



Structural Adjustment Programmes, Brain Drain and the Crisis of Healthcare Delivery in Nigeria

* Labbo Abdullahi

Department of History and International Studies, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto, Nigeria.

Submission Date: 10 April 2026 **Published Date:** 25 July 2026

Citation: Abdullahi, L. (2026). Structural Adjustment Programmes, Brain Drain and the Crisis of Healthcare Delivery in Nigeria. In INSR Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies (Vol. 2, Number 7, pp. 32–43). <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.21570672>

Copyright: © 2026 Labbo Abdullahi. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 international License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

The migration of highly skilled healthcare professionals from developing to developed countries has emerged as one of the most pressing challenges confronting healthcare systems across sub-Saharan Africa. In Nigeria, the phenomenon has assumed alarming dimensions over the past four decades, resulting in severe shortages of medical personnel, weakened health institutions, and declining quality of healthcare delivery. This paper examines the relationship between the implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in the mid-1980s and the accelerating migration of Nigerian healthcare professionals. It argues that while contemporary migration is influenced by global labour market dynamics and attractive opportunities in destination countries, the deterioration of working conditions within Nigeria's health sector was significantly exacerbated by the fiscal austerity, public sector retrenchment, and declining social investment associated with SAP reforms. Drawing on historical analysis and contemporary literature, the paper explores the push and pull factors underlying the migration of doctors, nurses, pharmacists, and other healthcare workers, and evaluates its implications for healthcare delivery, medical education, and national development. The study further examines policy responses adopted by Nigeria and selected African countries and argues that reversing the brain drain requires comprehensive reforms that extend beyond salary increases to include improved governance, sustained investment in healthcare infrastructure, enhanced professional development opportunities, and effective diaspora engagement. The paper concludes that unless structural deficiencies within Nigeria's health sector are addressed, the continued emigration of skilled healthcare professionals will remain a significant impediment to achieving universal health coverage and sustainable national development.

Keywords: Brain Drain; Structural Adjustment Programme; Healthcare Professionals; Human Resources for Health; Nigeria; Healthcare Delivery.

Introduction

Human resources constitute the cornerstone of every effective healthcare system. Regardless of the sophistication of medical technologies or the availability of healthcare infrastructure, the delivery of quality healthcare ultimately depends upon the availability, competence, motivation, and equitable distribution of skilled healthcare professionals. Physicians, nurses, pharmacists, laboratory scientists, and other allied health workers represent the most valuable assets of any health system because they translate healthcare policies into tangible services that improve population health. Consequently, the sustained loss of these professionals through international migration poses profound challenges for developing countries whose healthcare systems are already constrained by inadequate funding, weak institutions, and growing disease burdens.¹ Nigeria presents one of the most significant examples of this challenge in sub-Saharan Africa. Although the country possesses one of the largest pools of trained healthcare professionals on the continent, it has experienced an unprecedented exodus of doctors, nurses, pharmacists, and other specialists over the last four decades. The migration of Nigerian health professionals has intensified particularly since the 1990s and has accelerated further in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic, as developed countries actively expanded international recruitment to address shortages within their own healthcare systems.² The consequence has been an increasingly fragile domestic healthcare system characterised by inadequate staffing, growing disparities between urban and rural healthcare provision, longer waiting times, increased workload for remaining personnel, declining access to quality healthcare services and frequent medical errors.

The migration of skilled professionals commonly described as brain drain is neither a recent nor uniquely Nigerian phenomenon. Rather, it reflects broader historical patterns of international labour mobility driven by disparities in economic opportunities, remuneration, political stability, professional development, security, and quality of life.³ Within the healthcare sector, however, the consequences are particularly severe because shortages of skilled personnel directly affect morbidity, mortality, maternal health, child survival, disease control, and the overall resilience of health systems. The World Health Organization has consistently identified shortages of health workers as one of the principal obstacles to achieving Universal Health Coverage and the health-related Sustainable Development Goals.⁴ While numerous studies explain the migration of Nigerian healthcare professionals through conventional 'push' and 'pull' factors, comparatively fewer have situated the phenomenon within the broader historical transformation of Nigeria's political economy. This paper argues that the origins of the contemporary health workforce crisis cannot be fully understood without examining the profound structural changes introduced during the implementation of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) from 1986. Adopted under the guidance of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, SAP sought to restructure the Nigerian economy through currency devaluation, reduction of public expenditure, deregulation, privatisation, and market liberalisation.⁵ Although these reforms were intended to restore macroeconomic stability, they also contributed to declining public investment in critical social sectors, including healthcare and education.

The contraction of public expenditure had significant implications for Nigeria's health sector. Hospitals experienced chronic underfunding, infrastructure deteriorated, medical equipment became obsolete, shortages of essential medicines became widespread, and opportunities for professional advancement diminished. Real wages of healthcare workers declined considerably as inflation eroded purchasing power, while poor working conditions, irregular remuneration, insecurity, and inadequate research funding further reduced professional satisfaction.⁶ These structural deficiencies created strong incentives for healthcare professionals to seek employment abroad, where remuneration, working conditions, research opportunities, and career advancement were considerably more attractive. The persistence of brain drain has generated serious consequences extending beyond shortages of medical personnel. It has increased healthcare inequalities between rural and urban communities, weakened medical education through the loss of experienced specialists and clinical educators, reduced institutional capacity for research and innovation, and contributed to the growth of outbound medical tourism among Nigerians seeking specialised treatment overseas. These developments have imposed substantial economic costs on the Nigerian state, which continues to invest significant public resources in training healthcare professionals who subsequently contribute their expertise to foreign healthcare systems.⁷

This paper therefore examines the historical relationship between Structural Adjustment Programmes and the migration of healthcare professionals in Nigeria. Specifically, it analyses the structural factors that have encouraged emigration, evaluates the implications of brain drain for healthcare delivery, and assesses existing policy responses aimed at improving retention and strengthening the health workforce. The study contends that, although international migration cannot be entirely prevented in an increasingly globalised labour market, its adverse effects can be substantially mitigated through sustained investment in healthcare infrastructure, improved governance, competitive remuneration, enhanced opportunities for professional development, and policies that not only promote the retention of Nigerian healthcare professionals but also attract skilled expatriate and foreign healthcare personnel. Equally important are coherent policies that harness the expertise of the Nigerian health diaspora to support national health system development.

Conceptualising Brain Drain and Human Capital Migration

The concept of brain drain refers to the large-scale migration of highly educated, professionally trained and skilled individuals from one country to another, usually from developing economies to more industrialised nations in search of better economic opportunities, improved working conditions, enhanced professional development, political stability and

higher standards of living.⁸ The term gained prominence during the 1960s when Britain experienced the emigration of scientists and engineers to the United States, but it has since become widely associated with the persistent outflow of skilled manpower from developing countries, particularly in Africa, Asia and Latin America.⁹ Within the broader framework of migration studies, brain drain represents a specific dimension of human capital migration. Human capital theory, as advanced by Theodore Schultz and Gary Becker, conceptualises education, professional training, skills and experience as forms of investment that enhance individual productivity and economic value.¹⁰ Migration therefore becomes a rational decision through which individuals seek to maximise the returns on their accumulated human capital. Healthcare professionals, whose education often requires substantial public investment, are particularly mobile because their specialised knowledge and internationally recognised qualifications are highly transferable across national boundaries. Consequently, destination countries experiencing shortages of health personnel actively recruit skilled workers from countries where wages are comparatively lower and employment conditions less favourable.

Brain drain differs fundamentally from general labour migration because it involves the loss of individuals possessing scarce technical and professional expertise that is indispensable for national development. The departure of physicians, nurses, pharmacists, medical laboratory scientists and other specialised professionals deprives source countries not only of their immediate services but also of the investments made in their education and training. This phenomenon has generated considerable concern among policymakers because it weakens institutional capacity, reduces productivity, constrains innovation and undermines the provision of essential public services, particularly within the health and education sectors.¹¹ Scholarly opinion on brain drain has evolved considerably over the past three decades. Earlier literature viewed the phenomenon almost exclusively as a net loss for developing countries, emphasising the depletion of scarce human resources and the transfer of public investment to wealthier nations.¹² More recent scholarship, however, has adopted a more nuanced perspective by introducing concepts such as brain circulation, brain gain and diaspora engagement. These approaches recognise that skilled migrants may contribute to their countries of origin through remittances, technology transfer, collaborative research, investment, knowledge exchange and temporary return programmes.¹³ Nevertheless, while these potential benefits are significant, they rarely compensate for the immediate shortages experienced by countries with already fragile healthcare systems. In Nigeria, where healthcare worker density remains below internationally recommended levels, the continuous emigration of experienced professionals has had profound implications for service delivery, medical education and public health outcomes. The migration of healthcare professionals is best understood through the complementary framework of push and pull factors. Push factors originate within the country of origin and include poor remuneration, deteriorating infrastructure, limited opportunities for career advancement, political instability, insecurity, poor governance and inadequate research funding. Pull factors arise within destination countries and include competitive salaries, safer working environments, better-equipped health facilities, structured postgraduate training, stronger social protection systems and improved quality of life.¹⁴ The interaction of these factors explains why health worker migration has intensified despite repeated policy interventions by successive Nigerian governments. For Nigeria, therefore, brain drain should not be viewed merely as an issue of individual career mobility but as a structural development challenge rooted in broader political, economic and institutional transformations. The sustained emigration of healthcare professionals reflects persistent weaknesses within the country's health sector and underscores the urgent need for comprehensive reforms capable of improving both professional satisfaction and institutional performance.

Structural Adjustment Programmes and Nigeria's Health Sector

The origins of Nigeria's contemporary health workforce crisis cannot be adequately understood without examining the profound economic restructuring initiated during the mid-1980s under the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). Introduced in 1986 during the administration of General Ibrahim Babangida, SAP emerged as Nigeria's response to severe macroeconomic imbalances caused by declining oil revenues, mounting external debt, fiscal deficits and the collapse of international commodity prices. Designed with the support of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, the programme sought to restore economic stability through currency devaluation, deregulation, trade liberalisation, privatisation of state-owned enterprises and substantial reductions in government expenditure.¹⁵ Although SAP was primarily conceived as an economic reform programme, its consequences extended deeply into Nigeria's social sectors, particularly education and healthcare. The emphasis on fiscal austerity substantially reduced public investment in hospitals, primary healthcare centres, medical education and health research. Recruitment into the public health service slowed considerably, maintenance of healthcare infrastructure deteriorated, procurement of essential medicines became increasingly difficult, and many health institutions struggled with obsolete equipment and inadequate funding.¹⁶

One of the most enduring consequences of SAP was the erosion of the welfare and professional conditions of healthcare workers. Currency devaluation and rising inflation significantly reduced the real value of salaries, while restrictions on public expenditure limited opportunities for salary adjustments, staff recruitment and continuing professional education. Many healthcare professionals consequently found themselves working under increasingly difficult circumstances characterised by overcrowded hospitals, shortages of essential medical supplies, unreliable electricity, inadequate diagnostic equipment and declining institutional support.¹⁷ The deterioration of public healthcare financing also affected medical education and specialist training. Universities and teaching hospitals experienced declining budgetary allocations, laboratory facilities became outdated, research funding diminished, and opportunities for postgraduate training became

increasingly limited. These developments weakened Nigeria's capacity to retain highly qualified professionals and encouraged newly trained specialists to seek employment in countries where advanced technologies, research funding and structured career pathways were more readily available.¹⁸

It would, however, be overly simplistic to attribute Nigeria's healthcare crisis solely to Structural Adjustment Programmes. While SAP undoubtedly accelerated institutional decline, subsequent decades were characterised by persistent governance challenges, corruption, inadequate policy implementation, insecurity, rapid population growth and chronic underinvestment in public healthcare. These factors collectively reinforced the structural weaknesses initiated during the adjustment era and created conditions that sustained large-scale migration of healthcare professionals well into the twenty-first century. Furthermore, the globalisation of healthcare labour markets significantly intensified these migration trends. Developed countries facing ageing populations and domestic shortages increasingly adopted policies facilitating the international recruitment of doctors and nurses. Improvements in international credential recognition, immigration pathways and professional licensing made overseas employment considerably more accessible for Nigerian health professionals. Consequently, domestic institutional weaknesses interacted with expanding global opportunities to accelerate the outflow of skilled healthcare workers. The legacy of Structural Adjustment therefore lies not merely in temporary fiscal retrenchment but in the long-term weakening of Nigeria's public healthcare institutions. The cumulative effects of declining investment, institutional fragility and persistent governance deficits created the conditions under which brain drain became both widespread and enduring.

Push and Pull Factors Behind Health Worker Migration

The migration of healthcare professionals from Nigeria is driven by a complex interaction of economic, professional, political and social factors. Contemporary migration scholarship recognises that no single explanation adequately accounts for the decisions of skilled professionals to relocate abroad. Instead, migration results from the simultaneous operation of push factors within the country of origin and pull factors within destination countries.¹⁹ Among the most significant push factors is inadequate remuneration. Although salary levels have improved periodically through negotiations between professional associations and government, the purchasing power of healthcare workers has remained constrained by inflation, exchange rate depreciation and rising living costs. Many Nigerian doctors and nurses earn only a fraction of what similarly qualified professionals receive in the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia or the Gulf States. The substantial disparity in income provides a powerful economic incentive for migration.

Equally important are the poor working conditions prevailing within many public health institutions. Healthcare professionals frequently contend with shortages of essential medicines, obsolete medical equipment, inadequate diagnostic facilities, overcrowded wards, irregular electricity supply and insufficient staffing. Such conditions increase occupational stress, reduce professional satisfaction and often compromise patient outcomes. The resulting frustration has encouraged many experienced practitioners to seek employment in environments where they can practise according to internationally accepted standards. Limited opportunities for career progression also constitute an important push factor. Delays in postgraduate training, inadequate research funding, bureaucratic promotion procedures and insufficient opportunities for continuing professional development have diminished professional motivation among many healthcare workers. Academic clinicians and medical researchers frequently encounter limited institutional support for research activities, while specialist training positions remain insufficient relative to demand.

The deteriorating security situation in several parts of Nigeria has further intensified migration pressures. Armed insurgency, banditry, kidnapping and communal violence have exposed healthcare workers to significant personal risks, particularly those serving in rural and conflict-affected communities in the Northern Nigeria. Combined with broader concerns regarding political uncertainty and governance, insecurity has become an increasingly important determinant of migration decisions among young professionals. Conversely, destination countries provide numerous attractions that reinforce outward migration. Competitive remuneration remains the most obvious pull factor, but financial incentives alone do not fully explain migration patterns. Healthcare professionals are also attracted by modern medical infrastructure, advanced technologies, structured residency programmes, opportunities for research collaboration, merit-based promotion systems and favourable working environments that allow them to maximise their professional capabilities. Many developed countries have also implemented immigration policies specifically designed to address domestic shortages of healthcare personnel. The United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, the United States and several Gulf countries have simplified visa procedures, expanded international recruitment campaigns and developed credential recognition systems that facilitate the employment of foreign-trained healthcare workers.²⁰ These institutional arrangements significantly reduce the barriers to international mobility and have made overseas employment increasingly accessible to Nigerian professionals. Social considerations likewise influence migration decisions. Better educational opportunities for children, improved healthcare services, political stability, social security systems and higher overall standards of living contribute to the attractiveness of destination countries. Professional networks established by earlier migrants further reinforce these trends by providing information, mentorship and practical support for subsequent migrants, creating self-sustaining migration chains.

The interaction of the push and pull factors demonstrates that the migration of Nigerian healthcare professionals is neither accidental nor solely salary-driven. Rather, it reflects a rational response to structural deficiencies within the domestic health sector combined with expanding opportunities in an increasingly globalised labour market. Addressing brain drain therefore requires policies that simultaneously improve domestic working conditions while creating professional environments capable of retaining highly skilled healthcare personnel.

Effects of Brain Drain on Nigeria's Healthcare Delivery

The migration of healthcare professionals has become one of the most significant constraints on the performance and sustainability of Nigeria's healthcare system. Although the international mobility of skilled labour is an inevitable feature of an increasingly globalised economy, the consequences for countries with fragile health systems are particularly profound. Nigeria continues to experience severe shortages of health professionals, a situation compounded by the international migration of skilled healthcare workers, thereby weakening the country's capacity to provide accessible, equitable and quality healthcare services.²¹ Specifically, the country incessantly loses substantial numbers of physicians, nurses, pharmacists, medical laboratory scientists and other allied health professionals to high-income countries, thereby weakening the country's capacity to deliver accessible, equitable and quality healthcare services.²² One of the most immediate consequences of brain drain is the persistent shortage of qualified healthcare personnel. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), an adequate health workforce is indispensable for achieving Universal Health Coverage and the health-related Sustainable Development Goals.²³ Nigeria, however, continues to experience health workforce densities below internationally desirable thresholds despite producing thousands of healthcare graduates annually. The emigration of experienced consultants and specialists has widened existing workforce gaps, particularly in tertiary hospitals where specialist expertise is indispensable for the management of complex medical conditions.²⁴

Evidence has shown that Nigeria is one of the major health staff-exporting countries in Africa. For example, between April 2001 and March 2002, 432 Nigerian nurses legally emigrated to work in Britain, out of a total of 2,000 African nurses who emigrated during the same period.²⁵ In 2012, the Nigeria's House of Representatives Committee on the Diaspora highlighted the significant presence of Nigerian medical professionals within the African diaspora, noting that approximately 77% of members of associations of Black physicians practising in the United States were Nigerians.²⁶ In the same year, the President of the Nigerian Medical Association (NMA), Dr. Osahon Enabulele, revealed that the Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria (MDCN) had registered approximately 71,740 medical and dental practitioners, out of which only 27,000 of them practised within the country.²⁷ According to the United Kingdom's General Medical Council (GMC), no fewer than 4,691 Nigerian-trained doctors relocated to the United Kingdom between May 2023 and May 2025.²⁸ In all, by 2025, the number of Nigerian doctors practising in the United Kingdom was about 15,692, making Nigeria one of the largest sources of internationally trained doctors in the UK.²⁹

The shortage of healthcare professionals has substantially increased the workload of those who remain in the country. Doctors and nurses in many public health facilities are routinely required to attend to patient numbers that far exceed recommended staffing levels, resulting in excessive workloads, occupational burnout, fatigue and declining morale. This persistent pressure has adversely affected both the wellbeing of healthcare workers and the quality of patient care. For instance, it is indicated that by 2002, Nigeria had 13 doctors, 92 nurses/midwives, and 64 community health workers (CHWs) in the public sector per 100,000 population.³⁰ Also, evidence of this shortage is reflected in a 2006 inventory of Nigeria's health workforce, which reported that, as of 2004, the country had only 39,210 physicians (0.3 per 1,000 population), 124,629 nurses (1.03 per 1,000 population), 88,796 midwives (0.67 per 1,000 population), 2,482 dentists (0.02 per 1,000 population), and 12,072 pharmacists (0.05 per 1,000 population).³¹ By 2012, based on an estimated national population of 167 million at the time, the medical and dental practitioners practising in Nigeria translated to a doctor-to-population ratio of approximately 1:6,187.³² Similarly, in 2024, a study by the Safeguarding Health in Conflict Coalition revealed a ratio of only four doctors per 10,000 people, a figure significantly below the WHO's recommended doctor-to-population ratio of 1:1,000.³³ Finally, the 2025 country's doctor-to-population ratio is estimated at approximately 3.9 doctors per 10,000 people, which remains significantly below the minimum threshold recommended by the World Health Organisation.³⁴ These trends highlight the growing impact of medical workforce migration on Nigeria's healthcare system and the associated loss of human capital and public investment. Relative to the size and healthcare needs of Nigeria's population, these figures were grossly inadequate to ensure the effective delivery of accessible, equitable and quality healthcare services.

Consequently, the existing workforce has become increasingly overstretched as rapid population growth has not been matched by a corresponding expansion in the number of healthcare professionals. As indicated by some studies, such pressures not only affect the physical and psychological wellbeing of healthcare workers but also increase the likelihood of medical errors, prolonged waiting times and diminished quality of patient care.³⁵ Industrial disputes within the health sector have often reflected these underlying structural pressures rather than merely disagreements over remuneration.

Brain drain has further exacerbated geographical inequalities in healthcare delivery across Nigeria. Historically, healthcare professionals in Nigeria have been unevenly distributed across the country, with urban centres and tertiary health facilities attracting a disproportionately larger share of skilled personnel than rural and underserved communities, thereby contributing to persistent inequalities in access to healthcare services.³⁶ The emigration of healthcare workers has further exacerbated the longstanding maldistribution of health personnel in Nigeria by disproportionately affecting already underserved rural communities. As noted by Nwankwo et al., although rural residents account for approximately one-half of the country's population, they have access to only an estimated 12 per cent of Nigeria's physicians and 19 per cent of its nurses, underscoring the severity of rural-urban disparities in the availability of healthcare professionals.³⁷ These findings underscore the persistent inequities in the geographical distribution of healthcare personnel and demonstrate how brain drain has intensified existing disparities in access to quality healthcare services, particularly for rural populations. International migration has intensified this imbalance because experienced professionals are frequently replaced either by newly qualified practitioners with limited clinical experience or, in some instances, are not replaced at all.³⁸ Consequently, many rural primary healthcare centres operate with inadequate staffing, thereby compromising the provision of maternal and child healthcare, disease prevention programmes and emergency medical services.

The loss of specialist healthcare professionals presents an even greater challenge. Medical specialties such as neurosurgery, cardiothoracic surgery, nephrology, oncology, psychiatry, anaesthesiology and intensive care medicine require years of highly specialised training and substantial public investment. When consultants in these disciplines emigrate, the resulting shortages cannot be remedied quickly because specialist training is itself resource-intensive and time-consuming.³⁹ The consequence is that many tertiary hospitals experience increasing waiting lists, reduced service availability and greater dependence on referrals for specialised care. Medical education has equally suffered from the continued emigration of experienced clinicians. Teaching hospitals perform three interrelated functions: patient care, medical education and research. The departure of senior consultants therefore affects not only clinical services but also the supervision of undergraduate medical students, residency training and postgraduate research.⁴⁰ Reduced mentorship opportunities and increasing staff shortages threaten the long-term sustainability of Nigeria's health workforce by limiting the country's capacity to train future generations of healthcare professionals.

The economic implications of brain drain are equally significant. Developing countries invest substantial public resources in educating and training highly skilled professionals, yet when these individuals emigrate, recipient countries benefit from their expertise without bearing the costs of their education and training. Consequently, countries such as Nigeria lose both scarce human capital and the economic returns on their investment in professional education.⁴¹ Nigeria therefore incurs a double loss: the financial investment in training is forfeited while the domestic healthcare system simultaneously suffers shortages requiring additional expenditure to mitigate. Beyond its institutional and economic consequences, the shortage of healthcare professionals has weakened the performance of Nigeria's healthcare system. Persistent workforce shortages, limited access to specialised care, inadequate diagnostic capacity and disruptions in essential health services have adversely affected the quality, accessibility and responsiveness of healthcare, thereby undermining public confidence in the health system and encouraging many Nigerians who can afford it to seek treatment abroad. This perception has, in turn, fuelled the growth of outbound medical tourism, creating another dimension of healthcare inequality between citizens able to afford overseas treatment and those who depend exclusively upon domestic services.

Taken together, these developments demonstrate that brain drain is not merely a labour market phenomenon but a broader developmental challenge with profound implications for healthcare delivery, medical education, public finance and national development. Unless comprehensive reforms are implemented to strengthen health institutions and improve professional retention, the continued migration of healthcare workers will remain a significant obstacle to achieving Universal Health Coverage in Nigeria.

Medical Tourism and Healthcare Capacity

Medical tourism has emerged as both a consequence and an indicator of the structural weaknesses affecting Nigeria's healthcare system. Although cross-border healthcare has become increasingly common in an era of globalisation, the scale at which Nigerians seek medical treatment abroad reflects persistent deficiencies in domestic healthcare capacity. Persistent deficiencies in healthcare infrastructure, shortages of specialist personnel and limited diagnostic and treatment capacity have contributed to a sustained pattern of outbound medical tourism. Consequently, many Nigerians including public officials, business leaders and private citizens who can afford the costs continue to seek medical treatment in countries such as India, the United Kingdom, Saudi Arabia, Türkiye, the United Arab Emirates and South Africa for procedures that could potentially be performed within Nigeria if adequate infrastructure, modern equipment and specialist expertise were consistently available.⁴² For instance, it was reported that India had become a major destination for medical tourism, attracting approximately 25,000 Nigerian patients annually.⁴³

The increasing demand for overseas healthcare is attributable to a combination of institutional, infrastructural and professional factors. Chronic underinvestment in healthcare infrastructure has resulted in shortages of modern diagnostic

equipment, poorly maintained medical technologies and inadequate specialist facilities in many public hospitals. Although Nigerian healthcare professionals are widely recognised for their competence and many have excelled in health systems abroad, their effectiveness within Nigeria is often constrained by inadequate infrastructure, shortages of modern equipment, limited funding and other institutional deficiencies that restrict the delivery of optimal healthcare services.⁴⁴ Brain drain has further exacerbated these limitations through the departure of experienced consultants whose expertise is essential for highly specialised procedures.

The migration of specialist healthcare professionals has had particularly adverse consequences for tertiary healthcare in Nigeria. Highly specialised services such as organ transplantation, cardiovascular surgery, oncology, advanced radiology and critical care medicine depend upon multidisciplinary teams operating within adequately equipped institutions. The emigration of consultants and other highly skilled specialists in these fields has reduced the capacity of tertiary hospitals to provide complex diagnostic and therapeutic services, frequently necessitating overseas referrals and contributing to the growing incidence of medical tourism among patients seeking specialised treatment.⁴⁵ Consequently, many Nigerians perceive foreign hospitals as offering greater certainty regarding timely diagnosis, treatment and continuity of care. Medical tourism also imposes substantial economic costs on Nigeria. Large amounts of foreign exchange are expended annually on overseas consultations, surgery, accommodation and related expenses. These financial resources could instead be invested in strengthening domestic hospitals, expanding specialist training programmes and modernising healthcare infrastructure.⁴⁶ The continued outflow of patients therefore reinforces a cycle in which underinvestment contributes to declining public confidence, which in turn encourages further reliance on foreign healthcare institutions. Nevertheless, attributing medical tourism exclusively to brain drain would oversimplify a complex problem. Weak governance, inadequate health financing, inconsistent maintenance of medical infrastructure, industrial disputes and broader institutional deficiencies have collectively undermined healthcare capacity.⁴⁷ Brain drain should therefore be understood as one component of a broader structural crisis in which institutional weakness encourages professional migration while professional migration further weakens institutional capacity.

Addressing medical tourism requires more than restricting overseas treatment by public officials or increasing health budgets. Sustainable reform demands strategic investment in centres of excellence, advanced diagnostic technologies, specialist medical education, clinical research and hospital management. Equally important is the creation of professional environments capable of retaining experienced healthcare personnel and encouraging members of the Nigerian medical diaspora to contribute to domestic capacity through collaborative research, specialist outreach, telemedicine and temporary return programmes.

Government Responses and Policy Initiatives

Successive Nigerian governments have acknowledged the adverse consequences of healthcare worker migration and have introduced a variety of policy initiatives aimed at strengthening the country's health workforce. These measures have included reforms in workforce planning, expansion of medical education, improvements in remuneration, increased investment in health infrastructure and efforts to engage the Nigerian health diaspora. While these initiatives represent important policy responses, their implementation has frequently been constrained by inadequate funding, weak institutional capacity and inconsistent political commitment.⁴⁸ A significant policy development has been the formulation of the National Human Resources for Health Policy and Strategic Plan, which seeks to improve workforce planning, recruitment, deployment and retention across the healthcare system.⁴⁹ The policy recognises that healthcare delivery depends not merely upon increasing the number of health professionals but also upon ensuring their equitable distribution, continuous professional development and long-term retention within the country. Government has also expanded opportunities for medical education through the establishment of additional medical schools, nursing colleges and allied health training institutions. This expansion reflects recognition that Nigeria requires a substantially larger health workforce to meet the healthcare needs of its rapidly growing population. Nevertheless, increasing the number of graduates alone cannot resolve the brain drain crisis where emigration continues to exceed domestic retention. Without corresponding improvements in working conditions, infrastructure and career progression, newly trained professionals remain likely to seek employment abroad.

Periodic reviews of salaries and allowances have similarly sought to improve workforce retention. Hazard allowances, specialist allowances and negotiated salary adjustments have been introduced at various times through collective bargaining between government and professional associations.⁵⁰ Although such measures have provided temporary improvements, their effectiveness has often been undermined by inflation, exchange-rate depreciation and delays in implementation. Consequently, remuneration remains only one component of a broader strategy required to retain highly skilled professionals.

In recent years, greater policy attention has been devoted to strengthening Nigeria's healthcare infrastructure through targeted investments in primary healthcare facilities, teaching hospitals and specialist medical centres. Under the Nigeria Health Sector Renewal Investment Initiative, the Federal Government, in collaboration with state governments and

development partners, has prioritised the upgrading of health infrastructure, expansion of diagnostic and specialist services, increased financial protection through health insurance, and the provision of modern medical equipment as part of broader efforts to improve the quality and accessibility of healthcare services.⁵¹ While these investments have yielded measurable improvements in some institutions, substantial disparities remain between urban tertiary hospitals and many secondary and primary healthcare facilities. Another increasingly important policy direction involves engagement with the Nigerian health diaspora. Contemporary migration scholarship has shifted from viewing skilled migration solely as brain drain towards concepts such as brain circulation and diaspora knowledge networks.⁵² Accordingly, existing policy documents and studies have shown that contemporary policy discussions have increasingly explored mechanisms through which healthcare professionals including Nigerians in the diaspora can contribute to national development without necessarily returning permanently. Consistent with the concept of brain circulation, these approaches emphasise temporary and virtual forms of engagement, including visiting professorships, telemedicine, collaborative research, specialist outreach missions, postgraduate supervision, professional mentoring and technology transfer. Such initiatives enable diaspora professionals to strengthen clinical practice, medical education and research capacity within Nigeria while respecting their rights to international mobility and professional advancement.⁵³ Nigeria is among the World Health Organization's Member States that adopted the WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel, which promotes ethical international recruitment and encourages cooperation between source and destination countries in addressing global shortages of health workers.⁵⁴ Although the Code is voluntary, it provides an important normative framework for balancing the right of individuals to migrate with the need to protect vulnerable health systems from unsustainable workforce losses.

Despite these policy initiatives, evidence suggests that brain drain remains a persistent challenge because many of its underlying drivers have yet to be adequately addressed. Sustainable retention will require greater investment in healthcare financing, institutional governance, research infrastructure, security, transparent promotion systems and professional development. Ultimately, policies designed to retain healthcare professionals are likely to succeed only when remaining in Nigeria offers opportunities for professional fulfilment comparable to those available in major destination countries.

Comparative Lessons from Other African Countries

Although Nigeria presents one of the most striking examples of healthcare worker migration in Africa, the phenomenon is by no means unique. Several African countries have experienced comparable shortages of skilled health personnel resulting from the combined effects of economic constraints, weak health systems and increasing international demand for healthcare workers. A comparative examination of selected African countries demonstrates that, while the drivers of migration are broadly similar across the continent, differences in policy responses provide useful lessons for Nigeria. Ghana has long grappled with the emigration of doctors and nurses, particularly to the United Kingdom, the United States and other Commonwealth countries.⁵⁵ During the 1990s and early 2000s, the country experienced significant losses of medical personnel as deteriorating working conditions and comparatively low remuneration encouraged migration abroad.⁵⁶ In response, the Ghanaian Government implemented a combination of financial and non-financial retention strategies, including salary enhancements through the Additional Duty Hours Allowance (ADHA), expansion of postgraduate training opportunities, improvements in housing and rural service incentives, and reforms in health workforce management.⁵⁷ Although these measures did not eliminate migration, they contributed to improved retention and demonstrated that coherent workforce policies can moderate, rather than completely prevent, the outflow of skilled professionals.

Rwanda offers another instructive example. Following the devastating consequences of the 1994 genocide, the country faced an acute shortage of healthcare professionals and a severely weakened health system. Rather than relying solely on increasing domestic training, Rwanda adopted a comprehensive approach centred on health system strengthening, institutional accountability and international partnerships. The Human Resources for Health Programme, implemented in collaboration with leading international universities, facilitated specialist training, faculty development and knowledge transfer while simultaneously improving healthcare infrastructure.⁵⁸ The programme illustrated that sustained investment in institutional capacity, combined with strategic international cooperation, can significantly strengthen domestic health systems even where financial resources are limited. South Africa presents a more complex case. While the country has itself experienced the emigration of physicians and nurses to Europe, North America and Australia, it has simultaneously become a destination for healthcare professionals from neighbouring African countries, including Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi and the Democratic Republic of the Congo.⁵⁹ This dual role as both a source and destination country highlights the regional nature of health workforce migration and demonstrates that migration flows are often shaped by relative rather than absolute economic conditions. South Africa has also invested substantially in specialist medical education, research infrastructure and public health institutions, thereby enhancing its capacity to retain highly skilled professionals despite continuing outward migration. Ethiopia has similarly adopted innovative approaches to addressing workforce shortages through the rapid expansion of medical education, decentralised training institutions and large-scale investment in community health workers under its Health Extension Programme.⁶⁰ While the country continues to face migration challenges, these initiatives have significantly improved access to primary healthcare and demonstrated the importance of integrating workforce planning within broader health system reforms.

These comparative experiences suggest several important lessons for Nigeria. First, no African country has successfully eliminated health worker migration through restrictive measures alone. Attempts to prevent professionals from emigrating without addressing underlying structural deficiencies have generally proved ineffective. Second, successful retention strategies extend beyond salary increases to include improved working environments, transparent career progression, opportunities for specialist training, adequate research funding and supportive institutional governance. Third, diaspora engagement should be viewed not merely as a compensatory measure but as an integral component of national health workforce policy. Finally, sustained political commitment to healthcare financing remains indispensable. Countries that have achieved measurable improvements in workforce retention have generally combined increased investment in healthcare infrastructure with broader reforms aimed at improving institutional performance and professional satisfaction.⁶¹

Nigeria can therefore draw valuable lessons from these experiences. Rather than treating brain drain as an isolated labour market problem, policymakers should recognise it as part of a broader challenge of health system governance and human capital development. A comprehensive strategy that strengthens institutions, improves professional welfare and actively harnesses the expertise of the Nigerian health diaspora is likely to produce more sustainable outcomes than policies focused exclusively on migration control.

Conclusion

This paper has examined the relationship between Structural Adjustment Programmes; brain drain and the persistent challenges confronting healthcare delivery in Nigeria. It has argued that although the migration of healthcare professionals is influenced by global labour market dynamics and the legitimate aspirations of individuals to improve their professional and personal circumstances, the scale of migration observed in Nigeria cannot be understood without reference to the structural weaknesses that have characterised the country's health sector since the implementation of economic adjustment policies during the mid-1980s. The contraction of public expenditure, deterioration of health infrastructure, declining real wages and limited opportunities for professional advancement created conditions that have continued to encourage the outward migration of skilled healthcare personnel. The article has further demonstrated that brain drain extends beyond the movement of individual professionals. It has profound implications for healthcare delivery, medical education, health financing, research capacity and national development. The persistent loss of experienced clinicians has contributed to workforce shortages, increased pressure on remaining health professionals, widened inequalities in access to healthcare and reduced the capacity of Nigerian hospitals to provide specialised medical services. These developments have also reinforced the growth of medical tourism, leading to substantial losses of financial resources that could otherwise be invested in strengthening domestic healthcare institutions. At the same time, the study recognises that migration should not be viewed exclusively through the lens of loss. Contemporary scholarship increasingly acknowledges the developmental potential of diaspora engagement through remittances, research collaboration, specialist outreach, telemedicine and technology transfer. Nevertheless, these potential benefits cannot substitute for a well-functioning domestic health system capable of retaining a critical mass of skilled professionals. Sustainable national development requires strong institutions that provide healthcare workers with opportunities for professional fulfilment, continuous learning and meaningful career progression within their own country.

The comparative experiences of Ghana, Rwanda, South Africa and Ethiopia demonstrate that meaningful progress is achievable where governments adopt comprehensive, evidence-based and adequately financed health workforce strategies. These experiences suggest that retention is most successful when improvements in remuneration are accompanied by investment in healthcare infrastructure, transparent governance, specialist education, research capacity and supportive working environments. Nigeria's challenge is therefore not simply to produce more doctors and nurses, but to create institutional conditions that encourage them to build long-term professional careers within the country. Looking forward, policy interventions should focus on strengthening primary, secondary and tertiary healthcare institutions through sustained public investment, improving workforce planning, expanding postgraduate medical education, modernising clinical infrastructure and deepening collaboration with the Nigerian health diaspora. In addition, stronger implementation of the WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel should inform bilateral cooperation between Nigeria and destination countries to promote more ethical and mutually beneficial approaches to health workforce mobility. Ultimately, the phenomenon of brain drain reflects broader questions of governance, development and social justice. Healthcare professionals migrate not merely because opportunities exist elsewhere, but because domestic institutions often fail to provide the professional environment necessary for them to realise their full potential. Addressing brain drain therefore requires more than policies designed to discourage migration; it requires sustained commitment to building resilient institutions, restoring confidence in Nigeria's healthcare system and recognising healthcare workers as indispensable partners in national development. Unless these structural reforms are pursued with consistency and political resolve, the continued migration of skilled healthcare professionals will remain a significant obstacle to achieving Universal Health Coverage and the health-related Sustainable Development Goals in Nigeria.

Endnotes

- ¹ World Health Organization, *The World Health Report 2006: Working Together for Health*. (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2006): 1-24.
- ² World Health Organization, *The State of the World's Nursing 2020: Investing in Education, Jobs and Leadership* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2020), 17-30. And Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, *International Migration Outlook 2023* (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2023), 155-183; World Health Organization, *Health Workforce Support and Safeguards List 2023* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2023), 1-8.
- ³ Stephen Castles, Hein de Haas and Mark J. Miller, *The Age of Migration: International Population Movements in the Modern World*, 5th ed. (London: Macmillan, 2014): 28-29; 84; 210. Also, Christian C. Madubuko and Tony F. E. Nwaka, 'The Alarming Exodus of Nigerian Professionals: The Devastating Consequences of Human Capital Flight and Migration on Nigeria's Economic Development', *American Journal of International Relations*, 9, Issue 7, (2024): 2-3.
- ⁴ World Health Organization, *Global Strategy on Human Resources for Health: Workforce 2030* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2016): 3-9. And also, see World Health Organization, *The World Health Report 2006: Working Together for Health* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2006): 1-24.
- ⁵ Adebayo Olukoshi, *The Politics of Structural Adjustment in Nigeria* (London: James Currey, 1993): 3-15
- ⁶ Olukoshi, *The Politics of Structural Adjustment*, 88-109; and World Health Organization, *The World Health Report 2006: Working Together for Health* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2006): 1-24.
- ⁷ Lincoln C. Chen and Jo Ivey Boufford, 'Fatal Flows, Doctors on the Move', *New England Journal of Medicine*, Vol. 353, No. 17 (2005): 1850-1852.
- ⁸ For details, See Stephen Castles, Hein de Haas and Mark J. Miller, *The Age of Migration*, 317-340.
- ⁹ For details, See William J. Carrington and Enrica Detragiache, *Working Paper: How Big Is the Brain Drain?* (Washington, DC: International Monetary Fund, 1998): 2-20
- ¹⁰ See Theodore W. Schultz, *Investment in Human Capital* (New York: Free Press, 1971); and Gary S. Becker, *Human Capital: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis*, 3rd ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993).
- ¹¹ Lincoln C. Chen et al., 'Human Resources for Health: Overcoming the Crisis', *The Lancet*, Vol. 364 (2004): 1984-1990.
- ¹² Delanyo Dovlo, 'Taking More than a Fair Share? The Migration of Health Professionals from Poor to Rich Countries', *PLoS Medicine*, Vol. 2, No. 5 (2005), pp. 376-379.
- ¹³ Rosalie L. Tung, "Brain Circulation, Diaspora, and International Competitiveness," *European Management Journal* 26, no. 5 (2008): 298-301; Damtew Teferra, "Brain Circulation: Unparalleled Opportunities, Underlying Challenges, and Outmoded Presumptions," *Journal of Studies in International Education* 9, no. 3 (2005): 229-236; and Amr Radwan and Mahmoud Sakr, "Exploring 'Brain Circulation' as a Concept to Mitigate Brain Drain in Africa and Improve EU-Africa Cooperation in the Field of Science and Technology," *South African Journal of International Affairs* 25, no. 4 (2018): 517-521.
- ¹⁴ World Health Organization, *Working Together for Health: The World Health Report 2006* (Geneva: WHO, 2006): 11-18, 98-102. Also, see Stephen, *The Age of Migration: International Population*, 315-334.
- ¹⁵ For these details see Olukoshi, *The Politics of Structural Adjustment in Nigeria*, 1-41.
- ¹⁶ Olukoshi, *The Politics of Structural Adjustment in Nigeria*, 35-48, 71-89; World Bank, *World Development Report 1993: Investing in Health* (New York: Oxford University Press for the World Bank, 1993): 163-166; World Health Organization, *The World Health Report 2006: Working Together for Health* (Geneva: WHO, 2006), 11-18; 98-102; Adetokunbo O. Soyibo, "Health Care Financing in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects," *Health Policy and Planning* 2, no. 3 (1987): 220-228; Dennis A. Ityavyar, *Health Services Inequalities in Nigeria* (Ibadan: Fountain Publications, 1989): 95-118; and M. C. Asuzu, *The Nigerian Health Care System* (Ibadan: College Press, 2004): 57-74.
- ¹⁷ See World Bank, *World Development Report: Investing in Health* (Washington, DC: World Bank, 1993).
- ¹⁸ Federal Ministry of Health, *National Strategic Health Development Plan (NSHDP)*, (2010-2015): 22-35; and Federal Ministry of Health, *Health Sector Reform Programme*, relevant sections on health financing and infrastructure. World Health Organization, (*The World Health Report 2006*): 98-102. Also, see A. O. Lucas and H. M. Gilles, *Short Textbook of Public Health Medicine for the Tropics*, 4th ed., ed. Bruce G. Charlwood (London: Hodder Arnold, 2003), 283-290; and Olukoshi, *The Politics of Structural Adjustment in Nigeria*, 35-48.
- ¹⁹ See Everett S. Lee, 'A Theory of Migration', *Demography*, Vol. 3, No. 1 (1966), pp. 47-57.
- ²⁰ World Health Organization, *Global Strategy on Human Resources for Health: Workforce 2030*, 12-15, 24-26; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, *International Migration Outlook 2023*, pp. 145-156; and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, *Health at a Glance 2023: OECD Indicators* (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2023): 66-73.
- ²¹ Lincoln C. Chen et al., "Human Resources for Health: Overcoming the Crisis," *The Lancet* 364, Issue 9449 (2004): 1984-1986.
- ²² See John B. Eastwood et al., "Loss of Health Professionals from Sub-Saharan Africa: The Pivotal Role of the UK," *The Lancet* 365 (2005): 1893-1900; and Adesegun Fatusi et al., "Health Workforce and Governance: The Crisis in Nigeria," *Human Resources for Health* 15 (2017): 1-7

- ²³ See World Health Organization, *Global Strategy on Human Resources for Health: Workforce 2030* (Geneva: WHO, 2016).
- ²⁴ World Health Organization, *State of the World's Nursing 2020* (Geneva: WHO, 2020).
- ²⁵ Raufu A. "Nigerian Health Authorities Worry Over Exodus of Doctors and Nurses," *BMJ* (2002): 325:65 quoted in C Uneke, A Ogbonna, A Ezeoha, P Oyibo, F Onwe, B Ngwu, Innovative Health Research Group. *The Nigeria Health Sector and Human Resource Challenges*. The Internet Journal of Health. 2007 Volume 8 Number 1.
- ²⁶ The Punch, 77% Of Black Doctors In Us Are Nigerians –reps' Committee - Health, 03 March, 2012
- ²⁷ The Guardian Mobile, 3,936 Nigerian Doctors Practice in UK, September, 05, 2013
- ²⁸ Deborah Tolu-Kalawole, "Over 4,600 Nigerian doctors relocate to UK in three years - Report," *The Punch*, April 21 2026
- ²⁹ Deborah Tolu-Kalawole, "Over 4,600 Nigerian doctors relocate to UK in three years - Report," *The Punch*, April 21 2026
- ³⁰ Chankova S, Nguyen H, Chipanta D, Kombe G, Onoja A, Ogungbemi K. *Catalyzing Human Resources Mobilization: A look at the situation in Nigeria*. Abt Associates Inc. May 30, 2007 Global Health Council Annual Conference, Washington DC
- ³¹ Health Reform Foundation of Nigeria, *Nigerian Health Review Abuja: Health Reform Foundation of Nigeria*, (2007): 55
- ³² The Guardian Mobile, 3,936 Nigerian Doctors Practice in UK, September, 05, 2013
- ³³ Safeguarding Health in Conflict Coalition, *Epidemic of Violence: Violence Against Health Care in Conflict 2023* (New York: SHCC, 2025), 5.
- ³⁴ Deborah Tolu-Kalawole, "Over 4,600 Nigerian doctors relocate to UK in three years - Report," *The Punch*, April 21 2026
- ³⁵ See Onah C.K., et al, 'Physician emigration from Nigeria and the associated factors: the implications to safeguarding the Nigeria health system.' *Hum Resour Health* 20, 85 (2022); and Bernard Ubom AE et al. 'Health, well-being, and Burnout amongst Early Career Doctors in Nigeria' *PLoS ONE*, 18, 5, (2023).
- ³⁶ Alawode et al. 'Optimizing the Health workforce for Universal Health Coverage: A Framework for Analysis and Action', *Human Resources for Health*, 23, 27, (2025), 9.
- ³⁷ Nwankwo ONO, et al. "A Qualitative Inquiry of Rural-Urban Inequalities in the Distribution and Retention of Healthcare Workers in Southern Nigeria. *PLoS ONE* 17, 3, (2022): 2.
- ³⁸ Kwadwo Mensah, Maureen Mackintosh and Leroi Henry, *The 'Skills Drain' of Health Professionals from the Developing World* (London: Medact, 2005), 2-7, 30-33.
- ³⁹ Delanyo Dovlo, "Taking More than a Fair Share? The Migration of Health Professionals from Poor to Rich Countries," *PLoS Medicine* 2, no. 5 (2005): 376-379; and Federal Ministry of Health, *National Human Resources for Health Strategic Plan 2021-2025*
- ⁴⁰ Jo Ivey Boufford and Lincoln C. Chen, "Fatal Flows-Doctors on the Move," *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 353, 17, (2005): 1850-1852.
- ⁴¹ Augustine Oyowe, "Brain Drain: Colossal Loss of Investment for Developing Countries," *The Courier ACP-EU* 159 (1996): 34-36; and Federal Ministry of Health, *National Human Resources for Health Strategic Plan 2021-2025*.
- ⁴² See PricewaterhouseCoopers Nigeria, *Transforming the Nigerian Healthcare Sector: Options for the Future* (Lagos: PricewaterhouseCoopers Nigeria, 2017), 6-12, 18-24; Nigeria Sovereign Investment Authority, *Healthcare Sector Investment Initiative* (Abuja: Nigeria Sovereign Investment Authority, 2023), 8-18; Federal Ministry of Health, *Second National Strategic Health Development Plan (NSHDP II) 2018-2022* (Abuja: Federal Ministry of Health, 2018), 20-36, 54-68; and Nigerian Sovereign Investment Authority, *Healthcare Sector Investment Initiative* (Abuja: NSIA, 2023).
- ⁴³ The Punch, 77% Of Black Doctors In Us Are Nigerians –reps' Committee - Health, 03 March, 2012
- ⁴⁴ See Dovlo, "Taking More than a Fair Share?"
- ⁴⁵ World Health Organization, *The World Health Report 2006: Working Together for Health* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2006), 11-26, 98-105; Federal Ministry of Health, *Second National Strategic Health Development Plan (NSHDP II) 2018–2022* (Abuja: Federal Ministry of Health, 2018), 20-36, 54-68; and PricewaterhouseCoopers Nigeria, *Transforming the Nigerian Healthcare Sector: Options for the Future*, 6-12, 18-24.
- ⁴⁶ See Nigeria Health Watch, "Medical Tourism and Nigeria's Health System," *Policy Brief* (2022).
- ⁴⁷ A. Mills, 'Health Care Systems in Low- and Middle-Income Countries,' *The New England Journal of Medicine* 370, 6, (2014): 552-557.
- ⁴⁸ Federal Ministry of Health, *Second National Strategic Health Development Plan (NSHDP II) 2018-2022* (Abuja: Federal Ministry of Health, 2018), 13-18, 20-36, 54-68; and Federal Ministry of Health, *National Strategic Health Development Plan II* (Abuja: FMOH, 2018). For efforts to engage the Nigerian health diaspora, see Federal Ministry of Health, *Diaspora Plus Professionals Healthcare Initiative (DPPHI)* (2020).
- ⁴⁹ See Federal Ministry of Health, *National Human Resources for Health Policy* (Abuja: FMOH).
- ⁵⁰ See Christopher E. Obianagwa, Chukwuemeka C. Ejiofor and Samuel I. Ugwuozor, "National Policy on Health Workforce Migration and Mitigation of Exodus of Trained Medical Workers through the Incentive System in Nigeria",

Journal of Xi'an Shiyuan University, Natural Science Edition, 21. 5, (2025): 237-257; and Nigerian Medical Association, "Policy Memoranda on Health Workforce Retention".

⁵¹ Federal Ministry of Health, Nigeria Health Sector Renewal Investment Initiative (Abuja: Federal Ministry of Health 2023).

⁵² See Hein de Haas, Stephen Castles and Mark J. Miller, *The Age of Migration*, 45-54, 308-320

⁵³ Hein de Haas, Stephen Castles, and Mark J. Miller, *The Age of Migration*, 313-320; Devesh Kapur and John McHale, *Give Us Your Best and Brightest: The Global Hunt for Talent and Its Impact on the Developing World* (Washington, DC: Center for Global Development, 2005), 147-183; and Federal Ministry of Health, *Diaspora Plus Professionals Healthcare Initiative (DPPHI)* (Abuja: Federal Ministry of Health, 2020).

⁵⁴ For the WHO Global Code see, World Health Organization, *WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2010), 3-6 And for confirmation of adoption of the Code by Nigeria, see Samik Adhikari, Michael Clemens, Helen Dempster and Nkechi Linda Ekeato, *A Global Skill Partnership in Nursing between Nigeria and the UK*, (Washington DC: CGD Case Study, July 2021), 6-29

⁵⁵ Delanyo Dovlo and Frank Nyong'o, "Migration by Graduates of the University of Ghana Medical School: A Preliminary Rapid Appraisal," *Human Resources for Health* 3, no. 1 (1999): 40-51.

⁵⁶ Fumilayo Showers, "I Just Ended up in Nursing": Inequalities in Health Professions Education and Migration Aspirations among Medical and Nursing Students in Ghana", *SSM - Qualitative Research in Health*, 3, (2023): 2

⁵⁷ Dovlo, "Taking More than a Fair Share?", 376-379.

⁵⁸ Agnes Binagwaho et al., 'The Human Resources for Health Program in Rwanda-A New Partnership,' *The New England Journal of Medicine* 369, 21, (2013): 2054-2059.

⁵⁹ Michael A Clemens and Gunilla Pettersson, "New Data on African Health Professionals Abroad", *Human Resources for Health*, 6,1, (2008): 1-11; World Health Organization Regional Office for Africa. *Migration of Health Personnel in the WHO African Region: A Situation Analysis*, (Brazzaville: WHO Regional Office for Africa, 2004): 18-40; World Health Organization. *The World Health Report 2006: Working Together for Health*, (Geneva: WHO, 2006): 98-104; and John Connell, *The Migration of Health Workers: International, Institutional and Professional Dimensions* (London: Routledge, 2010): 65-101

⁶⁰ James Avoka Asamani et al, "Exploring the availability of specialist health workforce education in East and Southern Africa: a document analysis", *BMJ Global Health*, 7, (2022): 1-8; and World Health Organization, *Primary Health Care on the Road to Universal Health Coverage: 2019 Monitoring Report* (Geneva: WHO, 2019).

⁶¹ World Health Organization, *Global Strategy on Human Resources for Health: Workforce 2030* (Geneva: WHO, 2016); Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), *International Migration Outlook* (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2023).