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## Assessment of the Causes and Consequences of International Migration in Nigeria

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### **Introduction**

Human migration is not a recent phenomenon. Since the beginning of recorded history, migration has been an element of the human activity. The phenomena of migration dates to the mercantile period, when, through merchant capitalism, people from Europe traveled to Africa between 1500 and 1800 to establish protectorates and live on vast tracts of land for more than 300 years (Golden & Reinert, 2006). Additionally, according to the National Geographic Society (2005), migration has occurred throughout the history of mankind, beginning with the earliest groups of people moving from East Africa to their current location in the universe. Because of how widespread migration is, both industrialized and developing nations view it as their top national security threat.

According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), migration is the process of migrating, either within a country or over an international border. It is a population movement that includes any sort of migration of people, regardless of their size, make up, or causes; this includes economic migrants, displaced persons, refugees, and people uprooted from their homes (IOM, 2004).

Non-migration is a response to a crisis that has economic, political, and socio-cultural components by individuals or groups of individuals to enable them to survive the situation. International migrants primarily aim to enter developed economies. According

to Rohr Moser and Wachter (2008), colonial ties between Europeans and Africans had an impact on the current global migration movements. In addition, the majority of economies throughout the universe have high rates of unemployment, a lack of social amenities, poverty, economic crises, political instability, insecurity, low wages, and other unfavorable conditions, which all contribute to external migration. Youths in Nigeria have no choice but to immigrate because the country's labour sector has failed to offer them employment. Global economies, both established and developing, are affected by external migration on the economic, socio-cultural, and political levels.

In order to address the obstacles of external migration, for example, some international migrants had to deal with the stringent immigration rules implemented by the governments of top countries of destinations. In addition, majority of these immigrants have lost their rights to health care, freedom of travel, employment, and education, among other rights, as a result of inadequate documentation. Once more, some immigrants may adopt hedonistic lifestyles to make ends meet. According to Yang (2008), these improper lifestyles include armed robberies, rising crime rates, prostitution, and pickpocketing. Some of the employments created by these lifestyles are referred to as "3D jobs." These tasks are challenging, hazardous, and nasty. These difficulties typically undermine the economic, political, and social drivers of migration.

According to statistics from the World Migration Report of 2020, there were 272 million international migrants in the world in 2019. (McAuliffe & Khadria, 2019). This is equivalent to 3.5% of the world's population. Furthermore, male and female migrants made up 52% and 48% of the total international migrant population, respectively. Also, 74% of immigrants from abroad were between the ages of 20 and 64 when they began working, and with 17.5 million migrants, India was the top country of origin for international migrants. With 11.8 and 10.7 million foreign migrants, respectively, Mexico and China are in second and third place.

However, with 50.7 million international migrants, the United States continued to be the top destination for migration. Again,

according to the IOM, more than 600,000 African migrants have entered Italy since 2014 via the perilous Central Mediterranean route (Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). However, in 2017, about 120,000 African migrants arrived in Italy. It is understandable why, according to Ranjana (2015), “It has become a serious issue of the twenty-first century because of rapid globalisation, industrialisation, urbanisation, and related migration patterns which are forcing people to move from one place to another in search for livelihood options and employment opportunities.” However, according to Abedi-Lartey (2016), migration has been recognised as a survival tactic used by the poor, particularly the rural population, as a catalyst in the transformation process of not only the destiny of individual migrants, but also the conditions of family members left behind, local communities, and the wider regions through remittances.

In order to understand the potential push and pull forces contributing to Nigeria’s high rate of foreign migration, it is necessary to examine the causes and effects of this migration. Understanding the primary drivers of international migration and illustrating the complex repercussions of external migration in Nigeria would help policy makers make judgments about this matter and shed light on the best economic development measures to utilise. The Federal, State, and Local governments, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), and other stakeholders have made numerous attempts to stop the never-ending stream of migration in Nigeria, but the situation has persisted unabatedly. Nigerian nationals have continued to travel abroad despite the difficulties associated with doing so in order to seek out employment possibilities that will allow them to support themselves and their families back home. Low-intensity warfare, a lack of job possibilities, and a sizable youth population had combined to cause a high number of illegal migrants to try to leave Nigeria for the perilous journey to Europe. It makes sense given that IOM (2016) noted that migration has several economic, social, political, and cultural repercussions.

In light of the foregoing, this study examined the main factors causing international migration as well as its main repercussions in the context of Nigeria. The study answered the following

questions: What are the main causes of immigration from Nigerians abroad? What are the main consequences of immigration from outside Nigeria? This study's main goal is to investigate the main reasons people migrate outside Nigeria. The study will also look into the main effects of migration from abroad on Nigeria.

### **Conceptual Review and Theoretical Framework**

Numerous scholars have investigated the origins and effects of migration with varying conclusions and abstractions. For instance, De Haas (2007) evaluated the impact of international migration on the social and economic development of regions that migrants contribute to Morocco through a review of the body of available knowledge. These empirical studies provide evidence that migration and remittances have greatly improved education, living circumstances, and income. In addition, economic activity has been promoted due to agriculture, investments in enterprises and real estate, which indirectly affects non-migrants. Furthermore, previously migratory regions like the Rif, Sous, and Southern Oases have transformed into wealthy hubs that draw "reverse" internal migration. The increasing potential of migration was not fully realised due to several structural limitations. Again, the impact of migration was variable between socio-ethnic, gender, and cosmological groups and prone to change over time. People have the opportunity to invest in regional economic activities through migration and remittances. Surprisingly, to a certain extent, development in migrant-sending countries appears to be a prerequisite for investment and homecoming rather than a reaction to migration.

Similar to this, Ratha, Mohapatra, and Scheja (2011) started a literature review on how migration has affected the social and economic development of South Asian origin and destination countries. The analysis revealed that both the sending and receiving economies suffered significantly as a result of international migration. Also, migration and the remittances that follow lead to higher wages, a decrease in poverty, better health, better educational attainment, and a boost in the sending economies' economic

progress. However, the realisation of these gains may come at significant social costs that are unavoidable for the migrants and their families. Many growing economies struggle with issues like the integration of immigrants, the financial burden of providing social services to the migrants, and competition for jobs between migrant and native workers because they receive substantial international migrants.

Adepoju (2011) examined the connection between global migration and development in Sub-Saharan Africa in a related study. The study found that the main factors influencing migration are poverty, unreliable political systems, and rapid population increase. As Sub-Saharan African nations grow, increasing remittances are a vital source of money and a lifeline for the provision of essential services, tuition for education, access to healthcare, and increased agricultural productivity. The fundamental problem for Sub-Saharan African economies is retaining, luring, and effectively employing the distinctive capabilities of these citizens in diaspora for indigenous development.

In addition, Weda (2012) used the qualitative study methodology to examine the variables influencing the migration of teachers from Zimbabwe to South Africa. A grounded theory, 13 Zimbabwean teachers who have lived in South Africa for one to five years, and documented data from the body of literature were all employed in the study. The data collection process was divided into two stages. In phase one, participants were asked to describe vocally or in writing their experiences migrating to South Africa. They were questioned in step two to discuss the issues raised in phase one. After three phases of coding were used in the data analysis, the grounded theory of teachers' migration was produced. These are the early, middle, and late stages. The research revealed that teachers' decision to migrate from Zimbabwe to South Africa was based on their desire to achieve and retain the best or ideal living standards, working conditions, and social standing. According to the substantive theory, the Ideal Status is the culmination of these connected components in their ideal configuration. The sampled teachers view this situation as optimal. Furthermore, the grounded theory demonstrated that

relocation was the most effective strategy for Zimbabwean teachers to achieve their ideal status.

Ajaero and Onokala (2013) explored the connection between rural communities in South-Eastern Nigeria and rural-urban migration in relevant literature. Six Local Government Areas (LGAs) in rural South-Eastern Nigerian states were chosen based on population density and spatial justice. Imo and Abia States were those in question. The LGAs were Nkwerre in Imo State, Onuimo in Imo State, Owerri West in Imo State, Ikwuano in Abia State, Isikwuato in Abia State, Ukwu East in Abia State. Each of the six rural LGAs had a sample of fifty migrant-sending homes. The results showed that rural-urban migration contributes significantly to the development of the rural communities in South-Eastern Nigeria through remittances and the participation of these rural-urban migrants in the community's development projects. These results were obtained using multiple regression methodology, Chi-square, hierarchical cluster analyses, and a mixed-methods approach for the collection of data.

Similar to this, Anjofui (2018) focused on the Cameroonian and Congolese migrants in Cape Town while examining the push and pull elements of international migration in South Africa. The snowball sampling method was used to choose the migrants from Cameroon and the Congo who reside in Cape Town. The results of a descriptive research design using semi-structured interviews showed that economic factors are the primary forces behind migration. The impact of immigrant networks and political considerations are then discussed. Aspirations and exposure were shown to be among the elements influencing migration decisions in most of the migrants. They weren't specifically mentioned as influencing reasons for migration in the literature, though. Additionally, the findings demonstrated that many migrants' migration aspirations were not realised. This is a result of the little opportunities that migratory policies have given them. More also, the current immigration policy has had a negative impact on migrants, leaving them in a terrible situation. However, most migrants decided not to go back because the objectives of migration were not achieved.

Kirwin and Anderson (2018) looked at what drives West Africans to migrate, relying on focus group and public opinion data collected in West Africa using a descriptive research design. Nigeria was highlighted in the study because it is the home country of 25% of all African migrants that use the Central Mediterranean route. The six West African nations of Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, and Senegal provided the respondents. The justification for migration was determined to be economic factors. However, respondents were seen to want to stay in their own nations for reasons related to family and patriotism. Evidence from the poll showed that, if given the chance, 50%, 27%, and 27% of Nigerians, Ivoirians, and Senegalese, respectively, would be interested in leaving their country of origin. In contrast to Nigerians, Ivoirians, and Senegalese, fewer Malians and Burkinabe expressed an interest in leaving their countries if given the chance. The results indicated that urban, highly educated Nigerians are the class most likely to travel overseas. Muslims in Nigeria are less likely to want to immigrate overseas based on the role that religion plays in migration. The desire of Nigerians to emigrate was not significantly influenced by their economic situation. Instead, the desire of Nigerians to immigrate overseas and a lack of confidence in local security are both closely tied to how robust the democracy is in Nigeria.

In another study of a similar nature, Bedasso, Weldesenbet, and Obikili (2018) examined the impact of family migration on educational attainment using data from a household survey on migration and remittance carried out by the World Bank. According to the findings, family members of migrants are more likely to complete their secondary education and enroll in select post-secondary institutions. Once more, people who live in migrant households are more likely to leave their country. Additionally, the migration of family members of migrants may result in the attainment of education.

To investigate the migration accounts of Nigerians who traveled to Europe via the Libya-Mediterranean route and stopped in Sweden, Dimkpa (2019) used a qualitative research design, four migrants from Nigeria who had traveled to Europe via the Libya-

Mediterranean route, and the Push and Pull methodological framework developed by Everett Lee. This study outlined the reasons why migrants from Nigeria go to Europe via the Libya-Mediterranean route, how they arrived in Sweden, and why they chose Sweden to apply for asylum over other nations in Europe, all based on Everett Lee's Push and Pull theory. Also, the Swedish government's immigration and asylum policies were questioned in relation to Nigerian migrants. According to the research, economic hardship, political unrest, terrorism, and strict anti-homosexuality legislation may lead Nigerians to take the Libya-Mediterranean route to Europe in search of a better life.

Evidence from the prevalent migration literature showed that, few researches has been conducted in the industrialised nations to understand the causes and effects of international movement. However, there are not many of these studies throughout Africa, and there are not many at all in Nigeria. Few earlier studies have focused on the sociocultural, political, and economic elements that lead to human trafficking, which is a type of migration. The study by Nwalutu (2016) focused on the migrant youth from Nigeria in Malta. Oyebanji (2017), on the other hand, emphasised the experiences of young women who overcame trafficking in Nigeria. Bakke (2013) investigated the role that religion plays in the trafficking of Nigerian women. In the context of rural-urban migration, Ajaero and Onokala (2013), Olajide (2014), and Bukar, Mohammed, and Ngada (2021) explored internal migration. Wajim (2019) concentrated on the reasons behind and trends in Nigerian labour migration.

Industrialisation, entrepreneurship, and the cyclical migrant patterns between Ghana and Nigeria were the main topics of Adebowale's (2014) study. The human rights perspective for the handling of migrants in Nigeria was extensively discussed by Ozuru and Nwajah in 2019. Muhammad (2021) investigated the issue of irregular migration and its effects on security issues in North-Western Nigeria in a different study. Enigbokan, Edkins, and Ogundele (2015) examined the significance of migration theories in identifying the driving forces behind migrants from Zimbabwe



and Nigeria in South Africa. As far as we are aware, there hasn't been any research done specifically on the reasons for and effects of foreign migration in Nigeria. Again, there are little facts about how people in Nigeria weigh the benefits and risks of emigrating abroad and how that influences their decisions. By thoroughly analyzing the push and pull aspects of global migration as well as the effects of this issue in the Nigerian context, this study seeks to close this gap.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Numerous theories have been developed by researchers in the numerous fields that study migration, including economics, law, demography, history, geography, sociology, anthropology, and political science, among others, to understand the dynamics, origins, and causes of migration. These theories include the theory of migration developed by Lee in 1966, the neo-classical theory of migration developed by Harris and Todaro in 1970, the theory of migration systems developed by Mabogunje in 1970, the theory of mobility transitions developed by Zelinsky in 1971, the new economics theory of migration developed by Stark in 1978, and the cumulative causation theory developed by Massey in 1990. For the theoretical underpinning of this study, Everett Lee's push and pull neoclassical economic theory was utilised.

This is predicated on the idea that the dominant theory in the study of the causes of migration at the moment is the neoclassical theory, which makes the fundamental assumption that the primary driving force behind migration is economic analysis of comparative benefits and costs, which is largely financial and psychological and is the result of deliberate choices (Todaro and Smith (2006)). As a result, it will be employed in this study to learn about foreign migrants' migration choices. This theory asserts that economic considerations are the primary causes of migration because it views migration as an economic phenomenon (Nkamleu & Fox, 2006). Additionally, it assumes that trade and migration provide a foundation for economies and labour markets to progress toward a long-run steady state. It holds that immigrants are only intelligent

agents. According to this idea, people migrate from civilizations with an abundance of labour and low pay to those with a shortage of labour and high wages. The decision to migrate is also made on an individual basis. As a result, migrants essentially relocate from civilizations with a large labour force and low wages to countries with a small labour force and high salaries. It is thought that eventually, greater profits will outweigh moving costs and relocation risk, which affects the decision to relocate.

The push and pull analytical paradigm contend that although high incomes and better standards of living in more industrialised regions draw the labour force in, low wages and subpar living conditions in less developed nations drive it out Harzig, Hoerder, and Gabaccia (2009). According to the push and pull factor model, people will eventually move from a region with low labour demands and low salaries to one with high labour demands and high salaries, bringing salaries and living conditions between the sending and receiving regions into line, resulting in migration that is advantageous to both (Nkamleu & Fox, 2006; Weiner, 1995). The labour supply in the local labour market is reduced as a result of workforce emigration, increasing its value and driving up wages. Consequently, the emigration of labour from a region is advantageous for the local workforce since it raises local wages (Weda, 2012).

The push-and-pull model is not without its drawbacks. This model is static. As a result, it omitted to mention how migration affects the initial structural circumstances. It is a descriptive model that explains migration via a post-hoc mechanism. Once more, factors that affect migration typically duplicate themselves in origin and destination regions. It holds that the only factors influencing migration are those at the macro-scale. However, it disregards other reasons why people may migrate. Despite these flaws, the hypothesis is nevertheless popular in migration literature (De Haas, 2007; McDowell & De Haan, 1997).

It was altered, though, to include some extra pull and push variables. According to Dovlo (2003), the supply factors are the unfavourable conditions in the source nations or areas that cause

professionals and skilled individuals to emigrate and look for work elsewhere. The literature identified the following push factors: low pay, low per capita income, unemployment or a lack of jobs, crime and conflict, political repression, subpar educational systems, subpar working conditions, climate change (including extreme weather events), lack of career advancement, inadequate or limited urban services and infrastructure (including healthcare, education, utilities, transport, and water), a lack of necessary technology, crop failure, and (Boswell, 2002; Dovlo, 2003; El-Khawas, 2004; World Economic Forum & PwC, 2017).

The socio-economic conditions that tempt professionals to leave their home economies or regions and go to destinations economies or regions are called pull factors or demand factors (El-Khawas, 2004). In the literature, the following pull factors have been identified: higher wages for the same jobs in the receiving countries; family reunion; better service conditions; independence and freedom; advanced technology and the availability of resources that make work easier and safer; integration and social cohesion; the state of the labour market in the receiving countries; food security; greater opportunities for professional and personal improvement; and affordable and accessible housing Boswell (2002); El-Khawas (2004); World Economic Forum & PwC (2017).

### **Methodology**

For this study, a descriptive research design was used. Both primary and secondary sources of data were used in the investigation. A formal questionnaire was used to gather first-hand data. On the other side, secondary data consisted of material that was already available on international migration from books, the internet, reports, journal articles, and other pertinent sources. This study employed the judgmental or purposive sample method. For this survey, 100 Nigerian respondents were specifically chosen. These respondents were chosen as a result based on the researcher's assessment that they understood both push and pull phenomena in addition to having knowledge of external migration. Respondents were given questionnaires to complete to gauge their thoughts on

the reasons behind and effects of Nigeria’s external migration. Data analysis was done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data that had been gathered.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of respondents

| <b>Variable</b> | <b>Items</b>           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percentage (%)</b> |
|-----------------|------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| Age             | Less than 20 years     | 11               | 11.0                  |
|                 | 21-30 years            | 32               | 32.0                  |
|                 | 31-40 years            | 30               | 30.0                  |
|                 | 41-50 years            | 17               | 17.0                  |
|                 | 51-60 years            | 8                | 8.0                   |
|                 | 61 years and above     | 2                | 2.0                   |
|                 | Total                  | 100              | 100.0                 |
| Gender          | Male                   | 69               | 69.0                  |
|                 | Female                 | 31               | 31.0                  |
|                 | Total                  | 100              | 100.0                 |
| Marital Status  | Married                | 50               | 50.0                  |
|                 | Single                 | 44               | 44.0                  |
|                 | Widow                  | 1                | 1.0                   |
|                 | Never Married          | 1                | 1.0                   |
|                 | Engaged to be Married. | 4                | 4.0                   |
|                 | Total                  | 100              | 100.0                 |
| Education       | No Education           | 0                | 0.0                   |
|                 | Primary Education      | 0                | 0.0                   |
|                 | Secondary Education    | 12               | 12.0                  |
|                 | Polytechnic Education  | 7                | 7.0                   |
|                 | Tertiary Education     | 81               | 81.0                  |
|                 | Total                  | 100              | 100.0                 |
| Occupation      | Farming                | 2                | 2.0                   |
|                 | Artisan                | 1                | 1.0                   |
|                 | Trading/Business       | 16               | 16.0                  |
|                 | Public/Civil Servant   | 41               | 41.0                  |
|                 | Handicraft Industries  | 0                | 0.0                   |
|                 | Other                  | 40               | 40.0                  |
|                 | Total                  | 100              | 100.0                 |

**Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Results**

The respondents’ demographic profile is shown in Table 1. It was revealed that 11 or 11% of the respondents were under the age of 20, 32 or 32% were between the ages of 21 and 30 years, 30 or 30%

were between the ages of 31 and 40 years, 17 or 17% were between the ages of 41 and 50 years, 8 or 8% were between the ages of 51 and 60 years, and only 2% were between the ages of 61 and above. While 69 or 69% of the population was male, and 31 or 31 % was female. When it came to their marital status, 50 or 50% of them were married, 44 or 44 % were singles, 1 or 1% were widows, 1 or 1% were never married, and 4 or 4% were engaged to be married. Regarding their education, 81 or 81 % of them had university degrees, 7 or 7% had polytechnic degrees, and 12 or 12% had secondary certificates, while none had primary school leaving certificates with them. Regarding their line of work, 2 or 2% of them were farmers, 1 or 1% were artisans, 16 or 16% were traders/businessmen, 41 or 41% were public/civil servants, none of them worked in the handicraft industry, and 40 or 40% were in other occupations.

The reasons for overseas migration in Nigeria are shown in Table 2. Twenty-eight push and pull variables were found and included in the questionnaire; respondents were asked to choose the option that best reflected their viewpoint. A thorough literature research, in-depth interviews, and participant observation were used to gather this push and pull components. The level of importance of the push and pull variables reported in the questionnaire was measured using a 5-point Likert style scale, with 5 being the most important and 1 being the least important. The standard for choosing any view point was the 3.00 mean of a five-point rating system. Any view was formed based on the actual bounds of real numbers. The lower limit of 3.00 points was utilized to determine whether respondents agreed based on the various rankings that the item was a source of international migration in Nigeria since the average of five points rating scale equals the agreed or possessed opinion, 2.50. Therefore, every opinion that had a mean rating of 2.50 or higher was shared or held. Views with a mean rating of less than 2.50, however, were unpopular.

The findings indicated that in Nigeria, employment opportunities were the main driver of overseas migration. It has the highest frequency of 464 and a mean score of 4.64; it is then followed by

unemployment, which has a mean score of 4.58; wealth prospects, which have a mean score of 4.42; safety and security, which has a mean score of 4.17; better working conditions, which has a mean score of 4.16; low pay, which has a mean score of 4.12; and higher standards of living, which has a mean score of 4.09. The average rating for all the views was higher than 3.00. All the respondents concurred that there were major factors influencing migration abroad in Nigeria. It is essential to note that all other major causes of international migration in Nigeria were economic factors, except for safety and security, which was a sociopolitical component. Therefore, the main motivation for migration is economic. Kirwin and Anderson act as an advocate for this outcome (2018).

A scale was developed in Table 3 to determine the main effects of foreign migration in Nigeria. In-depth interviews, participant observation, and a thorough assessment of the literature were used to gather the factors. The scale runs from 5 to 1, with 5 representing the most essential factor and 1 the least. The main effects of international migration in Nigeria were integrated development, with a mean score of 3.92, increase in remittances, cheap and surplus labour, under stress urban services and social infrastructure, with a mean score of 3.67, stricter immigration norms, with a mean score of 3.62, multiethnic society and increased tolerance, with a mean score of 3.60, xenophobia, with a mean score of 3.58, closes gaps in education, with a mean score of 3.50. The average rating for all of the views was higher than 3.00. Therefore, all of the respondents concurred that there were both major good and negative effects of migration from abroad in Nigeria. These effects were political, social, and economic.

Table 2: Distribution of respondents based on the causes of international migration in Nigeria.

| <b>Opinion</b>                           | <b>Opinion Status</b> | <b>Most Important (X5)</b> | <b>Important (X4)</b> | <b>Neutral (X3)</b> | <b>Less Important (X2)</b> | <b>Least Important (X1)</b> | <b>Sum</b> | <b>Mean</b> |
|--|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|-------------|
| Job opportunities                        | Economic              | 370                        | 84                    | 6                   | 2                          | 2                           | 464        | 4.64        |
| Wealth prospects                         | Economic              | 265                        | 148                   | 27                  | 2                          | 0                           | 442        | 4.42        |
| Lack of necessary technology             | Economic              | 130                        | 132                   | 60                  | 34                         | 4                           | 360        | 3.60        |
| Poor educational systems                 | Economic              | 125                        | 156                   | 57                  | 22                         | 6                           | 366        | 3.66        |
| Unemployment                             | Economic              | 380                        | 48                    | 21                  | 8                          | 1                           | 458        | 4.58        |
| Rural poverty                            | Economic              | 180                        | 152                   | 51                  | 12                         | 3                           | 398        | 3.98        |
| Unsustainable livelihood                 | Economic              | 160                        | 148                   | 66                  | 18                         | 0                           | 392        | 3.92        |
| An abundance of natural resources        | Ecological            | 85                         | 88                    | 54                  | 46                         | 20                          | 293        | 2.93        |
| Favourable climate                       | Ecological            | 75                         | 60                    | 45                  | 52                         | 29                          | 261        | 2.61        |
| Climate change                           | Ecological            | 35                         | 36                    | 57                  | 54                         | 38                          | 220        | 2.20        |
| Crop failure/food scarcity               | Ecological            | 90                         | 68                    | 60                  | 50                         | 20                          | 288        | 2.88        |
| Family reunification                     | Sociopolitical        | 60                         | 60                    | 45                  | 52                         | 32                          | 249        | 2.49        |
| Independence and Freedom                 | Sociopolitical        | 115                        | 88                    | 60                  | 46                         | 12                          | 321        | 3.21        |
| Food security                            | Sociopolitical        | 125                        | 140                   | 42                  | 30                         | 11                          | 348        | 3.48        |
| Affordable and accessible urban services | Sociopolitical        | 115                        | 160                   | 51                  | 24                         | 8                           | 358        | 3.58        |
| Political instability                    | Sociopolitical        | 110                        | 124                   | 75                  | 30                         | 7                           | 346        | 3.46        |
| Safety and security                      | Sociopolitical        | 235                        | 128                   | 42                  | 10                         | 3                           | 417        | 4.17        |

|  |                |     |     |    |    |    |     |      |
|--|----------------|-----|-----|----|----|----|-----|------|
| Conflicts or threats                               | Sociopolitical | 150 | 124 | 72 | 20 | 5  | 371 | 3.71 |
| Better conditions of services                      | Economic       | 230 | 144 | 24 | 16 | 2  | 416 | 4.16 |
| Slavery or bonded labour                           | Sociopolitical | 70  | 56  | 78 | 58 | 17 | 279 | 2.79 |
| Inadequate/limited urban services & infrastructure | Sociopolitical | 135 | 148 | 51 | 26 | 6  | 366 | 3.66 |
| Low salaries                                       | Economic       | 215 | 148 | 33 | 14 | 2  | 412 | 4.12 |
| Low per capita income                              | Economic       | 190 | 164 | 24 | 22 | 2  | 402 | 4.02 |
| Lack of progression within a career                | Economic       | 140 | 140 | 60 | 26 | 4  | 370 | 3.70 |
| Limited chances of self-advancement                | Economic       | 145 | 128 | 72 | 16 | 7  | 368 | 3.68 |
| Poor conditions of services                        | Economic       | 175 | 168 | 54 | 8  | 1  | 406 | 4.06 |
| Political repression                               | Sociopolitical | 115 | 124 | 57 | 38 | 8  | 342 | 3.42 |
| Higher standards of living                         | Economic       | 235 | 108 | 51 | 12 | 3  | 409 | 4.09 |



Table 3: Distribution of respondents based on the consequences of international migration in Nigeria

| Opinion   | Opinion Status | Most Important (X5) | Important (X4) | Neutral (X3) | Less Important (X2) | Least Important (X1) | Sum | Mean |
|---|----------------|---------------------|----------------|--------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----|------|
| Increase in remittances                               | Economic       | 185                 | 92             | 66           | 32                  | 2                    | 377 | 3.77 |
| Urban services and social infrastructure under stress | Social         | 110                 | 168            | 60           | 26                  | 3                    | 367 | 3.67 |
| Xenophobia  | Social         | 145                 | 104            | 75           | 28                  | 6                    | 358 | 3.58 |
| Cultural dilution                                     | Social         | 105                 | 128            | 81           | 32                  | 4                    | 350 | 3.50 |
| Stricter immigration norms                            | Political      | 100                 | 176            | 51           | 32                  | 3                    | 362 | 3.62 |
| Cheap & surplus labour                                | Economic       | 125                 | 144            | 69           | 30                  | 1                    | 369 | 3.69 |
| Closes gaps in skills                                 | Economic       | 100                 | 144            | 66           | 42                  | 1                    | 353 | 3.53 |
| Push for inclusive policy-making                      | Political      | 70                  | 148            | 96           | 24                  | 5                    | 343 | 3.43 |
| Integrated development                                | Political      | 160                 | 168            | 42           | 20                  | 2                    | 392 | 3.92 |
| Multi-ethnic society and increased tolerance          | Social         | 90                  | 164            | 81           | 22                  | 3                    | 360 | 3.60 |
| New services from country of origin                   | Social         | 95                  | 136            | 60           | 46                  | 4                    | 341 | 3.41 |

## **Conclusion and Recommendations**

Using a descriptive research design, this study investigated the main reasons for and effects of international migration in Nigeria. It gave a comprehensive picture of the push and pull variables influencing migration outside of Nigeria. According to the study's findings, job possibilities, unemployment, financial prospects, safety and security, improved working conditions, low pay, and greater standards of life were the main drivers of foreign migration in Nigeria. These main drivers of migration abroad in Nigeria were primarily economic ones. However, in Nigeria, the only socio-political issue that ranked among the top reasons for moving outside was safety and security. The results also demonstrated that integrated development, growth in remittances, cheap and surplus labour, stress on urban services and social infrastructure, stricter immigration norms, multi-ethnic society and increased tolerance, Xenophobia, close skill gaps, and cultural dilution were the most significant positive and negative effects of international migration in Nigeria. Economic, social, and political ramifications resulted. Remittance inflows from Nigerians living abroad are a potential tool for economic growth, according to IOM (2016). With approximately 65% of the region's officially recognized remittance flows and 2% of worldwide inflows, Nigeria is sub-Saharan Africa's top recipient of remittances. Based on the findings of this investigation, the following is advised:

- The push forces of unemployment, lack of safety and security, and poor wages should be addressed, as should the pull elements of job opportunities, wealth potential, better working conditions, and higher standards of living, as these are what drive international migration in the first place;
- The federal government, states, and non-governmental organizations should concentrate their interventions on other push and pull factors, such as fewer opportunities for self-advancement, unfavorable working conditions, poverty, insecurity of the food supply, and conflicts, which increase susceptibility to international migration.

- Because economic, socio-political, and ecological factors contribute to international migration and have an impact on development at both the micro and macro-levels, migration policies should not only be restrictive but should also consider how changes in the governance structure of migration may impact these factors.
- The government and non-governmental organizations should create entrepreneurship centers and programs to offer livelihood options, such as basic education, literacy, and skills training to populations who are often disadvantaged, such women, and more vulnerable to overseas migration.
- To support the growth of skills and acquisition, infrastructure development should be a government priority in terms of funding.
- The Federal, State, and Local Governments of Nigeria need to mainstream migration, a long-standing strategy for human development and poverty reduction.
- To slow the rate at which young people are fleeing Nigeria, the government should make significant investments in projects that can create jobs for the hordes of unemployed people there.
- IOM (2016) argued that due to migration's "clear far-reaching repercussions," "there is also a need to integrate migration into national and regional agendas for security, stability, development, and cooperation as well as the acknowledgement of migrants' contributions to the world economy."

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