 suggest that this movement will not only continue but also intensify in new forms, driven by structural factors that neither government has fully addressed. The United Kingdom’s persistent need for skilled labour, particularly in healthcare, technology, and education, combined with Nigeria’s deep-rooted challenges of unemployment, insecurity, and governance failure, will continue to sustain a robust migration pipeline in the coming years (Home Office, 2024; World Bank, 2024).

Demographic trends strongly support this forecast. Nigeria’s population, estimated at over 223 million in 2024, is projected to reach nearly 250 million by 2030, with more than 60% of its citizens under the age of 30 (National Population Commission, 2024). This youth bulge, while potentially a demographic dividend, also presents a crisis of employment if the domestic economy cannot absorb millions of new labour market entrants annually. With Nigeria’s unemployment rate hovering around 33% and youth unemployment exceeding 40%, the desire to migrate will remain high (NBS, 2023). In essence, as long as economic opportunities remain scarce and political instability persists, the “push” forces driving Nigerians abroad will not abate.

On the UK side, the demand for foreign labour is unlikely to diminish. Post-Brexit Britain continues to face shortages in healthcare, hospitality, logistics, and education, sectors that rely heavily on migrant labour. The UK Office for National Statistics (ONS, 2024) projects that the healthcare sector alone will need over 475,000 additional workers by 2035 to sustain the National Health Service (NHS). Given Nigeria's large, English-speaking, and globally mobile workforce, the country will remain a prime source for recruitment. Furthermore, the UK's new immigration policies, such as the Skilled Worker Visa and Graduate Route, provide structured, long-term pathways that encourage not just temporary migration but settlement and family reunification. This means future migration will likely evolve from short-term professional mobility into permanent diaspora establishment, deepening Nigeria's brain drain. However, the forecast is not unilaterally bleak. The expanding Nigerian diaspora in the UK could serve as a transformative asset if strategically engaged. By 2024, there are an estimated 1.2 million Nigerians living in the UK, making them one of the most educated and economically active African diasporas (ONS, 2024). If effectively harnessed, this group could drive bilateral trade, technology transfer, and knowledge exchange between both nations. Initiatives such as diaspora bonds, academic exchange programmes, and innovation partnerships could convert migration from a source of loss into a lever for development (Ekeh & Oke, 2022). The challenge lies in Nigeria's capacity to institutionalize mechanisms that connect its diaspora's expertise to domestic priorities, rather than viewing migration merely as an economic escape valve.

Nevertheless, without substantial policy reform, the balance of benefits will likely continue to tilt in favour of the United Kingdom. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2023) has warned that Nigeria's ongoing exodus of medical professionals, estimated at over 5,000 annually, could reach unsustainable levels by 2030, leaving the country with less than half the required healthcare workforce to serve its growing population. Similarly, the education sector

risks further depletion as lecturers and researchers seek better pay and institutional support abroad (TETFund, 2023). These projections underscore a troubling scenario: a Nigeria that funds human capital for export while struggling to maintain service delivery at home.

The future of Nigeria–UK migration, therefore, hinges on whether both nations can transition from a relationship of dependency to one of mutual benefit and shared responsibility. For Nigeria, this means investing aggressively in domestic employment, vocational training, and professional retention policies. For the United Kingdom, it means adopting more ethical recruitment practices and supporting sustainable capacity development in source countries. Programs that reinvest part of the economic gains from migrant labour into Nigeria’s healthcare and education systems could create a more equitable framework for cooperation (ILO, 2023).

Culturally and socially, migration will remain deeply embedded in the Nigerian psyche. The “japa syndrome” is not merely a temporary trend but a generational identity, a belief that global mobility equals opportunity. Unless the Nigerian state restores public trust through visible governance reforms, secure livelihoods, and meritocratic advancement, this migratory mindset will persist. By contrast, the UK’s continued demographic decline and ageing population will ensure that it remains receptive to skilled migrants from countries like Nigeria.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION

#### 5.1. Summary

This study explores the growing wave of economic migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom between 2016 and 2024, focusing on the issue of brain drain and its implications for Nigeria–UK relations. It situates the phenomenon within Nigeria’s worsening socio-economic conditions, high unemployment exceeding 33%, insecurity, corruption, and institutional decay, which have driven many skilled professionals to seek stability and opportunity abroad, especially in the UK. Using a qualitative approach, the study applies the Push–Pull Theory of Migration and World Systems Theory. The Push–Pull Theory explains how poor working conditions, limited career prospects, and political instability in Nigeria propel emigration, while the UK’s economic strength, transparent immigration routes, and institutional stability attract skilled Nigerians. World Systems Theory further frames this movement within a global capitalist order sustained by colonial and economic ties, where Nigeria remains a peripheral supplier of human capital to the UK’s core labour market, particularly in healthcare and education. Empirical evidence shows a 95% rise in Nigerian migration to the UK, from 215,000 in 2017 to 420,000 in 2024, with a peak during 2021–2022 following post-Brexit visa reforms such as the Health and Care Worker Visa and Graduate Route Visa. Study visas rose from 9,800 in 2017 to 64,000 in 2024, while over 12,000 Nigerian-trained doctors and 8,000 nurses were licensed in the UK during the same period. The migration surge has worsened Nigeria’s human capital crisis. The doctor-to-patient ratio fell to 1:5,000, well below the WHO’s 1:600 standard, while over 7,000 lecturers left between 2018 and 2023, weakening education quality. Socially, family separation and the popularization of the “Japa syndrome” reflect a declining sense of national commitment.

Although remittances from the UK now reach about \$20 billion annually, the study concludes that financial inflows cannot offset the loss of skilled professionals and institutional capacity. The Nigeria–UK migration dynamic thus reflects an unequal relationship in which the UK benefits from Nigeria’s human capital, perpetuating a modern form of neocolonial dependence, where intellectual resources, rather than natural ones, are extracted from the periphery to sustain the core.

## **5.2. Conclusion**

This study concludes that the rising economic migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom between 2016 and 2024 represents a major developmental crisis rather than a mere demographic shift. The mass emigration of skilled professionals, particularly between 2020 and 2022, reflects deep-seated failures in governance, economic management, and institutional capacity. Worsening unemployment, insecurity, inflation, and poor working conditions have turned migration into a necessity for survival, while the UK’s post-Brexit immigration reforms, especially in healthcare and education, have created structured avenues that accelerate this outflow. Viewed through the lens of World Systems Theory, the trend sustains a neocolonial pattern in which Nigeria, as a peripheral state, supplies human capital to the UK’s core economy. Nigeria’s heavy investment in professional training benefits the UK’s labour market more than its own development. The healthcare and education sectors have been particularly affected, with over 20,000 Nigerian-trained doctors and nurses relocating, leaving a doctor-to-patient ratio of 1:5,000, far below global standards. Universities have lost thousands of lecturers, resulting in reduced research productivity and poor global rankings. Although remittances from the UK, averaging over \$20 billion annually, provide financial relief to households, they cannot compensate for the loss of human expertise, innovation, and institutional continuity. Most remittances are used for consumption rather than productive investment, highlighting the imbalance between short-

term gains and long-term developmental losses. The normalization of the “Japa syndrome,” where migration is equated with success, has also eroded civic commitment and faith in national reform. The study finds Nigeria’s policy responses weak and reactive, while bilateral frameworks like the UK–Nigeria Migration and Mobility Partnership largely favour the UK’s interests. Without ethical recruitment standards, fair compensation mechanisms, and strong domestic reforms, Nigeria will continue to lose its most valuable resource, its people. The migration crisis, therefore, mirrors the broader governance crisis. Addressing it requires decisive leadership, coherent policy action, and equitable international collaboration to rebuild national capacity and stem the tide of brain drain.

### **5.3. Recommendations**

Curbing Nigeria’s brain drain to the United Kingdom requires an integrated approach that tackles domestic challenges, strengthens governance, harnesses diaspora potential, and promotes fairer migration relations. Nigeria must improve professional retention by creating an enabling environment that rewards skill and productivity. Competitive salaries, improved working conditions, and transparent career advancement systems are essential. Sectors like health, education, and technology need better funding, modern facilities, and reliable infrastructure. The government should allocate at least 15% of the national budget to education and 10% to healthcare in line with global standards. Transparent promotion systems, research grants, and Centres of Excellence within universities and teaching hospitals can motivate professionals to remain and contribute locally.

Reforms must also address governance and institutional decay. Strengthening anti-corruption agencies, ensuring accountability in public spending, and stabilizing the political environment are crucial. Security must be improved through intelligence-driven policing and social

interventions that restore citizens' confidence. The education sector needs consistent funding and dialogue to end recurring strikes and promote stability in academic institutions.

Nigeria should also turn brain drain into brain circulation by engaging its diaspora more strategically. Strengthening the Nigerians in Diaspora Commission (NiDCOM) will help channel the expertise and resources of professionals abroad into national development. Establishing virtual platforms for mentorship, training, and research collaboration can bridge skill gaps. Incentives such as tax reliefs, simplified business registration, and reintegration programs should be introduced to encourage return migration. Likewise, remittances exceeding \$20 billion annually should be directed into productive ventures through transparent diaspora investment schemes.

On the diplomatic front, Nigeria must renegotiate its migration relationship with the UK to ensure equity and ethical recruitment. The UK should be encouraged to support Nigeria's capacity-building efforts through compensatory contributions to training and infrastructure. Circular migration agreements should also be promoted, allowing professionals to gain experience abroad while maintaining institutional ties at home. Joint research programs, faculty exchanges, and telemedicine collaborations can enhance mutual benefits.

Finally, a national reorientation campaign is needed to reshape perceptions of success and restore confidence in the Nigerian system. Media, education, and public institutions should celebrate innovation and achievement within the country. Expanding youth employment, vocational training, and entrepreneurship programs can offer viable alternatives to migration. In essence, reversing brain drain requires more than isolated interventions, it demands visionary leadership, strong institutions, and ethical international cooperation. Through coordinated reforms, Nigeria can transform its human capital loss into a catalyst for sustainable national renewal.

#### **5.4. Contribution To Knowledge**

This study makes vital contributions to migration studies, international relations, and African development by providing a theoretically grounded and empirically detailed analysis of economic migration from Nigeria to the United Kingdom, as well as its implications for brain drain and bilateral relations. Empirically, it provides one of the most comprehensive documentations of Nigerian migration trends between 2016 and 2024, revealing how post-Brexit reforms, the COVID-19 pandemic, and UK policy changes triggered a 553% rise in student visas and the migration of over 20,000 healthcare professionals. These findings fill a major data gap and serve as a foundation for future research and policy formulation.

Theoretically, the study integrates the Push-Pull and World Systems frameworks, illustrating how individual migration choices are shaped by structural inequalities and colonial legacies. It advances understanding by redefining brain drain as “systemic human capital depletion,” emphasizing its broader effects on institutional strength, mentorship, and national development.

Through sectoral analysis, the research demonstrates how professional migration has critically weakened Nigeria’s healthcare and education sectors, resulting in service gaps and deteriorating standards. It also situates migration within Nigeria–UK bilateral relations, introducing a “migration diplomacy” perspective that exposes the asymmetrical benefits favouring the UK.

Methodologically, the use of trend analysis enhances understanding of temporal migration dynamics, while the critique of remittance dependency challenges existing development assumptions. Overall, the study contributes new theoretical, empirical, and policy insights that advance African migration scholarship and inform strategies for sustainable human capital management.

## REFERENCES

- Abdikirin, O. D. (2024). *Acting From a Distance: The Role of the Somali Diaspora Based in South Africa in Somalia's Development*. University of Johannesburg (South Africa).
- Adebayo, A. A., & Udegbe, B. M. (2021). Family structure, parental migration and adolescent well-being in Nigeria. *African Journal of Psychology and Behavioural Sciences, 1*(2), (45–62).
- Adebayo, S. (2021). COVID-19 and health worker migration: Lessons from Nigeria's pandemic experience. *African Health Journal, 12*(3), (221–237).
- Adebayo, A. (2020). The effects of brain drain on Nigeria's national development. *Journal of African Policy Studies, 8*(1), (20–34).
- Adejumo, T. O., & Alimi, O. Y. (2020). Brain drain and the implications for sustainable development in Nigeria. *Journal of African Development Studies, 10*(2), (45-61).
- Adeleye, N., Akinleye, G., & Echebiri, R. (2021). Human Capital Flight and Economic Development in Nigeria: A Critical Review. *African Journal of Economic Policy, 28*(1), (47-64).
- Adenuga, Y. A. (2024). Determinants of African Migration: *The Nigerian Experience in the Czech Republic*.
- Adepoju, A. (2020). *Migration dynamics and development in Africa*. African Centre for Migration and Society.
- Adepoju, A. (2008). *Migration in sub-Saharan Africa*. Uppsala: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet.
- Adepoju, A. (2003). Continuity and changing configurations of migration in Africa. In *International Migration, 41*(1), (3–28).
- Adepoju, A. (2003). Migration in West Africa. *Development, 46*(3), 37–41. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.development.1110374>
- Adepoju, A. (2009). *Migration in sub-Saharan Africa*. Uppsala: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet.
- Adepoju, A., & Afolayan, A. (2020). Migration in Nigeria: A Country Profile 2019. International Organization for Migration.

- Adepoju, A. (2021). Migration in sub-Saharan Africa: Trends, patterns, and implications. *African Migration Journal*, 14(2), (45–63).
- Afolayan, A. A., Ikwuyatum, G. O., & Abejide, O. (2008). Dynamics of international migration in Nigeria: A review of literature. Ibadan: University of Ibadan.
- Afolayan, A. A. (2010). *Migration in Nigeria: A Country Profile*. International Organization for Migration.
- Afolayan, A.A. (2020). Migration and Development Nexus in Nigeria: The Role of the Diaspora. *Journal of African Migration Studies*, 8(2), (110–130).
- Afrobarometer. (2022). *Migration aspirations among African youth: Nigeria country survey 2022*. Accra: Afrobarometer.
- Agba, E & Erewa, G (2023). ECOWAS Sub-Regional Integration and Free Migration: A Critical Review of Nigeria’s National Security (Chapter Two), in *Securing Nigeria in the 21st Century: The Issues*; ed by Olufunmilade, F, Agba, E, & Erewa, G. Lagos: Book Source Nigeria Ltd.
- Agba E and Ozor P (2025). *International Economic Relations: Theoretical Foundations & Perspectives*. De Beloved Publishers.
- Agbelusi, O. O. (2023). *British Anti-Slavery, Trade, and Nascent Colonialism on the Sierra Leone Peninsula, c. 1860–1960* (Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University).
- Ajayi, J. F. A. (2019). *Christian missions and education in Nigeria: The making of a colonial elite*. Ibadan: University Press.
- Akinola, A. O., & Bjarnesen, J. (Eds.). (2024). *Worlds Apart?: Perspectives on Africa–EU Migration*. Taylor & Francis.
- Akinrinade, S., & Ogen, O. (2011). Historicizing the Nigerian Diaspora: Nigerian Migrants and Homeland Relations. *Turkish Journal of Politics*, 2(2), (71–85).
- Akinrinade, S., & Ogen, O. (2011). Historicizing the Nigerian diaspora: Nigerian migrants in the United Kingdom, c. 1980–2008. *The African Diaspora*, 4(2), (211-236).
- Akinyemi, A., & Isiugo-Abanihe, U. (2021). *Migration and development in Africa: Trends, patterns and policy implications*. Ibadan: University of Ibadan Press.

- Akinyemi, T., & Adesina, O. (2022). The politics of migration and youth aspirations in Nigeria. *African Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Research*, 9(1), (118–136).
- Amnesty International. (2022). *Nigeria: No Place for the Poor – How Corruption and Insecurity Drove Nigerians to Seek Asylum in the UK*. London: Amnesty International Publications.
- Ani, K. J., Oyeweso, S., & Olawale, Y. (2023). Labour migration in Africa: A political-economy overview. In *Political economy of colonial relations and crisis of contemporary African diplomacy* (pp. 225-243). Singapore: Springer Nature Singapore.
- Awad, I. (2014). *The Challenge of Migration Policy and Governance in Africa*. United Nations Economic Commission for Africa.
- Awad, M. H. (2023). Place and the structuring of cross-sector partnerships: The moral and material conflicts over healthcare and homelessness. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 184(4), 933-955.
- Awases, M., Gbary, A., Nyoni, J., & Chatora, R. (2004). Migration of health professionals in six countries: A synthesis report. WHO Regional Office for Africa.
- Bakar, N. A., & Iwu, C. G. (2019). Academic migration: Nigerian lecturers in the United Kingdom. *International Journal of Educational Development in Africa*, 5(1), 15-26.
- Bakewell, O. (2009). *South–South migration and human development: Reflections on African experiences*. Human Development Research Paper 2009/07. United Nations Development Programme.
- Becker, G. S. (1964). *Human Capital: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis, with Special Reference to Education*. University of Chicago Press.
- Beine, M., Docquier, F., & Rapoport, H. (2011). Brain drain and human capital formation in developing countries. *Economic Journal*, 118(528), (631–652).
- Beine, M., Docquier, F., & Rapoport, H. (2011). Brain drain and human capital formation in developing countries. *Economic Journal*, 121(554), (245–272).

- Beine, M., Docquier, F., & Rapoport, H. (2008). Brain drain and human capital formation in developing countries: Winners and losers. *The Economic Journal*, 118(528), (631–652).
- Borjas, G. J. (1989). Economic theory and international migration. *International Migration Review*, 23(3), (457–485).
- Boyd, M., & Grieco, E. M. (2003). Women and migration: Incorporating gender into international migration theory. *Migration Information Source*. Retrieved from <https://www.migrationpolicy.org>
- British Council. (2023). *Nigeria–UK Education and Workforce Mobility Report 2023*. London: British Council.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), (27–40). <https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), (77–101). <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Buchanan, A. (2023). Globalizing the second world war. *Past & Present*, 258(1), (246–281).
- British Council. (2023). *Nigeria–UK education partnership report 2023*. London: British Council.
- Buchanan, A. (2023). Globalizing the second world war. *Past & Present*, 258(1), (246–281).
- Castles, S., de Haas, H., & Miller, M. J. (2020). *The Age of Migration: International Population Movements in the Modern World* (6th ed.). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Castles, S., de Haas, H., & Miller, M. J. (2014). *The Age of Migration: International Population Movements in the Modern World* (5th ed.). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Castles, S., & Miller, M. J. (2009). *The age of migration: International population movements in the modern world* (4th ed.). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Central Bank of Nigeria. (2023). *Macroeconomic indicators and inflation trends*. Abuja: CBN Bulletin.
- Chikanda, A., & Crush, J. (2017). *Harnessing diasporas for development: The case of Zimbabwean health professionals in the UK*. Migration Policy Series No. 75, Southern African Migration Programme.

- Chikezie, E. (2022). Social media and the migration dream: An analysis of youth perspectives in Nigeria. *International Journal of Digital Migration Studies*, 3(1), (35–50).
- Crawley, H., Duvell, F., Sigona, N., McMahon, S., & Jones, K. (2016). *Destination Europe? Understanding the dynamics and drivers of Mediterranean migration in 2015*. MEDMIG Final Report.
- Czaika, M., & Weisner, Z. (2025). Migration aspirations and their realisation: a configurational driver analysis of 26 African and Asian research areas. *Comparative Migration Studies*, 13(1), 8.
- Dabalén, A., Oni, B., & Adekola, O. A. (2021). *The labour market for health and education professionals in Nigeria: Trends and challenges*. World Bank Nigeria Policy Working Paper, No. 10345.
- de Haas, H. (2010). *Migration transitions: A theoretical and empirical inquiry into the developmental drivers of international migration*. International Migration Institute Working Paper No. 24.
- de Haas, H. (2006). *International migration and development: Issues and policies*. Social Science Research Council Paper Series.
- Department of Health and Social Care (DHSC). (2023). *Ethical recruitment of international health workers*. London: UK Government.
- Docquier, F., & Rapoport, H. (2012). Globalization, Brain Drain, and Development. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 50(3), (681–730).
- Docquier, F., & Lodigiani, E. (2010). Skilled Migration and Business Networks. *Open Economies Review*, 21(4), (565–588).
- Ducu, V., Lever, J. J., Rone, J., & Telegdi-Csetri, Á. (2024). Beyond ‘Those Who Leave and Those Who Stay’: the simultaneous impacts of co-agency in migration. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 50(17), (4253-4278).
- Dustmann, C., & Frattini, T. (2014). The fiscal effects of immigration to the UK. *The Economic Journal*, 124(580), (F593–F643).
- Ekeh, P., & Oke, D. (2022). The Nigerian diaspora in the United Kingdom: Social networks and migration systems. *Journal of African Migration Studies*, 10(2), (45–61).

- Eke, P. (2022). Diaspora networks and migration facilitation: The Nigerian experience in the United Kingdom. *Journal of African Migration Studies*, 11(2), (78–99).
- Eltis, D., & Richardson, D. (2010). *Atlas of the Transatlantic Slave Trade*. Yale University Press.
- Elo, M., Volovelsky, E. K., & Wang, Y. (2023). Policy approaches and transnational diaspora entrepreneurship in China. *Research handbook on transnational diaspora entrepreneurship*, 341-363.
- Ezeani, E. (2022). Insecurity, governance and migration decisions among Nigerian professionals. *African Security Review*, 31(4), (412–431).
- Ezeani, E. (2023). Insecurity, governance, and migration decisions among Nigerian professionals. *African Security Review*, 32(1), (58–75).
- Eze, C. N. (2023). Assessing the Nigeria-UK migration partnership agreement: Opportunities and challenges. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 24(2), (291–309).
- Falola, T., & Oyebade, A. (2013). *The United Kingdom and Nigeria: A Political and Diplomatic History*. Rochester: University of Rochester Press.
- Federal Ministry of Health. (2023). *National Health Workforce Report 2023*. Abuja: FMOH.
- Federal Ministry of Health. (2024). *National Health Workforce Report 2024*. Abuja: FMOH.
- Feist, L. (2024). *Imbalances between supply and demand: Recent causes of labour shortages in advanced economies* (No. 115). ILO Working Paper.
- Frank, A. G. (1967). *Capitalism and Underdevelopment in Latin America: Historical Studies of Chile and Brazil*. Monthly Review Press.
- Garwe, E. C., & Thondhlana, J. (2024). Harnessing the diaspora advantage: Building knowledge democracy and inclusive growth in Africa. *AJIS*, 4(1).
- Gebrewold, B. (2024). The Economic Dimension of the Postcolonial African Migration to the West. In *Postcolonial African Migration to the West: A Mimetic Desire for Being* (pp. 37-81). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- General Medical Council (GMC). (2023). *List of Registered Medical Practitioners by Country of Qualification*. London: GMC.

- General Medical Council. (2023). *State of Medical Education and Practice in the UK Report*. Retrieved from <https://www.gmc-uk.org/>
- General Medical Council (GMC). (2024). *List of Registered Medical Practitioners by Country of Qualification*. London: GMC.
- Global Terrorism Index. (2023). *Measuring the impact of terrorism 2023*. Sydney: Institute for Economics and Peace.
- Gürcan, E. C. (2024). Neoliberalism and the Global Migrant Crisis: A World-Ecology Perspective. *Critical Sociology*, 08969205241295915.
- Hansen, R. (2000). *Citizenship and Immigration in Post-War Britain: The Institutional Origins of a Multicultural Nation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- HESA. (2023). *UK higher education: International student data 2021/2022*. London: Higher Education Statistics Agency.
- Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA). (2023). *UK higher education: International student data 2021/2022*. London: HESA.
- Home Office. (2023). *UK Immigration Statistics: Year Ending December 2023*. London: UK Government.
- Home Office. (2024). *UK Immigration Statistics: Year Ending June 2024*. London: UK Government.
- Ihonvbere, J. O. (2003). Structural Adjustment Programmes and the Political Economy of Development in Africa. In: *Political Reform and Economic Recovery in Africa*. Africa World Press.
- Imagha, O. A., Efi, A. E., Williams, A. J., & Etim, E. O. Economic Factors influencing Brain Flight Intention among Medical Doctors in Federal Tertiary Healthcare Institutions, South-South, Nigeria.
- International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2020). *World Migration Report 2020*. Geneva: IOM.
- International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2023). *World Migration Report 2023*. Geneva: IOM.

- International Labour Organization (ILO). (2015). *Labour migration in Africa: Trends, challenges and policy implications*. Geneva: ILO.
- International Organization for Migration (IOM). (2014). *Migration Policy Practice: Nigerian migration trends and policies*. Geneva: IOM.
- Konan, E. R. U. (2024). *Circular Migration and Unequal Treatment of Third-Country Nationals: An Intersectional Analysis of Migration Across Europe, the Gulf Region, and West Africa* (Master's thesis, Webster University).
- Lee, E. S. (1966). A Theory of Migration. *Demography*, 3(1), (47–57).  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/2060063>
- Mabogunje, A. (1970). Systems approach to a theory of rural–urban migration. *Geographical Analysis*, 2(1), (1–18).
- Martin, P. (2017). Managing Migration: Recruiters and low-skill Migrants. *Migration und Globalisierung in Zeiten des Umbruchs*, 65.
- Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., & Taylor, J. E. (1993). Theories of International Migration: A Review and Appraisal. *Population and Development Review*, 19(3), (431–466).
- McLeman, R. A. (2014). *Climate and Human Migration: Past Experiences, Future Challenges*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- MDCN (Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria). (2022). *Annual Report on Healthcare Professional Registration and Migration Trends*. Abuja: MDCN.
- Mercer, C., Page, B., & Evans, M. (2008). *Development and the African Diaspora: Place and the Politics of Home*. Zed Books.
- Migration Advisory Committee. (2021). *Impact of the UK's Points-Based Immigration System*. London: Home Office.
- Migration Advisory Committee. (2023). *Impact of the UK's Points-Based Immigration System*. London: Home Office.
- Mousa Sabti, Y., & Sri Ramalu, S. (2024). Home country economic, political, social push factors and intention to migrate in Iraq: psychological distress as mediator. *Cogent Business & Management*, 11(1), 2299507.

- National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). (2023). *Labour Force Statistics: Unemployment and Underemployment Report Q4 2022*. Abuja: NBS.
- National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA). (2023). *ICT Workforce Migration Report 2023*. Abuja: NITDA.
- National Universities Commission (NUC). (2022). *Annual Report on Higher Education Funding in Nigeria*. Abuja: NUC.
- Nigerian Centre for Disease Control. (2021). *COVID-19 situation report (SitRep No. 150)*. Abuja: NCDC.
- Nigerian Medical Association (NMA). (2023). *Survey on Physician Emigration and Workforce Retention*. Abuja: NMA.
- Nigerian Medical Association (NMA). (2022). *Survey on Physician Emigration and Workforce Retention*. Abuja: NMA.
- Nilsson, P. A., & Westin, L. (2024). International academic mobility in a time of security threats: Policies and institutional adaptations to maintain the benefits of an open academy—the Swedish case. *Social Sciences & Humanities Open*, 10, 101007.
- Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC). (2023). *Overseas Registration Data Report 2023*. London: NMC.
- Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC). (2024). *Overseas Registration Data Report 2024*. London: NMC.
- NOI Polls. (2022). *Post-pandemic migration intention survey among Nigerian youth*. Lagos: NOI Polls.
- Nwajiuba, C. (2020). The role of diaspora engagement in national development: The Nigerian experience. *African Journal of Development Studies*, 12(1), (29–43).
- Oche, O. (2022). Nigeria-UK relations in the era of global migration: Diplomatic trends and policy implications. *Nigerian Journal of International Affairs*, 48(3), (111–129).
- OECD. (2022). *International migration outlook 2022*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Office for National Statistics. (2024). *Population of the United Kingdom by country of birth and nationality*. London: ONS.

- Office for National Statistics (ONS). (2021). *Population of UK by country of birth and nationality*. Retrieved from [www.ons.gov.uk](http://www.ons.gov.uk)
- Office for National Statistics (ONS). (2022). *Population of the United Kingdom by Country of Birth and Nationality: 2022*. London: UK Government.
- Ogbonnaya, U.M. (2013). The Political Economy of Migration and Underdevelopment in Africa. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3(7), (23–31).
- Ogunsola, F. T., Abayomi, A., & Akande, T. M. (2021). Brain drain and the health workforce in Nigeria: Implications for universal health coverage. *Nigerian Journal of Clinical Practice*, 24(4), (435–441).
- Ogunyemi, A. (2023). Medical migration and health system resilience in Nigeria. *African Journal of Public Health Policy*, 9(1), (44–62).
- Ojediran, I., & Olayinka, A. (2022). Diaspora networks and the dynamics of chain migration: The Nigerian–British experience. *Journal of African Migration Studies*, 5(2), (201–223).
- Okeke, N. (2022). Nigeria’s health sector and the burden of brain drain: *A policy review*. *Nigerian Journal of Health Policy and Planning*, 7(1), (55–68).
- Okeke, E. N. (2013). *Brain Drain: Do Economic Conditions Matter More than Political Factors?* Social Science Research Network. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2262461>
- Okunade, S. (2023). The “Japa” phenomenon and youth migration in contemporary Nigeria. *African Journal of Social Dynamics*, 11(2), (98–116).
- Okpokwasili, O. A. (2025). Intersectionality and Migration: A Critical Exploration of the Intersections of Gender, Race, Class, and Other Social Categories in the Experiences of African Women Migrants. *ESTAGA: JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVES*, 2(1).
- Olayinka, K. (2023). Academic disruption and the flight of Nigerian students abroad: A post-ASUU strike analysis. *Journal of African Higher Education Studies*, 8(1), (67–84).
- Oleribe, O.O., Momoh, J., Uzochukwu, B.S., Mbofana, F., Adebisi, A., Barbera, T., ... & Taylor-Robinson, S.D. (2019). Identifying Key Challenges Facing Healthcare

- Systems in Africa and Potential Solutions. *International Journal of General Medicine*, 12, (395–403).
- Opeifa, J. (2025). *Omo Kaaro Ojire: The Impact of Globalization on Yoruba Diaspora Communities in the Southern United States, 1970 to 1999* (Master's thesis, Idaho State University).
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2022). *International Migration Outlook 2022*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2014). *International migration outlook 2014*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2023). *International Migration Outlook 2023*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Orji, A., Okafor, S., Obi, K., & Ukeje, C. (2022). The effects of regional integration on economic growth in ECOWAS countries. *Journal of International Economic Relations and Development Economics*, 2(2), (1-20).
- Orozco, M., & Yansura, J. (2013). *Keeping the lifeline open: Remittances and markets in Somalia*. Washington, D.C.: Oxfam America.
- Osigbesan, O. T. (2021). *Medical brain drain and its effect on the Nigerian healthcare sector* (Doctoral dissertation, Walden University).
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Paul, K. (1997). *Whitewashing Britain: Race and Citizenship in the Postwar Era*. Cornell University Press.
- Pompeo, D. P., Oliveri, F., Saccone, D., & Vallino, E. (2021). Migrations, populism and the crisis of globalization: an introduction. *SCIENZA E PACE*, 12(1), (1-14).
- PwC. (2022). *Nigeria's Digital Economy and Tech Talent Report*. Lagos: PricewaterhouseCoopers.
- Sassen, S. (1988). *The Mobility of Labor and Capital: A Study in International Investment and Labor Flow*. Cambridge University Press.

- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2019). *Research methods for business students* (8th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Saxenian, A. (2006). *The New Argonauts: Regional Advantage in a Global Economy*. Harvard University Press.
- Schultz, T. W. (1961). Investment in human capital. *The American Economic Review*, 51(1), (1–17).
- Stark, O., & Bloom, D. E. (1985). The new economics of labor migration. *The American Economic Review*, 75(2), (173–178).
- Szücs, P. (2024). Demographic Shifts and Economic Challenges in the European Union: Addressing the Impact of Aging Populations on Social Security, Healthcare and Labour Markets. *Európai Tükör*, 27(1), (87-106).
- Teferra, D. (2005). Brain circulation: Unparalleled opportunities, underlying challenges, and outmoded presumptions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 9(3), (229–250).
- Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund). (2022). *Academic and Health Workforce Report 2022*. Abuja: TETFund.
- Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund). (2023). *Academic Staff Mobility Report 2018–2023*. Abuja: TETFund.
- Times Higher Education. (2023). *World University Rankings 2023*. London: THE.
- Todaro, M. P., & Smith, S. C. (2020). *Economic Development* (13th ed.). London: Pearson Education.
- Transparency International. (2023). *Corruption perception index 2023*. Berlin: Transparency International.
- Ugochi, D, Agbebaku, P, Agba, E (2023). Nigeria's Human Capital Migration and Socio Economic Implications. *The International Journal of Humanities & Social Studies* ISSN 2321 - 9203 [www.theijhss.com](http://www.theijhss.com).
- UNDP. (2023). *Nigeria human development report 2023*. New York: United Nations Development Programme.

- UNESCO. (2023). Global Education Monitoring Report: Student Mobility and Internationalization Trends. Paris: UNESCO.
- UK General Medical Council. (2023). List of registered medical practitioners by country of qualification. London: GMC.
- UK Home Office. (2022). Immigration Statistics, Year Ending December 2022. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/immigration-statistics-year-ending-december-2022>
- UK Migration Observatory. (2023). Student to work transitions under the Graduate Route. Oxford: University of Oxford.
- United Nations. (2015). Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Retrieved from <https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda>
- Vertovec, S. (2009). Transnationalism. Routledge.
- Wallerstein, I. (2004). World-systems analysis: An introduction. Durham: Duke University Press.
- Wallerstein, I. (1974). The Modern World-System I: Capitalist Agriculture and the Origins of the European World-Economy in the Sixteenth Century. Academic Press.
- Williamson, S. H. (2019). *Toward an integrated theory of human trafficking: Unraveling the role of global economic policies in shaping macro-level conditions cross-nationally*. North Carolina State University.
- World Bank. (2023). Nigeria Development Update: Human Capital in Crisis. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2022). Nigeria economic update: *The continuing challenge of recovery*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2023). Migration and remittances data: *Nigeria*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2022). Nigeria economic update: The continuing challenge of recovery. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2023). Remittances Data: Nigeria. Retrieved from <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/migrationremittancesdiasporaissues>

- World Health Organization. (2022). *Global health workforce report 2022*. Geneva: WHO.
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2023). *Global Health Workforce Statistics 2023*. Geneva: WHO.
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2020). *State of the World's Nursing 2020: Investing in Education, Jobs and Leadership*. Geneva: WHO.
- World Health Organization. (2010). *Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel*. Geneva: WHO.
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2024). *Global Health Workforce Statistics 2024*. Geneva: WHO.
- Yeo, C. (2018). *Briefing: Why Are Visa Refusal Rates for Africans So High?* London: Free Movement.
- Zezeza, P. T. (2002). Contemporary African migrations in a global context. *African Issues*, 30(1), (9–14).