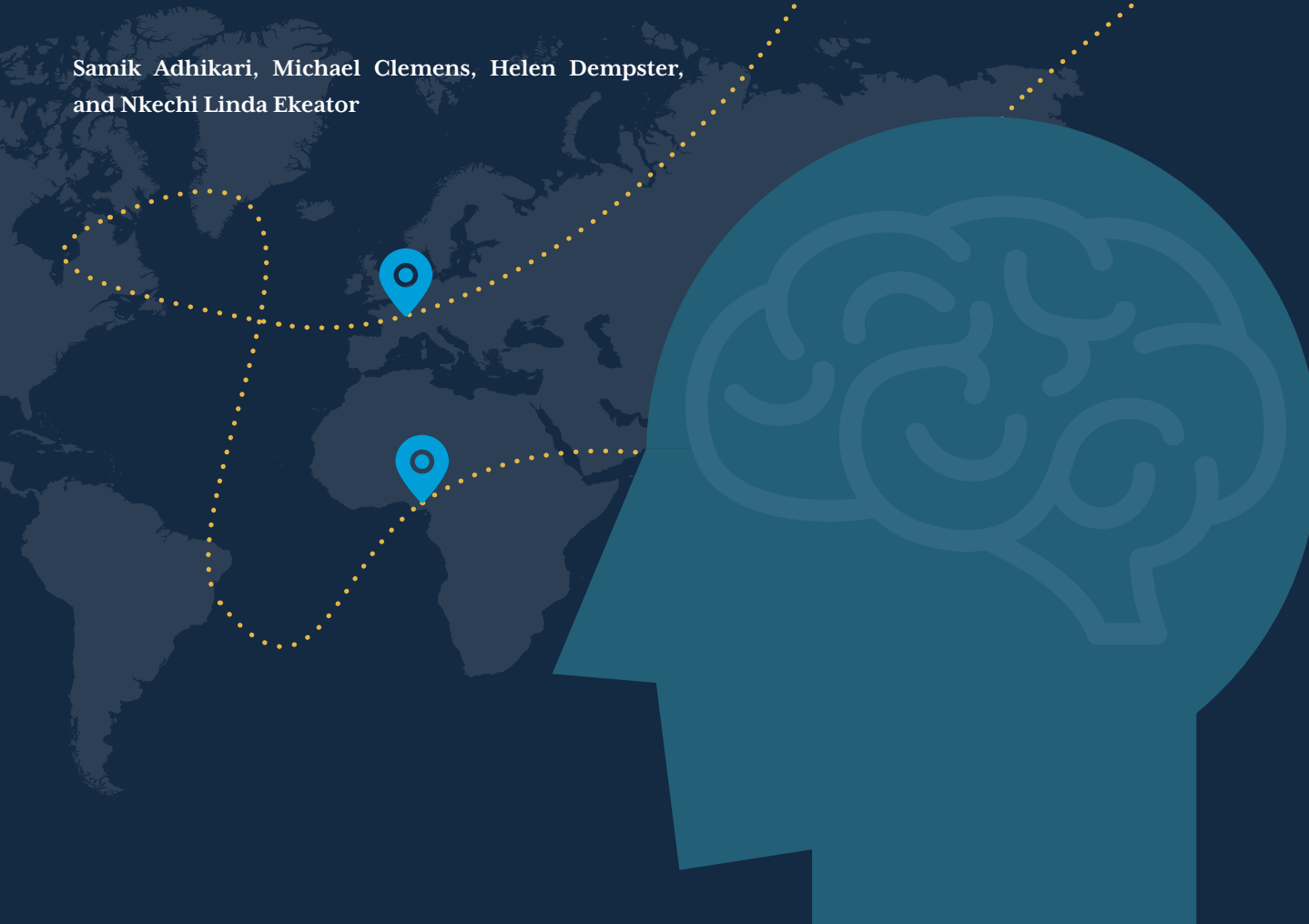# Expanding Legal Migration Pathways from Nigeria to Europe:

From Brain Drain to Brain Gain

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RAPID SOCIAL RESPONSE

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Abstract

The world is currently at a crossroads. Low- and middle-income countries such as Nigeria are seeing rapid growth in their working-age populations. Yet often, these increasingly educated and skilled young people cannot find meaningful work within their countries of origin, either because their skills are not well aligned to the needs of employers or because there is an absolute lack of roles available. This is creating emigration pressure, with many seeking opportunities elsewhere, leading to fears of "brain drain" within countries of origin. At the same time, high-income countries such as those in Europe are seeing rapid decreases in their working-age populations. Employers within these countries are facing significant skill shortages, which is reducing productivity and investment. Based on interviews with more than 100 stakeholders, this report applies the Center for Global Development's (CGD) Global Skill Partnership model to the sectors of health care, construction, and ICT, designing partnerships between Nigeria and select countries of destination in Europe. It outlines how countries of destination looking to fill labor shortages can provide high-quality and industry-relevant training to potential migrants and nonimmigrants within Nigeria, increasing the global stock of workers and contributing to "brain gain".

Acknowledgments

Acronyms

APTC	Australia Pacific Training Coalition
BLA	bilateral labor agreement
CORBON	Council of Registered Builders of Nigeria
CPF	country partnership framework
CPN	Computer Professionals Registration Council of Nigeria
EIB	European Investment Bank
EU	European Union
EUTF	European Union Trust Fund for Africa
FHA	Federal Housing Authority
FMWH	Federal Ministry of Works and Housing
FOCI	Federation of Construction Industry
FTE	full-time equivalent
GAMM	Global Approach to Migration and Mobility
HEE	Health Education England
HRH	Human Resources for Health
ICMPD	International Center for Migration Policy Development
LMI	labor market information
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MSME	micro, small, and medium enterprises
MPF	Mobility Partnerships Facility
NEPI	Nursing Education Partnership Initiative
NMCN	Nursing and Midwifery Council of Nigeria
NOS	National Occupational Standards
NPHCDA	National Primary Health Care Development Agency
NBTE	National Board for Technical Education
NLSS	National Living Standard Survey
PEPFAR	President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
PwC	Pricewaterhouse Coopers
RSE	Recognised Seasonal Employer
SMEs	small and medium enterprises
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UHC	universal health coverage
UKPHS	UK Partnerships for Health Systems
WHO	World Health Organization

Executive Summary

> **"This is the future. This is the kind of cooperation that we should upscale; giving opportunities for young people to develop the skills that they can use both on the Moroccan labor market and in the European labor market."**
> European Union Commissioner for Home Affairs, Ylva Johannson, speaking about the PALIM project, December 2, 2020.[1]

The youth population within Nigeria is rapidly increasing, but despite their high levels of education and skills, many are struggling to find meaningful work opportunities at home. At the same time, Europe's working-age population is declining, resulting in employers in these countries facing large and persistent skill shortages within a range of mid-skill professions. Despite the large benefits that facilitating migration between Nigeria and Europe could bring, and despite the overtures of both European governments and the European Union, few mutually beneficial migration partnerships exist.

This report, a joint production between the World Bank and the Center for Global Development (CGD), outlines how the Global Skill Partnership model could be used to meet needs on both sides. It explores the growing youth unemployment rate in Nigeria, the increasing emigration pressure, and the structures that have been set up to manage this movement. It also explores the large skill shortages persistent within Europe, its migration management relationship with Africa, and the potential positive impacts of opening new legal migration pathways. It creates a framework

with which to explore potential sectors and partner countries for the implementation of the Global Skill Partnership model, providing practical steps that governments can follow. And finally, it applies this framework to three sectors and partner countries: a health care partnership between Nigeria and the UK, a construction partnership between Nigeria and Germany, and an information and communications technology (ICT) partnership with various European states.

The Opportunity: Growing Supply of Young People in Nigeria, and Growing Employer Demand in Europe

Nigeria

Nigeria is Africa's largest economy and has, until recently, benefitted from long-run economic growth largely fueled by stable oil prices and a prudent fiscal policy. It is also on track to become the third most populous country in the world, adding another 100 million new people under the age of 35 by 2040. Yet in recent years, successive economic shocks including the COVID-19 pandemic have reduced the number of opportunities available for this growing youth population. Between 2010 and 2018, 25 million Nigerians entered the labor force; during the same period, the unemployment rate rose by 13 percent (Figure ES.1). This unemployment rate is affecting all Nigerians but, increasingly, it is those Nigerians who have secondary and post-secondary education who are struggling most

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1. Video available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LaRquILQ9Lc

to find meaningful work. It is estimated that Nigeria needs to create an additional 30 million jobs by 2030 to employ its growing working-age population. It is on track to create 10 percent of that number.

There is also plausible evidence that Nigerian youth are not entering the domestic labor market with industry-relevant skills. Various studies have shown that 5-10 percent of businesses in Nigeria find it difficult to fill vacancies due to job applicants' lack of skills, qualifications, or experience. The skills development system in Nigeria faces severe constraints on staffing, facilities, and equipment, resulting in exceedingly low equitable access and quality; low external efficiency due to the absence of linkages between curriculum design and labor market information (LMI), especially from industry and enterprises; gender inequity; shortage of well-qualified technical and vocational education teachers and inadequate professional development; and weak institutional capacity at the federal and state levels.

Concerned about their prospects at home, Nigeria's youth are increasingly looking to other economies for work. A Gallup poll conducted before the 2019 presidential elections showed that roughly half of all Nigerians said it was a "bad time" to find a job in the economy. The proportion of youth planning to leave Nigeria permanently increased from 36 percent in 2014 to 52 percent in 2018, one of the highest levels in Sub-Saharan Africa. The desire to migrate is highest among unemployed yet educated urban youth.

This desire is translating into increased emigration rates from Nigeria. In absolute numbers, the number of international migrants from Nigeria has increased from around 450,000 in 1990 to 1.4 million in 2019. Yet the share of international migrants originating from Nigeria as a proportion of the total population in 2019 (0.7 percent) is much lower than in Sub-Saharan Africa (2.5 percent) and the world (3.5 percent). Historically, most Nigerians migrated within Sub-Saharan Africa, but the share of migrants moving to Europe (31

Figure ES.1. Unemployment rates among Nigeria's youth haves been rising steeply

Source: World Bank Calculations based on data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS).

Note: Unemployment (ILO Definition): The unemployed comprise all persons of working age who were: (a) without work during the reference period, i.e., were not in paid employment or self-employment; (b) currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period; and (c) seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment. Unemployment (National Definition): In addition to the unemployed as defined by ILO, NBS considers any individual as 'unemployed' who could not find work for at least 20 hours during the reference period.

percent) and North America (22 percent) has increased considerably since 1990. This Nigerian diaspora remitted home US$25 billion in 2019, or 5 percent of Nigeria's GDP and fourfold what Nigeria received through foreign direct investment and official development assistance combined.

With limited options for legal migration outside of Africa, young Nigerians are increasingly choosing irregular alternatives to find better work opportunities overseas. Nigerians represented the largest group of migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa who arrived in Europe during the "migration crisis" of 2016 and 2017. While the number of Nigerian asylum-seekers in Europe has declined in recent years, this cannot translate as decreased demand for migration. The number of Nigerians in both Libya and Niger, transit countries for the journey to Europe, has increased, as have returns from both countries.

These substantial outflows, both legal and irregular, have led to narratives of "brain drain"— that is, the net export of human capital from Nigeria, leaving domestic sectors vulnerable and leading richer countries to benefit from Nigeria's investments in its own people. Unfortunately, there is no concrete data available to assess the extent, and impact, of brain drain from Nigeria, but it is evident that many skilled professionals (particularly within the health care sector) are seeking greener pastures abroad. Yet recent research has found that such skilled migration has many positive externalities including remittances, investment, and trade linkages with countries of destination, as well as better educational attainment of those in home communities.

Migration from Nigeria will continue and is likely to increase. Clemens (2020) has demonstrated the existence of a "migration hump"[2], whereby low-income countries exhibit increasingly high emigration pressure up to a turning point (approximately $10,000 GDP per capita).[3] Given Nigeria's current economic growth, it is likely that emigration pressure will continue from the country for decades to come (Figure ES.2). Nigeria could therefore stand to benefit from forming new migration partnerships that can provide safe, regular, and orderly routes for its youth to move, while ensuring such partnerships contribute to building opportunities and furthering economic growth at home.

Figure ES.2. The share of Nigerians actively preparing to emigrate is lowest at low incomes, and highest at high incomes

Source: Michael Clemens and Mariapia Mendola. 2020. "Migration from Developing Countries: Selection, Income Elasticity, and Simpson's Paradox." Center for Global Development (CGD) Working Paper 539. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD).

Note: The bell-shaped curve in gray, and the left-hand vertical axis, show the density of household income per capita for the whole Nigerian population. The line in blue (surrounded by an interval of statistical confidence), and the right-hand vertical axis, show the probability that people at each income level report that they are actively preparing to permanently emigrate from Nigeria.

Largely, Nigeria has the right policy instruments and institutions in place to take advantage of an increase in economic migration, remittances, and other opportunities linked to its diaspora. In recent years, it has

2. Michael Clemens. 2020. "The Emigration Life Cycle: How Development Shapes Emigration from Poor Countries." CGD Working Paper 540. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development.
3. All currencies in US Dollars unless otherwise stated.

formulated a National Employment Policy (2017), a National Migration Policy (2015), and a National Labor Migration Policy (2014). While these policies highlight the importance of labor migration for employment generation and economic development within Nigeria, they also highlight the lack of formal structures and support for labor migrants. They call for the establishment of an effective, responsive, and dynamic labor migration governance system that includes both bilateral labor agreements (BLA) and memoranda of understanding (MoU) to facilitate labor migration.

Europe

Europe is experiencing significant demographic shifts. By 2050, its working-age population (those aged between 28 and 64) is projected to decline by over 15 percent from 2020 levels due to a combination of low birth rates and increased longevity. Without migration, a selection of OECD countries are predicted to lose more than 92 million workers over that same time period while gaining more than 100 million people over 65 years of age. This will have substantial implications for European pension schemes, while also leading to substantial skill shortages within a number of growing and dynamic industries.

In 2021, the European Commission found that out of the top 28 shortage occupations, all but three fell into six buckets: health care, construction, engineering, mechanics, ICT, and hospitality. Fifty-five percent of these occupations require medium-level qualifications, 28 percent require low qualifications, and 25 percent require high qualifications. Within many of these occupations there exists both a lack of relevant applicants and a lack of people willing to take on roles at current wages and working conditions. These skill shortages are having an impact on the ability of employers to invest, expand, and remain productive. The European Investment Bank has found that 72 percent of firms consider skill shortages to be an obstacle to investment. Responding to such skill shortages will require creative solutions to raise wages and working conditions, but it will also likely require some amount of international recruitment.

Despite this large and growing need, there are relatively few migration pathways that allow those with a medium level of skills to move to Europe, particularly

Figure ES.3. As legal migration from Africa decreases, irregular migration increases
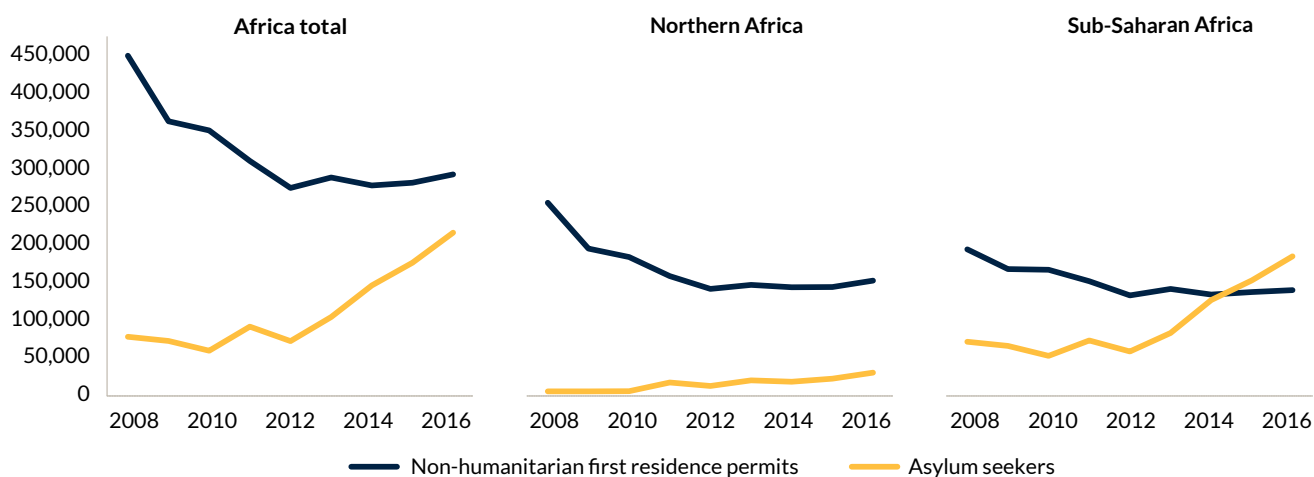
Source: Eurostat, as represented in European Commission Joint Research Centre (JRC). 2018. "Many more to come? Migration from and within Africa." Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/sites/jrcsh/files/africa_policy_report_2018_final.pdf

Note: The figure only includes first residence permits with a duration equal or longer than 12 months issued by the EU28. It does not include residence permits for humanitarian reasons as most of the people receiving this status are included in the number of asylum-seekers.

from growing regions like Sub-Saharan Africa. There has long been a history of migration between the two regions, with around 400,000 Africans moving to Europe every year between 2010 and 2015. As described above, until 2012, the vast majority were moving regularly with visas and residence permits, though the balance has shifted in recent years. It is unclear how long irregular arrivals will stay at their current levels, though COVID-19 has undoubtedly reduced economic opportunities within countries of origin. Yet one crucial part of the puzzle is the availability of legal pathways (Figure ES.3). Over time, European countries have reduced the number of visas available to people from African countries and increased their visa rejection rates, despite the vast benefits that such migrants could bring to the aging continent.

The lack of legal pathways between the continents is not for lack of policy instruments to facilitate them. In May 2012, the European Union (EU) developed the Global Approach to Migration and Mobility (GAMM), which aimed to integrate all aspects of migration and mobility with so-called third countries into overarching "mobility partnerships".[4] Working through existing dialogues such as the Rabat Process, the Prague Process, and the ACP-EU Migration Dialogue, new partnerships were signed to promote returns and readmission and enhance circular migration. Since that time, the EU has developed two new overarching migration frameworks—the 2015 European Agenda on Migration and the 2019 New Pact on Migration and Asylum—and many of its member states signed the New York Declaration on Refugees and Migrants and the Global Compact on Safe, Regular, and Orderly Migration.

Yet none of these agreements were able to help European Member States come to an agreement over how to manage migration, and very few meaningfully prioritized expanding legal migration routes. For example, only 1.5 percent of the EU Trust Fund for Africa (EUTF)

went toward expanding migration opportunities. Thankfully, things may be slowly shifting. While the New Pact on Migration and Asylum focuses predominantly on burden sharing for asylum-seekers, it does propose two new legal migration instruments: the EU Talent Pool and Talent Partnerships. The latter aims to invest in training, development, and systems strengthening in countries of origin, while expanding skilled migration. It builds on this "mobility partnerships" history and while the precise modes of implementation are still unclear, it is likely they will build on the success to date with the EU-funded ICMPD-implemented Mobility Partnerships Facility (MPF).

Opening up new legal migration pathways, whether through this new Talent Partnerships approach or through other innovations, could meet the substantial skills needs across the European continent while contributing to economic development abroad. They could also have other positive benefits. First, they could play a role in reducing irregular migration. There is little evidence as to whether expanded legal pathways can substitute for irregular migration, though the few pieces we do have show that legal pathways combined with robust border enforcement can have an impact. Second, they could improve foreign policy relationships with third countries. To date, European states have sought to obtain return and readmission agreements with African countries, without providing anything meaningful in return. Such legal pathways could help build true and equitable partnerships. And finally, they could enhance immigrant integration. Skilled migration, even from poor countries, is popular with the majority of Europeans. Bringing in small numbers of people who have skills needed within local economies could help build support for immigration over time. All of this will need to be done by "coalitions of the willing", groups of like-minded Member States who want to collaborate to build mutually beneficial migration agreements.

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4. Note, "third countries" in this context refers to any countries outside of the European Union, European Free Trade Association (EFTA), and the European Economic Area (EEA).

The Innovation: A Mutually Beneficial Migration Agreement, or The Global Skill Partnership model

In this report, we outline one such mutually beneficial migration partnership—the Global Skill Partnership model. The Global Skill Partnership was first proposed by CGD's Michael Clemens in 2012 as a way to regulate skilled migration to benefit countries of origin, destination, and the migrants themselves. It was expanded upon in a brief published in late 2017, and subsequently included as the only concrete initiative within the 2018 Global Compact for Safe, Regular, and Orderly Migration.

A Global Skill Partnership is a bilateral labor migration agreement between a country of origin and a country of destination. The country of origin agrees to train people in skills specifically and immediately needed in both the country of origin and destination. Some of those trainees choose to stay and increase human capital in the country of origin (the "home" track); others migrate to the country of destination (the "away" track). The country of destination provides technology and finance for the training and broader systems support, and receives migrants with the skills to contribute to the maximum extent and integrate quickly (see Figure ES.4).

This dual-track approach is the primary distinction between the Global Skill Partnership model and other migration agreements. It aims to build the global stock of skilled workers, ensuring some remain within the country of origin, thereby combatting brain drain. It also ensures there is a steady stream of investment going into improving both training and systems overall, thereby compensating countries of origin for producing qualified workers for markets abroad.

Interest in the model has increased in recent years (especially since the introduction of Talent Partnerships) and there are currently three pilots of the model underway: between Belgium and Morocco in ICT, between Germany and Kosovo in construction, and between Australia and the Pacific Islands in a range of vocational skills. Building the case for additional pilots is difficult. Even when employers do have the resources and interest in hiring talent from abroad, they tend to seek already qualified talent, rather than partnering with governments to build the global stock of talent. The remit for developing partnerships also sits awkwardly between government departments, making it difficult to know who to collaborate with. And even if such interest and coordination structures exist, the cost, risk, and time involved may be too large a barrier.

Yet given the substantial demand in both countries of destination and origin as outlined above, it is imperative that governments and employers find a way to

Figure ES.4. The Global Skill Partnership model

Technical training
(including financial and technology transfer from the country to destination)

Integration training
(language, culture awareness)

Option to stay
Option to migrate

Country of Origin

+ Skills
+ Earning potential

+ Skills + Earning potential
+ Able to migrate legally and safely

Country of Destination
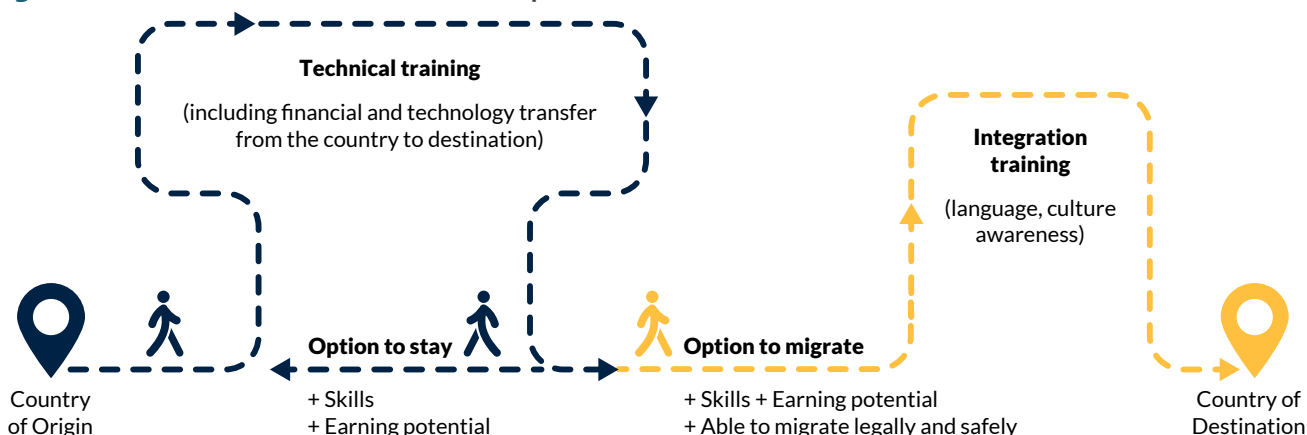
develop such partnerships. To do so, the first steps are to choose both a sector within which to focus and a partner country with which to collaborate. The report lays out a series of questions which countries should ask themselves when interrogating both of these steps, ranked from most to least essential. These questions are outlined in table ES.1.

Table ES.1. The Framework for Developing a Global Skill Partnership

Choosing a Sector	Choosing a Partner Country
• Where is there a skill shortage?	• Which countries have similar labor shortages?
• Where is there employer demand?	• Where are there existing foreign policy ties?
• Where is there political will and public interest in expanding migration?	• Which countries have strong labor laws?
• Where are there specialized training requirements?	• Where is there existing migratory pressure?
• Where is there potential for remittances and skill transfer?	• Where are there existing cultural linkages?

Even if the answers to these questions are thoroughly interrogated, there remain a number of risks inherent within the design and implementation of a Global Skill Partnership. A substantial list of these risks along with their mitigation measures are outlined in the report, but include such things as the lobbying of trade unions, a lack of language training, skill mismatch, imbalanced incentives, a lack of stakeholder coordination, security concerns, and a lack of employer interest. Interested governments must be aware of these risks and develop plans to mitigate them throughout the design and implementation of the partnership.

One of these risks is a lack of funding, or at least a lack of sustainable funding, to scale a successful pilot partnership. There are five main groups of costs involved within a Global Skill Partnership: training costs, staffing costs, migration costs, living costs, and returns and reintegration costs. There are many different ways in which these costs could (and have, in other partnerships) be covered, including government-led development assistance, support from international organizations and multilateral development banks, private capital, and from the migrants themselves through loans or scholarship arrangements. It may be necessary for a partnership to develop a pilot project with development assistance, proving its impact and relevance to employers, before transitioning financial responsibility to those employers within a scaled partnership. Such design elements should be tailored to the specific nature of the partnership, and the parties involved.

Finally, it is imperative that the project is accompanied by a robust evaluation to test the inherent assumptions and provide evidence as to why the design should or should not shift as the project moves to scale. Crucially, data collection should occur in four distinct phases: before the training starts, at the end of the training but before migration, at the end of the project, and sometime after the end of the project (for example, one year later). Measuring the impact of such a partnership must go beyond numbers; a project that has a wide range of successful impacts but moves a small number of people should not be designated a failure. The evaluation should seek to understand as many of the following impacts as possible: increased earnings, expanded businesses, increased remittances, increased skill transfers, shifted gender norms, increased Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) participation, improved systems, and an increased focus on migration innovation.

Applying the Innovation: Developing New Migration Partnerships in Health Care, Construction, and ICT between Nigeria and Europe

There are many potential sectors and countries of destination with which Nigeria could develop a Global

Skill Partnership. In this report, we have highlighted two distinct partnerships—a health care partnership with the United Kingdom (UK) and a construction partnership with Germany—while also exploring ICT as a potential third sector. This is not an exhaustive list. Nigeria should attempt to apply the outlined framework to other sectors and countries of destination to explore the potential for other partnerships to be developed.

A Health Care Partnership between Nigeria and the United Kingdom (UK)

By 2030, the world will require an additional 15 million health care workers if it is to reach its goal of universal health coverage (UHC). These shortages are particularly acute within the nursing profession; in 2018, there was a shortage of 5.9 million nurses worldwide. Currently, the majority of this demand is within low- and middle-income countries, though shortages are rapidly increasing within high-income countries to service their aging populations.

At the same time, the international migration of health workers is increasing, particularly from low- to high-income countries, with a 60 percent rise in the number of migrant doctors and nurses working in OECD countries over the last decade. Today, one in every eight nurses practice outside the country where they were born or trained. Health workers move for a variety of reasons, including economic, institutional, professional, and political factors. Particularly of relevance is the capacity of the government to employ the number of health workers needed to achieve UHC. Paradoxically, a low- or middle-income country could have both a demand for health workers (to achieve the minimum level of health worker density) and a surplus of health workers (as more workers are trained than can be employed within the public and private systems).

To ensure that such health worker migration doesn't lead to brain drain, the World Health Organization (WHO) has implemented a Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel. This Code of Practice discourages private recruitment from countries with health worker shortages (including Nigeria) unless such migration occurs within a mutually beneficial government-to-government agreement. The Global Skill Partnership meets this criteria by increasing the number of health personnel globally and ensuring development assistance is channeled into health systems, improving training, recruitment, and retention in order to reduce the demand/surplus risk outlined above.

Nigeria is suffering from a shortage of nursing professionals in a range of categories, while the UK is suffering from a shortage of primary care nurses. Hence a Global Skill Partnership could be developed between the two countries, ensuring those on the "home" track are trained in skills relevant in Nigeria and those on the "away" track are trained in skills relevant in the UK. Graduates could migrate using the UK's new Health and Care Visa, and no formal language training would be required. The report delves into the details of such a partnership including the parties that would need to be involved, the specific design of the training, relevant visa schemes, meeting the relevant costs, and evaluating such a scheme. Crucially, it emphasizes the need for a health care partnership to go beyond merely facilitating recruitment, to investing in health systems to improve outcomes for all.

A Construction Partnership between Nigeria and Germany

The demand for construction projects, particularly within middle-income countries, is rapidly increasing. By 2030, the global construction market is forecast to be worth $17.5 trillion, up by $8 trillion from today. Seventy percent of this growth is expected to occur in just eight countries: China, the United States, India, Indonesia, the United Kingdom, Mexico, Canada, and Nigeria. The industry has continued to grow during COVID-19 and

shortages are acute within a number of specialized construction roles. Worldwide, the construction industry employs approximately 7 percent of the workforce. It is a major source of employment in countries of origin, with around 70 million people working in construction in traditional aid recipient countries.

Migrants, both temporary and permanent, have long been the cornerstone of construction markets. The International Labor Organization (ILO) has identified that many employers in both countries of origin and destination suffer from a lack of skilled workers, either due to an absolute lack in the number of people available; the rapid growth in projects outstripping the ability of the education system to keep pace; and/or the increase in the size and complexity of projects requiring a specific skill set to execute. On the latter, the increasing focus on the expansion of low-carbon technologies globally could provide an opportunity to develop a Global Skill Partnership to develop "green" skills.

Nigeria's physical infrastructure deficit is currently severely hampering their prospects for economic growth and development; it is estimated that the country needs to invest $3 trillion in the next 30 years to close existing gaps in infrastructure. Yet the construction sector has one of the highest vacancy rates and an ineffective TVET infrastructure. Similarly, Germany's construction sector continues to grow and is home to Europe's largest building stock. Yet between 2011 and 2015, the number of job vacancies increased by 18.8 percent and the number of people undertaking training in the sector decreased by one percent. This lack of skilled labor not only threatens the productivity of the construction sector but also its green transition.

This shared shortage could be met through a tailored Global Skill Partnership. Germany could support the training of young Nigerians within construction, perhaps allowing those on the "away" track to complete the first two years of the vocational qualification within Nigeria and the last year with an employer in Germany. German language training would need to be provided

alongside the construction training. Again, the report delves into the detail of such a partnership including the parties that would need to be involved, the specific design of the training, relevant visa schemes, meeting the relevant costs, and evaluating such a scheme.

An ICT Partnership between Nigeria and European partners

The digital economy is huge and growing rapidly, worth $11.5 trillion globally which is equivalent to 15.5 percent of global GDP. The ICT industry stands at the center of this and has been a powerful driver of economic growth in low-, middle-, and high-income countries around the world. It has proven resilient to the impact of COVID-19, with the move to digital working and learning accelerating the take-up of ICT services.

As the industry grows, so too does the demand for talent. From 2005 to 2015, employment for ICT professionals in the EU grew by one-third, and it is now a shortage occupation within 24 EU Member States. Similar trends can be seen across low- and middle-income countries. Nigeria is said to be Africa's biggest digital market and the digital economy could add $88 billion and 3 million jobs to the economy by 2027. Yet employers say job readiness among young people is low and the training and education sector has not been able to keep up with the changing demands of employers.

ICT employers have long sought to use foreign workforces, including both offshoring and outsourcing roles, as well as encouraging the migration of highly skilled professionals. Increasingly though, employers are facing shortages within mid-skill roles for which they must (or would rather) hire talent on site. Developing ICT migration partnerships may be more politically palatable with fewer ethical considerations (than, say, health care), have fewer language requirements, and have more potential for overseas investment. Yet they can also bring challenges given the fast-changing nature of private sector demand, the nature of ICT

work itself, and the fragmented skill requirements and existing training infrastructure.

This report outlines four potential ICT partnerships that Nigeria could develop: with Germany, the UK, Belgium, and Lithuania. All are facing substantial ICT skill shortages, have existing migration partnerships or other foreign policy relationships to build on, and are interested in Nigeria as an investment market. Again, the report delves into the detail of such a partnership including the parties that would need to be involved, the specific design of the training, relevant visa schemes, meeting the relevant costs, and evaluating such a scheme. In particular, the report focuses on the nature of the ICT training infrastructure with Nigeria and the acute need for greater and more structured skills for Nigerian employers and labor markets abroad.

Why Now?

The world is currently at a crossroads. Low- and middle-income countries like Nigeria are seeing rapid growth in their working-age populations. Yet often these increasingly educated and skilled young people cannot find meaningful work within their countries of origin, either because their skills are not well aligned to the needs of employers or because there is an absolute lack of roles available. This is creating emigration pressure, with many seeking opportunities elsewhere, leading to fears of brain drain within countries of origin.

At the same time, high-income countries like those in Europe are seeing rapid decreases in their working-age populations. Employers within these countries are facing significant skill shortages, particularly within mid-skill sectors like health care, construction, and ICT, which is reducing productivity and investment. Governments within these countries of destination are also worried about increasing irregular migration, developing a series of patchwork responses which channel large amounts of investment for little return.

Despite the immense economic benefits that could ensue from facilitating mid-skill migration between low- and high-income countries, such pathways are effectively nonexistent. This report outlines one way in which these pathways could be facilitated—the Global Skill Partnership model—building the global stock of skills within a chosen sector and facilitating the mobility of selected trainees. If we are to move away from the current lose-lose narrative, where skills shortages persist in Europe and Nigerian youth fail to identify opportunities, this model should be piloted, evaluated, and scaled.

Introduction

Europe is experiencing significant demographic shifts. By 2050, its working-age population is projected to decline by over 15 percent from 2020 levels, owing to a combination of low birth rates and increased longevity. The impact of this shift is already being felt; the private sector in many European countries is demanding an increase in the number of workers available and the types of skills they possess. COVID-19 has further exacerbated labor shortages in key sectors such as health care, as well as exposing the reliance European countries have on migrant workers. If Europe is to continue to grow and sustain its current social programs, it will need a substantial increase in the number and type of potential workers.[5]

At the same time, the working-age population in Sub-Saharan Africa is booming. This results from a significant development achievement: the reduction in premature mortality. Many of these new labor market entrants will join increasingly developed local economies, while others will migrate regionally in search of opportunities. Still others will seek work further away, in places such as Europe, to pursue fulfilling livelihoods and send remittances back home.

As a result of these forces, there are many policy actors on both continents who are interested in ensuring that migration from Sub-Saharan Africa to Europe is safe, regular, and orderly, while promoting economic development on both sides. This interest has culminated in the European Union (EU) and its Member States signing the New Pact on Migration and Asylum, which aims (among other things) to promote more legal labor migration between the continents.[6] In recent years, Sub-Saharan African countries have taken important steps to improve the management of migration, while working to ensure such partnerships confer a meaningful development benefit.

Nigeria is one of these countries. In recent years, it has formulated a National Employment Policy (2017), a Draft National Policy on Diaspora Matters (2016), a National Migration Policy (2015), and a National Labor Migration Policy (2014). The latter two documents are in the process of being revised. While these policies highlight the importance of labor migration for employment generation and economic development within Nigeria, they also highlight the lack of formal structures and support for labor migrants from Nigeria. They call for the establishment of an effective, responsive, and dynamic labor migration governance system that includes both bilateral labor agreements (BLA) and memoranda of understanding (MoU) to facilitate labor migration.

To support the establishment of such frameworks, the World Bank has an ongoing engagement with Government of Nigeria, as part of a broader analytical program that aims to better understand the potential of labor migration and skills partnerships to provide more and better jobs to Nigerian youth. One of the objectives of this engagement was to develop a feasibility

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5. Michael Clemens, Helen Dempster, and Kate Gough. 2019. "Promoting New Kinds of Legal Labour Migration Pathways Between Europe and Africa." Center for Global Development (CGD) Brief. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/promoting-new-kinds-legal-labour-migration-pathways-between-europe-and-africa

6. European Commission. 2020. "A fresh start on migration: Building confidence and striking a new balance between responsibility and solidarity." Press Release. September 23, 2020. https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/ip_20_1706

assessment for new bilateral labor agreements within chosen sectors, mirroring the Center for Global Development's (CGD) Global Skill Partnership model. This model, developed by CGD Fellow, Michael Clemens, in 2012, was included as the only specific idea to realize the objectives of the United Nations (UN) Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, and Regular Migration.[7]

The Global Skill Partnership is a bilateral labor migration agreement between a country of origin and a country of destination.[8] A country of destination would invest in training and education within the country of origin (in this case, Nigeria) to develop skills needed in both Nigeria and abroad. Those trained under the "away" track would also have access to language and cultural training, and then have their migration facilitated. Those on the "home" track would be supported to find work in the Nigerian labor market. A country of destination could also channel development support into Nigeria, to support broader systems improvement. This report outlines how such partnerships could be developed between Nigeria and Europe, particularly in the sectors of health care, construction, and information and communications technology (ICT), and with the countries of the United Kingdom (UK) and Germany. Yet it is hoped that this feasibility assessment also contains useful lessons for both Sub-Saharan African and European countries interested in developing mutually beneficial labor migration partnerships.

One of the four core pillars of the recently approved World Bank Country Partnership Framework (CPF) for Nigeria (2020-2025) is the "Investment in Human Capital and Harnessing Nigeria's Demographic Dividend." [9] Within this pillar, the CPF, among other things, prioritizes supporting the government's efforts to equip youth with market-relevant skills at all levels and to create pathways to employment, both domestically

as well as outside of Nigeria. This feasibility assessment is therefore firmly aligned with the objectives set out by the World Bank to support the Government of Nigeria in enabling safe, regular, and orderly labor migration partnerships with countries of destination, that promote economic development on both sides. In addition, the World Bank's convening power among stakeholders within Nigeria and abroad, and lessons learnt from similar engagements in other global context can help the Government of Nigeria in piloting, evaluating, and scaling efforts to create sustainable labor migration pathways from Nigeria and other Sub-Saharan African countries facing similar challenges.

Methodology

This feasibility assessment was based on over 100 interviews with stakeholders in the field of labor migration. Interviewees were chosen based on their positions within relevant governmental, nongovernmental, and private sector institutions, in Nigeria, the UK, Germany, and Europe more broadly. A snowball sampling approach was employed, whereby interviewees were asked to recommend others who may have relevant experience and insights. While detailed notes were made of the interviews, the interviewees and their comments are private. In this feasibility assessment, we have drawn on their comments while not ascribing any to specific interviewees. This method was chosen in order to allow interviewees to speak freely about opportunities, challenges, and constraints.

In addition, this feasibility assessment draws on an extensive literature review. Information relevant to migration management and labor migration within and from Sub-Saharan Africa was consulted, as were government documents relating to the development of migration

7. The United Nations Global Compact for Safe, Regular, and Orderly Migration consists of 23 objectives and was adopted in December 2018 by 163 Member States after 18 months of consultative processes.

8. For more information about the Global Skill Partnership model, please see www.cgdev.org/gsp

9. World Bank. "Nigeria - Country Partnership Framework for the Period FY21-FY25 (English)." Washington, DC: World Bank Group. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/526171611619063445/Nigeria-Country-Partnership-Framework-for-the-Period-FY21-FY25

management policies. In particular, this report draws on labor market analyses to identify key sectors and countries with which to promote partnerships.

Finally, the report also benefits from extensive desk-based research carried out to identify the opportunities in the labor market in Nigeria and Europe. The Nigeria relevant findings in Section 1 of the feasibility assessment draw on extensive analysis conducted through a companion report titled "The Road Less Travelled: Assessing the Potential of Economic Migration To Provide Overseas Jobs for Nigeria's Youth" which places international migration within the broader labor market context in Nigeria, synthesizes the available evidence in looking at how migration happens out of Nigeria, and underlines key institutional gaps that are hampering Nigeria's ability to enhance the benefits and reduce the costs from international migration.[10]

Structure

This report is split into five sections which are relatively distinct. The first two sections are theoretical and provide an overview of both the opportunity and innovation at the heart of this feasibility assessment. The final three sections apply the innovation to three case studies: a health care partnership with the UK, a construction partnership with Germany, and an ICT partnership with a number of European countries.

Section 1 provides an overview of *the opportunity*. It details the current state of the labor market, demographic change, and unemployment within Nigeria, current migration patterns from Nigeria to Europe, the relationship between emigration and development, and the governmental migration management structure. It then goes on to address Europe, exploring current migration patterns from Sub-Saharan Africa to Europe, the policy tools that have been enacted to respond to these flows, and an overview of

demographic change and labor market gaps across the continent. Overall, this section aims to explore why legal labor migration is an opportunity that should be exploited to serve goals in both countries of origin and destination.

Section 2 provides an overview of *the innovation*. It begins by exploring the Global Skill Partnership model--what it is, how it differs from other migration models, and where it is currently being trialed. The next two parts provide useful frameworks for deciding sectors and countries with which to implement such a partnership. The final part of the section explores issues with the implementation of such a partnership, including risks and mitigation measures, financing, evaluation, and the role of multilateral actors such as the World Bank. Overall, this section highlights why the Global Skill Partnership model is a new innovation which is relevant to the current context in Nigeria and needs to be piloted, tested, and scaled to serve the dual purposes of promoting better migration management and enhancing economic development in partner countries.

Section 3 is the first case study, whereby the authors apply the Global Skill Partnership model to a specific sector and country—health care and the UK. It explores the current state of the health care system within Nigeria and the UK, respectively, including the workforce, training and education system, and migration profile. The final section explores how the Global Skill Partnership model could practically be implemented between Nigeria and the UK in health care, including how such a partnership could be designed, what risks could materialize, which mitigation measures need to be put in place, and potential ways to finance such a partnership.

Section 4 is the second case study, exploring a partnership in construction with Germany. It explores the current state of the construction industry within Nigeria and Germany, including the workforce,

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10. Samik Adhikari, Sarang Chaudhary, and Nkechi Linda Ekeator. 2021. "Of Roads Less Travelled: Assessing the Potential of Economic Migration to Provide Overseas Jobs for Nigeria's Youth." World Bank, Washington, DC

training and education system, and migration profile. The final section explores how the Global Skill Partnership model could practically be implemented between Nigeria and Germany in the construction sector, including how such a partnership should be designed, what risks and mitigation measures merit consideration, and potential ways to finance such a partnership.

Finally, Section 5 is the last case study, exploring how a partnership in ICT could be developed. While ICT was frequently brought up by our interviewees as an area of interest both within Nigeria and abroad, there was not one clear country of destination that came out of these discussions. Hence this final section explores the current state of the ICT industry within Nigeria, including the workforce, training and education system, and migration profile. It then goes on to explore potential countries of destination for a Global Skill Partnership including Germany, the UK, Belgium, and Lithuania. It concludes by exploring risks and mitigation measures, especially in light of COVID-19.

Throughout the report, we have sought to highlight relevant initiatives that are being developed within the field of labor migration. These examples are not exhaustive, nor are they immediately relevant to all policy situations. The nature of the Global Skill Partnership model means that it must be deliberately tailored to the needs of both the sector and country in question. Hence the authors hope these examples will be useful in such policy discussions but acknowledge that more discussion and analysis must occur to develop the details of such a beneficial partnership.

Section 1:
The Opportunity

By 2050, Europe's working-age population is projected to decline by over 15 percent from 2020 levels, owing to a combination of low birth rates and increased longevity.[11] At the same time, the working age-population in Sub-Saharan Africa is set to expand by another 2 billion, significantly adding to the existing pressure on the local labor market. This section describes the *opportunity* presented by this scenario.

It first looks at the emerging labor market trends in Nigeria, highlighting how worsening joblessness combined with lack of regular channels for migration lead to a surge in irregular migration in 2016 and 2017. It then looks at how structured and mutually beneficial migration partnerships with countries of destination, that also take Nigeria's national development ambitions into account, could benefit Nigeria by addressing growing unemployment and skills mismatches and bringing more remittances into its economy.

Similarly, the opportunity highlighted in this section aligns with the interests of the EU's New Pact on Migration and Asylum, where one of the specific goals highlighted is to promote more mutually beneficial legal migration pathways with Sub-Saharan Africa. This will not only help Europe address growing labor shortages in key sectors of the economy, but also allow it to build stronger cooperation with countries of origin and transit and benefit from enhanced cooperation for economic development in the process.

Nigeria

To keep pace with increasing labor market demand, Nigeria will need to create an additional 30 million jobs by 2030. At the current rate, they are on track to create only 10 percent of this number.[12] The recent

surge in irregular migration from Nigeria during the height of the European "migration crisis" in 2016-17 is a direct consequence of worsening employment options at home, combined with a lack of regular migration channels to find work overseas. Travel restrictions and border closures caused by COVID-19 are leading to declines in international migration from countries of origin such as Nigeria, but this is a short-term hiatus. Over the medium term, international migration is likely to continue increasing, primarily due to economic and demographic factors. Given the overwhelming evidence of the economic benefits of economic migration in the global context, Nigeria stands to benefit from new migration partnerships that provide the growing number of youths with an opportunity for safe, regular, and orderly migration and cater to the domestic needs of Nigeria's labor market.

The Labor Market, Unemployment, and Skills Mismatches

As Africa's most populous and largest economy, Nigeria's economic prosperity has implications for the continent and the rest of the world.[13] Between 2000 and 2014, the Nigerian economy grew at an average of 6.1 percent per year. Nigeria's economic performance during this period, as the 13th largest producer of oil in the world, was largely fueled by stable oil prices and a prudent counter cyclical fiscal policy during the global financial crisis of 2008. However, in 2014, with the sharp drop in global oil prices, Nigeria's economy entered a recession. Before it could fully recovery, another crisis arrived in the form of COVID-19.

Breaking the dependency on oil and restoring economic prosperity will require Nigeria to provide gainful employment opportunities, especially to the growing

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11. Michael Clemens, Helen Dempster, and Kate Gough. 2019. "Promoting New Kinds of Legal Labour Migration Pathways Between Europe and Africa." Center for Global Development (CGD) Brief. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/promoting-new-kinds-legal-labour-migration-pathways-between-europe-and-africa

12. Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics. 2020. "Labor Force Survey: Unemployment and Underemployment Report." Available at https://www.nigerianstat.gov.ng/pdfuploads/Q2_2020_Unemployment_Report.pdf

13. This section is based on the analysis presented in a companion report: Samik Adhikari, Sarang Chaudhary, and Nkechi Linda Ekeator. 2021. "Of Roads Less Travelled: Assessing the Potential of Economic Migration to Provide Overseas Jobs for Nigeria's Youth." World Bank, Washington, DC

number of youth in the country. Set to become the third most populous country in the world, Nigeria will gain another 100 million people below the age of 35 by 2040. However, Nigeria's expanding working-age population, combined with scarce domestic employment opportunities, is creating high rates of unemployment in the country. Between 2010 and 2018, 25 million Nigerians entered the labor force. During the same period, the unemployment rate rose from 9.7 percent in 2010 to 23.1 percent in 2018. The unemployment rate was significantly higher for youth (34.7 percent) compared to non-youth (19 percent). With COVID-19-induced lockdowns, this trend is likely to have worsened, especially in urban areas.[14] While unemployment rates have increased substantially for Nigerians across all education levels over the years, it has become progressively more challenging for educated Nigerians to find employment opportunities. Between 2010 and 2020, the unemployment rate increased by 22.6 percentage points for Nigerians with a secondary education and 30.1 percentage points for Nigerians with a post-secondary education.

Besides growing unemployment rates since the economic recession of 2016, there is plausible evidence that Nigerian youth are not entering the domestic labor market with industry-relevant skills. A 2019 Pricewaterhouse Coopers (PwC) survey of 1,629 key decision-makers in the micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSME) sector across all six geopolitical zones in Nigeria shows around 7 percent of MSMEs cite unskilled workforce as the most pressing problem facing their business.[15] Similarly, in a 2016 Skills Gap Assessment—conducted by the Nigerian government in collaboration with UNIDO in six priority sectors and based on a survey of 1,707 businesses in Nigeria —found that 8.3 percent of all establishments reported having difficulties filling vacancies due to applicants' lack of skills, qualifications, or experience. Around 15.7 percent of all hard-to-fill vacancies were ascribed to lack of technical skills. Generic or softer skills such as planning and organizing skills, customer handling skills, or team working skills were each cited in connection with between 7.5 percent and 10 percent of hard-to-fill vacancies.[16]

Figure 1. Unemployment rates among Nigeria's youth haves been rising steeply

Percent

Legend:
- Unemployment Rate - Youth (Nigeria Definition)
- Unemployment Rate - non - Youth (Nigeria Definition)
- Unemployment Rate - Youth (ILO Definition)
- Unemployment Rate - non - Youth (ILO Definition)
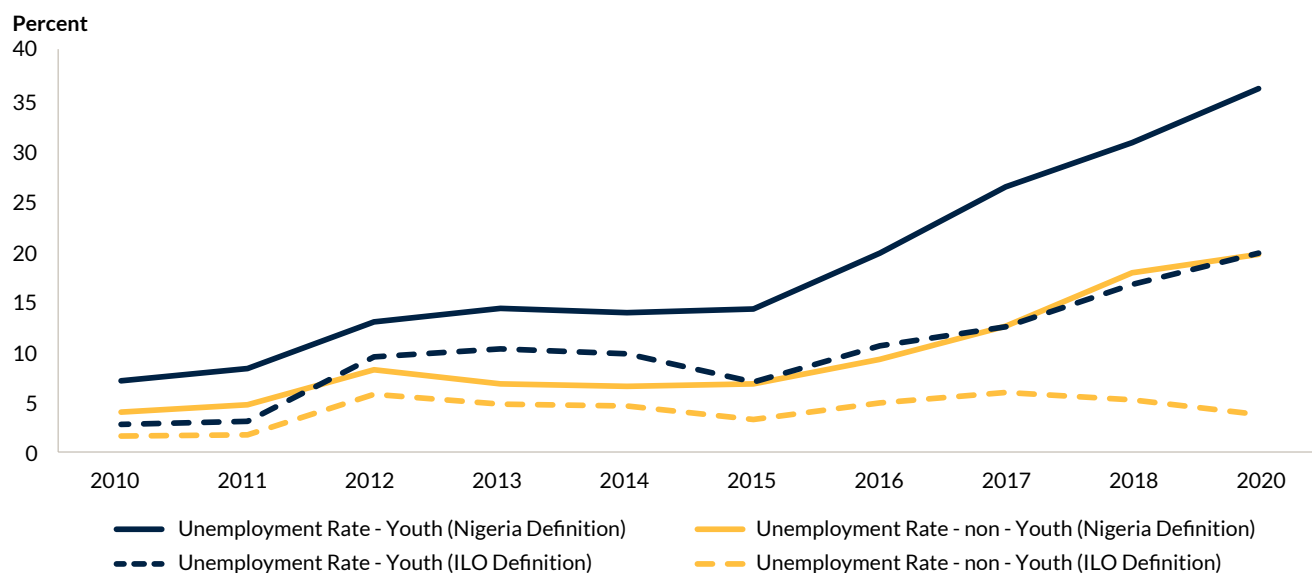
14.   Gloria Joseph-Raji, Miguel Angel Saldarriaga, and Marco Antonio Hernandez Ore. 2020. "Rising to the Challenge: Nigeria's COVID Response." World Bank Nigeria Development Update (NDU). December 2020. Washington, DC: World Bank Group. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/34921/Rising-to-the-Challenge-Nigerias-COVID-Response.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

15.   Pricewaterhouse Coopers (PWC). 2020. "MSME Survey 2020: Building to Last. Nigeria Report." Abuja: Pricewaterhouse Coopers. https://www.pwc.com/ng/en/assets/pdf/pwc-msme-survey-2020-final.pdf

16.   United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO). 2017. "Skills Gap Assessment in Six Priority Sectors of Nigeria Economy." October 2016. Vienna: UNIDO. https://open.unido.org/api/documents/6055563/download/Skills%20Gap%20Assessment%20in%20Nigeria%20-%20Final%20Report.pdf

Panel B: Unemployment rates among educated Nigerians have accelerated since 2015

Percent

Source: World Bank Calculations based on data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS)

Note: Unemployment (ILO Definition): The unemployed comprise all persons of working age who were: (a) without work during the reference period, i.e., were not in paid employment or self-employment; (b) currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period; and (c) seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment. Unemployment (National Definition): In addition to the unemployed as defined by ILO, NBS considers any individual as 'unemployed' who could not find work for at least 20 hours during the reference period.

Favara, Appasamy, and Garcia (2015) conducted a thorough review of the main challenges in the skills development system in Nigeria and identified several gaps, including severe constraints on staffing, facilities, and equipment resulting in exceedingly low equitable access and quality; low external efficiency due to the absence of linkages between curriculum design and labor market information (LMI), especially from industry and enterprises; gender inequity; shortage of well-qualified technical and vocational education teachers and inadequate professional development; and weak institutional capacity at the federal and state levels.[17]

Realizing this, the Nigerian government, under the auspices of the Vice President, established a National Skills Council in February 2020.[18] The Council prioritizes the skilling and employment of Nigerian youth and is born out of the objectives laid out in the Economic and Recovery and Growth Plan (EGRP) of 2017-20.[19] Among other objectives, the Council aims to conduct regular skills surveys to identify the skills gap in the country to ensure that training will be demand-based and to fast track the institutionalization of the National Skills Qualification Framework in Nigeria.

17. Marta Favara, Irajen Appasamy, and Marito H. Garcia. 2015. "Nigeria: Skills for Competitiveness and Employability." Washington, DC: World Bank Group. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/24454

18. Laolu Akande. 2020. "Our Plans to Address Skills Gap and Employability in Nigeria – VP Osinbajo at Inauguration of National Council on Skills." Nigerian Office of the Vice President Press Release. February 28, 2020. https://statehouse.gov.ng/press-releases/our-plans-to-address-skills-gap-and-employability-in-nigeria-vice-president-osinbajo-at-inauguration-of-national-council-on-skills/

19. Nigerian Ministry of Budget and National Planning. 2017. "Economic Recovery & Growth Plan, 2017-2020." Abuja: Nigerian Ministry of Budget and National Planning. https://nigeriaembassygermany.org/mosaic/_M_userfiles/Economic-Recovery-Growth-Plan-2017-2020.pdf

The Relationship Between Emigration and Development

Concerned about their prospects at home, Nigeria's youth are increasingly looking to other economies for work. A Gallup poll conducted before the 2019 presidential elections shows that roughly half of all Nigerians said it was a "bad time" to find a job in the economy.[20] Unemployment for both youth and adults has consistently ranked as the most important issue facing the country, above management of the economy, poverty, corruption, and electricity.[21] Consequently, multiple surveys show that the number of Nigerians who are looking to migrate internationally is high and increasing. The proportion keen to leave permanently has increased from 36 percent in 2014 to 52 percent in 2018, according to Gallup (Figure 2). This is one of the highest levels in Sub-Saharan Africa. Data from Afro Barometer show that the desire to migrate is higher among the unemployed (38 percent), youth (39 percent), secondary education graduates (39 percent), urban residents (41 percent) and post-secondary graduates (45 percent) in Nigeria.[22] Notably, these proportions far exceed the actual proportion of international migrants in the Nigerian population.

Given that the economic and demographic factors driving international migration remain largely unchanged, Nigerians can be expected to continue to want to migrate abroad for the foreseeable future. Multiple studies confirm an inverted-U shaped

Figure 2. The desire of Nigerians to migrate internationally has grown in recent years
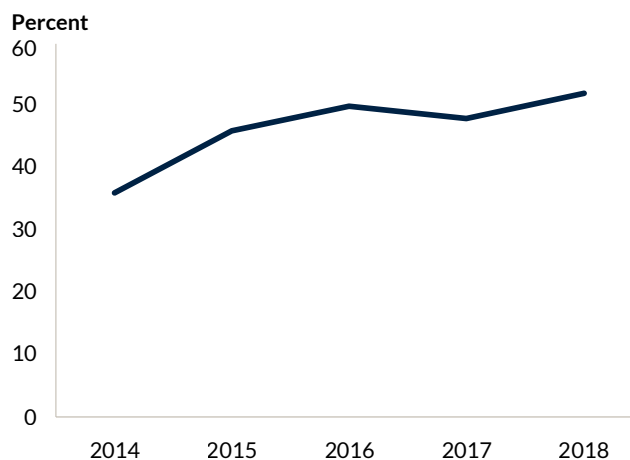
Source: Author's calculations based on data from Gallup.

relationship between emigration levels and income.[23] That is, as countries grow richer, emigration levels tend to increase until they reach upper-middle income status. Recent data from Nigeria confirms this trend. Relatively richer states in Nigeria —mostly in the South of the country—with lower poverty rates receive a higher share of international remittances (Figure 3, panel A). Similarly, the share of Nigerians actively preparing to emigrate internationally is higher in the richer quintiles of the income distribution (Figure 3, panel B). As the less prosperous states catch up to the more prosperous ones, migration from Nigeria will likely increase in the future as opposed to decreasing.

20. RJ Reinhart. 2019. "Nigerians See Mixed Economic Picture as Election Day Nears." Gallup. February 12, 2019. https://news.gallup.com/poll/246590/nigeri-ans-mixed-economic-picture-election-day-nears.aspx

21. Afro Barometer, "Results from the Afro Barometer Round 5 Survey in Nigeria (2013), available at https://afrobarometer.org/sites/default/files/media-brief-ing/nigeria/nig_r5_presentation2.pdf; Highlights of Round 6 survey findings from 36 African countries (2016), available at https://afrobarometer.org/sites/default/files/summary_results/ab_R6_afrobarometer_global_release_highlights.pdf.; Afrobarometer Round 7, Survey in Nigeria (2018), available at: https://afrobarometer.org/sites/default/files/publications/Summary%20of%20results/nig_r7_sor_28032018_eng.pdf

22. Afro Barometer, Round 7. Survey in Nigeria (2018), available at: https://afrobarometer.org/sites/default/files/publications/Summary%20of%20results/nig_r7_sor_28032018_eng.pdf

23. Wilbur Zelinksy. 1971. 'The Hypothesis of the Mobility Transition." Geographical Review 61(2): 219–249. https://www.jstor.org/stable/213996?seq=1; Philip L. Martin and J. Edward Taylor. 1996. 'The Anatomy of a Migration Hump." https://www.econbiz.de/Record/the-anatomy-of-a-migration-hump-martin-philip/10001294172.; Hein de Haas. 2010. "Migration and Development: a Theoretical Perspective." International Migration Review 44(1): 227-264. https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2009.00804.x; Michael A. Clemens. 2014. "Does Development Reduce Migration?" IZA Discussion Papers, No. 8592, Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA) https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/106535/1/dp8592.pdf

Figure 3. Share of households receiving international remittances is higher in states with lower poverty rates

Panel A: Share of households receiving international remittances compared to national poverty rates
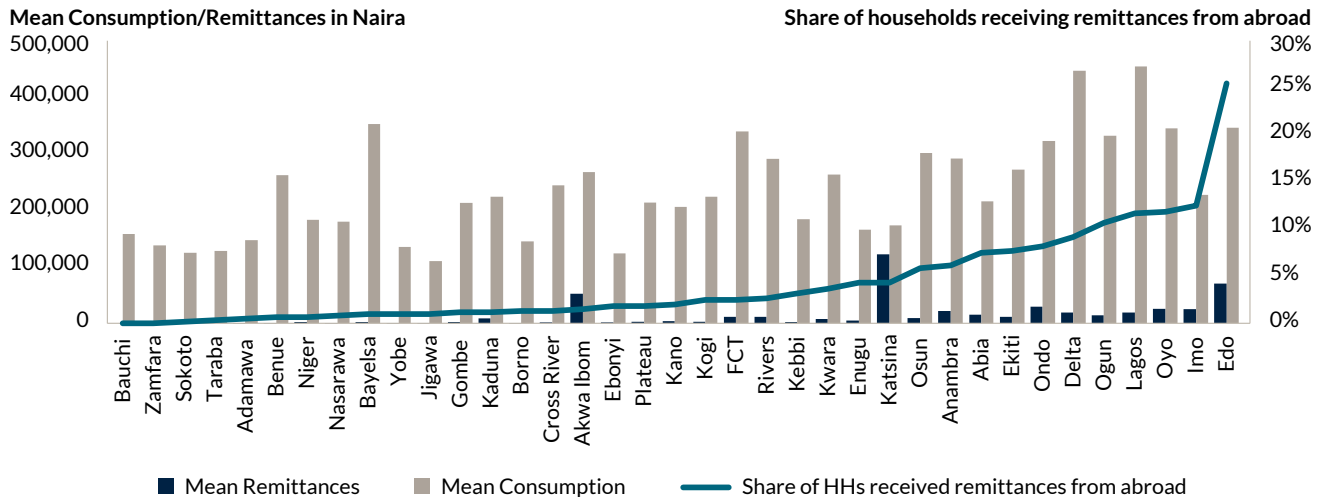
Source: Author's calculations using data from NBS.

Panel B: The share of Nigerians actively preparing to emigrate is lowest at low incomes, and highest at high incomes

Source: Michael Clemens and Mariapia Mendola. 2020. "Migration from Developing Countries: Selection, Income Elasticity, and Simpson's Paradox." Center for Global Development (CGD) Working Paper 539, Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD).

Note: The bell-shaped curve in gray, and the left-hand vertical axis, show the density of household income per capita for the whole Nigerian population. The line in blue (surrounded by an interval of statistical confidence), and the right-hand vertical axis, show the probability that people at each income level report that they are actively preparing to permanently emigrate from Nigeria.

Emigration from Nigeria

Labor shortages in high-income countries and labor surplus in low- and middle-income countries such as Nigeria mean that employment opportunities will likely remain unequally distributed across the globe in the future. This creates an opportunity for some young Nigerian jobseekers to find employment abroad. Managed labor migration schemes can help prevent the erosion of human capital caused due to high rates of labor inactivity, particularly among educated Nigerians. They can also, if designed as described below, lead to greater skill harmonization and qualification recognition among countries, providing more opportunities for skilled Nigerians to work abroad. Doing so, directly benefits prospective migrants and their households, and indirectly benefits the Nigerian economy by bringing to fruition unrealized economic gains.

Migration Management Structure

Nigeria has the right policy instruments and institutions in place to take advantage of economic migration, remittances, and other opportunities linked to its diaspora, but room for improvement exists. Nigeria has made significant recent improvements to its managed migration framework and continues to draw on the support of stakeholders for policymaking and implementation.[24] These stakeholders (Figure 4) have the mandate to facilitate access to international destinations for prospective Nigerian jobseekers; assist migrants in crossing necessary legal and administrative hurdles before departure; support them while in destination countries; help facilitate transfers of skills, technology, and remittances to Nigeria; and coordinate efforts to support migrants in distress as well as upon return to Nigeria. Various technical working groups such as the Labor Migration Working Group, and the Migration Working Group offer platforms for stakeholders to come together, discuss issues, and propose actions to improve the migration

Figure 4. A diverse range of institutions and stakeholders participate in policy-making processes throughout the migration lifecycle

Nigeria Immigration Service
· Issues passports and relevant travel documents

Ministry of Foreign Affairs
· Negotiates Bilateral Agreements and Memoranda of Understanding with countries of destination

Federal Ministry of Justice and Ministry of Interior
· Helps ratify relevant international conventions on migrants

National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons
· Helps create awareness against human trafficking

Federal Ministry of Labor and Employment
· Develops processes for the registration and licensing of genuine **Private Employment Agencies (PEAs)**

Pre-Decision

Pre-Departure

National Electronic Labor Exchange, International Labor Migration Desk
· Acts as a labor intermediation platform collecting information on jobseekers and international employers; registers PEAs

National Board for Technical Education – Federal Ministry of Education
· Provides skills training and certification to potential migrants

Migrant Resource Centers, International Labor Migration Desk
· Serves as a "one-stop shop" where intending, actual, and returning migrants access relevant migration information on legal, organized and humane migration, rights and protection of migrants

Federal Ministry of Health
· Issues necessary medical certification to prospective migrants

International Labor Migration Desk – FMLE
· Ensures protection of employment and social rights of Nigerian workers abroad

Nigerians in Diaspora Commission
· Offers support to diasporas in need abroad
· Helps facilitate transfers of skills, technology, and investment from the diaspora

Central Bank of Nigeria
· Regulates banks and other financial institutions; and governs the remittance of funds into Nigeria, including determining the remittance commission/charge

National Bureau of Statistics and National Population Commission
· Has the mandate to provide and update data on migrants abroad

During Migration

Post-Migration

National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons and National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons
· Coordinates efforts to receive returnee migrants and reintegrate them into the society

Federal Ministry of Labor and Employment
· Provides employment services to returning/ repatriated migrants and helps them integrate in Nigeria's labor market

National Board for Technical Education – Federal Ministry of Education
· Equips institutions to provide technical accreditation of skills of returning migrants

Source: Stakeholder Consultations

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24. Nigeria's overseas employment framework at the Federal level is assessed in greater detail in the companion report that presents an assessment of the migration management framework in Nigeria. Samik Adhikari, Sarang Chaudhary, and Nkechi Linda Ekeator. 2021. "Of Roads Less Travelled: Assessing the Potential of Economic Migration to Provide Overseas Jobs for Nigeria's Youth." World Bank, Washington, DC

management framework.[25] Table 1 summarizes key national level policy documents in place to improve the current managed migration framework and reap further returns from migration and diaspora.

Nigeria's labor migration management system continues to have gaps that require closing. Most current discussions on agreements between Nigeria and destination countries only concern the return of irregular Nigerian migrants.[26] They are not complemented with BLAs and MoUs that offer legal pathways for Nigerians to gain employment internationally. Even though national policy documents mention engaging with destination countries to assess skills shortages and prepare Nigerian jobseekers to fill those shortages, these strategies are not implemented in practice. Lack of available data on prospective, current, and returning migrants prevents stakeholders from making informed decisions to improve migration management practices.

Table 1. Key National Policy Documents and Recommendations to Leverage Migration and Diaspora

Policy Document	Recommendations for Improving Migration Management and Diaspora Issues Formulated in the Document
National Labor Migration Policy (2014)	• Acknowledges the scant formal structure currently in place to aid prospective Nigerian migrants, and attributes this lack of structure for migrants being poorly informed about the conditions governing entry, work, residence, skills required, cultural issues, and their rights and obligations in destination countries • Calls for the establishment of an effective, responsive, and dynamic labor migration governance system that includes BLAs and MOUs on labor migration that would deter risky and unsafe migration by providing jobseekers with information about regular means of securing visas for work purposes in other parts of the world
National Migration Policy (2015)	• Calls for mainstreaming of migration in Nigeria's development process through its integration in the National Development Plan • Outlines several innovative ways for designing programs that attract foreign investments in Nigerian workforce development systems including determining the types of skills that Nigerian workers need in Nigeria and in other countries and by collaborating with the private sector in destination countries in the provision of continuous training of Nigerian workers
National Policy on Diaspora Matters (2016)	• Proposes initiatives to leverage the economic success of Nigerians in the diaspora and to protect the well-being of Nigerian migrants, including by reducing the cost of remittances, facilitating transfers of technology and knowledge back to Nigeria, improving awareness regarding consular services available to Nigerian migrants, and strengthening relevant institutions for proper coordination and administration on diaspora issues

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25. The strength and weaknesses of various institutions governing the labor migration process is highlighted in a companion report: Samik Adhikari, Sarang Chaudhary, and Nkechi Linda Ekeator. 2021. "Of Roads Less Travelled: Assessing the Potential of Economic Migration to Provide Overseas Jobs for Nigeria's Youth." World Bank, Washington, DC

26. There is no record of formal return agreements between Nigeria and Europe although negotiations have been ongoing. See: https://www.eca.europa.eu/Lists/ECADocuments/AP20_07/AP_Migrant_return_policy_EN.pdf. The Migration Policy Institute, commenting on the lack of formal return and readmission agreements between European Commission and Sub-Saharan African countries, states that: "...the Commission found great difficulty in finalizing formal accords with third countries, especially those whose populations rely on remittances from diasporas irregularly residing in Europe. Informal arrangements keep readmission deals largely out of sight, and thus take away domestic pressure on governments to refrain from cooperating on returns." See Jonathan Slagter. 2019. "An "Informal" Turn in the European Union's Migrant Returns Policy towards Sub-Saharan Africa." January 10, 2019. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute (MPI). https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/eu-migrant-returns-policy-towards-Sub-Saharan-africa

Box 1. Key Definitions

Working Age Population: All persons between the age of 15 and 64 years.

Active Labor Force: All persons aged 15 to 64 years who are willing and able to work regardless of whether they have a job or not.

Unemployed (ILO Definition): The unemployed comprises all persons of working age who were: (a) without work during the reference period, i.e., were not in paid employment or self-employment; (b) currently available for work, i.e., were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period; and (c) seeking work, i.e., had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

Unemployed (National Definition): In addition to the unemployed as defined by ILO, Nigeria's Bureau of Statistics considers any individual as 'unemployed' who could not find work for at least 20 hours during the reference period.

Underemployed (National Definition – Time Based): The underemployed comprises all persons who worked for at least 20 hours but less than 40 hours during the reference week.

International Migrants (Defined based on classification in the International Migrant Stock 2019, released by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), Population Division. Data on international migrants are estimated using population censuses, population registers, and nationally representative household surveys in countries of destination): For 187 out of 232 countries of destination, anyone residing outside of their country of birth is classified as an international migrant. For the remaining 45 countries, anyone with a foreign citizenship is classified as an international migrant.

Refugees: The refugee population are included in the international migrant stock. In countries where refugees have been granted refugee status and allowed to integrate, they are normally covered by the population census. In countries where refugees are not regularly captured in population censuses, data from United Nations High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR) or United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) are added in the estimation of international migrant stock by UNDESA.

Irregular Migration: The International Organization of Migration (IOM) defines "irregular migration" as "movement of persons that takes place outside the laws, regulations, or international agreements governing the entry into or exit from the State of origin, transit or destination." Human Trafficking, on the other hand, is defined by the United Nations as "the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, or receipt of persons by improper means (such as force, abduction, fraud, or coercion) for an improper purpose including forced labor or sexual exploitation." Due to lack of data to distinguish the trafficked victims among the irregular migrants, the analysis presented in this section is not able to draw separate conclusions between the two categories empirically. However, the two categories are distinct as one involves informed consent from migrants and the other does not.

Recent Trends in International Migration from Nigeria

In absolute numbers, the number of international migrants from Nigeria has increased from around 450,000 in 1990 to 1.4 million in 2019. This corresponds to the share of international migrants in the Nigerian population increasing from 0.5 percent in 1990 to 0.7 percent in 2019. The share of international migrants originating from Nigeria and as a proportion of the total population in 2019 is much lower than in Sub-Saharan Africa (2.5 percent) and the world (3.5 percent) (Figure 5). In fact, in 2017, African migrants represented 14 percent of the global migrant population, much less than the shares for Asia (41 percent) and Europe (24 percent). A recent report from IOM finds that more than 94 percent of the extra-continental migrants from Africa migrate through regular channels.[27]

Additionally, most Nigerians migrate within Sub-Saharan Africa, although the share of migrants to Europe and North America has increased considerably since 1990. In 2019, around 1.44 million Nigerian migrants were present in destination countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Europe, and North America, with a small share of the remaining migrants in other regions. The number of Nigerian migrants has increased in all major destination regions since 1990 (Figure 6). However, the share of Nigerian migrants in the international migrant population has decreased in Sub-Saharan Africa and increased in Europe and North America. In 1990, 60 percent of migrants from Nigeria moved to other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, compared to 20 percent and 13 percent to countries in Europe and North America, respectively. In 2019, the share of Nigerian migrants moving to other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa remains large (42 percent) but has decreased substantially compared to 1990. On the other hand, the share of Nigerian migrants in Europe and North America has increased to 31 percent and 22 percent respectively in 2019. The contribution that international migrants make to Nigeria's GDP through remittances far outweighs their size as a proportion of the population (i.e., 0.7 percent).

Figure 5. Percentage of international migrants in the population in Nigeria, Sub-Saharan Africa, and the world (1990-2019)
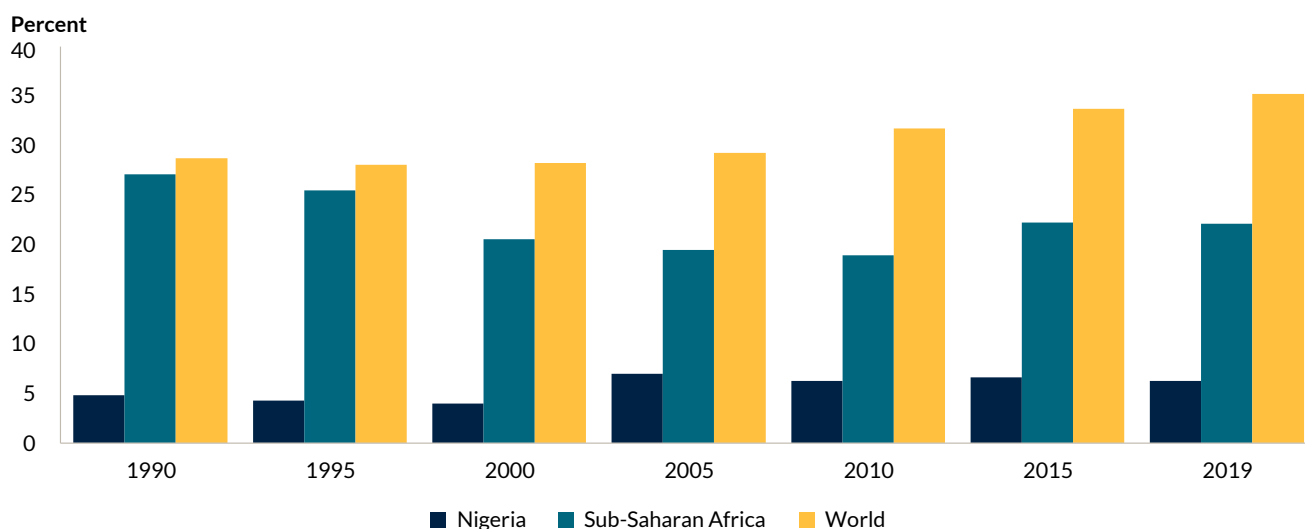
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from the UNDESA International Migration Outlook, 2019 revisions.

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27. Aderanti Adepoju (ed.). 2020. "Africa Migration Report: Challenging the Narrative." International Organization for Migration (IOM) and African Union Commission (AUC). https://reliefweb.int/report/world/africa-migration-report-challenging-narrative

Figure 6. Share of Nigerian international migrants in major destination regions (1990-2019)
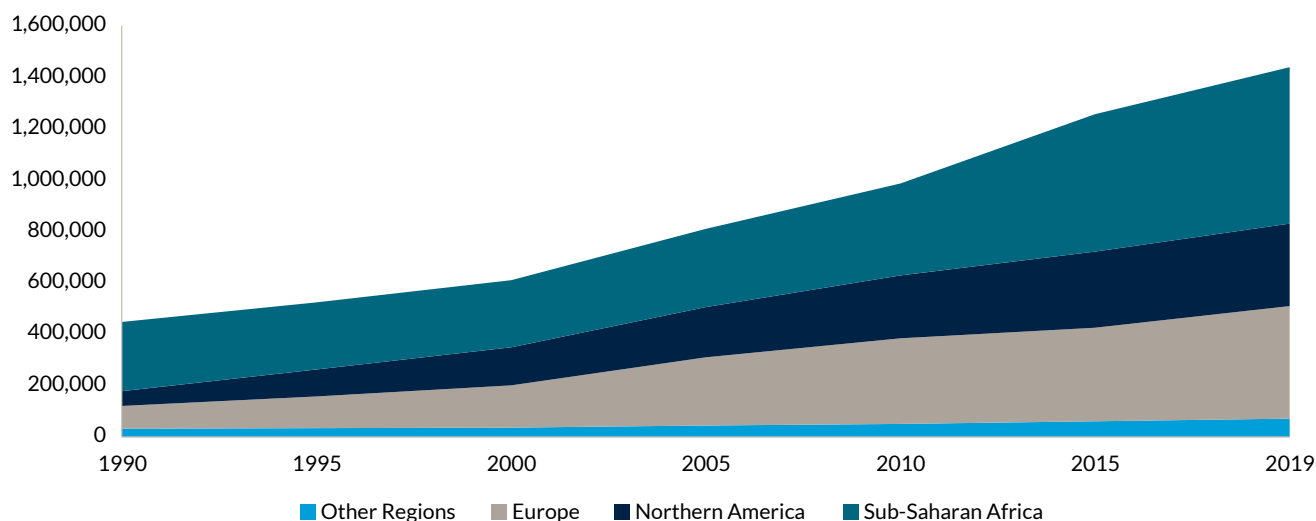
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from the UNDESA International Migration Outlook, 2019 revisions.

Nigerian migrants and others in the diaspora contributed over $25 billion to the Nigerian economy in 2019 (5 percent of Nigeria's GDP). Fourfold what Nigeria received through foreign direct investment and official development assistance combined. It is also important to highlight that Nigeria received around 1.3 million international migrants in 2020 – almost as many international migrants from Nigeria–and plays the role of a receiving country for many migrants from within Sub-Saharan Africa.

Trends in Irregular Migration

With limited options for legal migration outside of Africa, young Nigerians are increasingly choosing irregular alternatives to find better work opportunities overseas than they can find at home. The number of first-time asylum seekers from Sub-Saharan Africa and Nigeria into Europe peaked in 2016 (Figure 7), at the height of the European "migration crisis", before subsiding in late 2017. Nigerians represented the largest group of migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa who arrived in Europe in 2016 and 2017. Nearly 40,000 Nigerians arrived in Italy in 2016, with over 90 percent of those arriving via sea routes. Nigerian migrants arriving in Italy were more likely to be women (32 percent) and have completed secondary education (39 percent) than other migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa (the proportion of which stands at 24 percent and 21 percent, respectively).

While the number of asylum seekers from Nigeria has declined in recent years, and especially in light of the COVID-19 crisis, this cannot translate as decreased demand for migration from Nigeria. Over 14,000 Nigerians have been returned from Libya through IOM's Assisted Voluntary Humanitarian Return and Repatriation (AVHRR) programs since 2016.[28] Outside of Libya and in other transit countries, the number of Nigerians in Niger increased from 19,177 in 2010 to 93,179 in 2015.[29] Besides migrants in transit, many migrants have lost their lives in the Sahara Desert and the Mediterranean Sea while striving to reach Europe.

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28. an Sanderson. 2019. "Returnees struggle to adjust to life in Nigeria." Info Migrants. Published on September 17, 2019. https://www.infomigrants.net/en/post/19561/returnees-struggle-to-adjust-to-life-in-nigeria
29. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2019). "World Population Prospects 2019: Highlights." Available at: https://www.un.org/development/desa/publications/world-population-prospects-2019-highlights.html

Figure 7. The number of asylum seekers from Sub-Saharan Africa and Nigeria to Europe peaked in 2016 and 2017 before subsiding
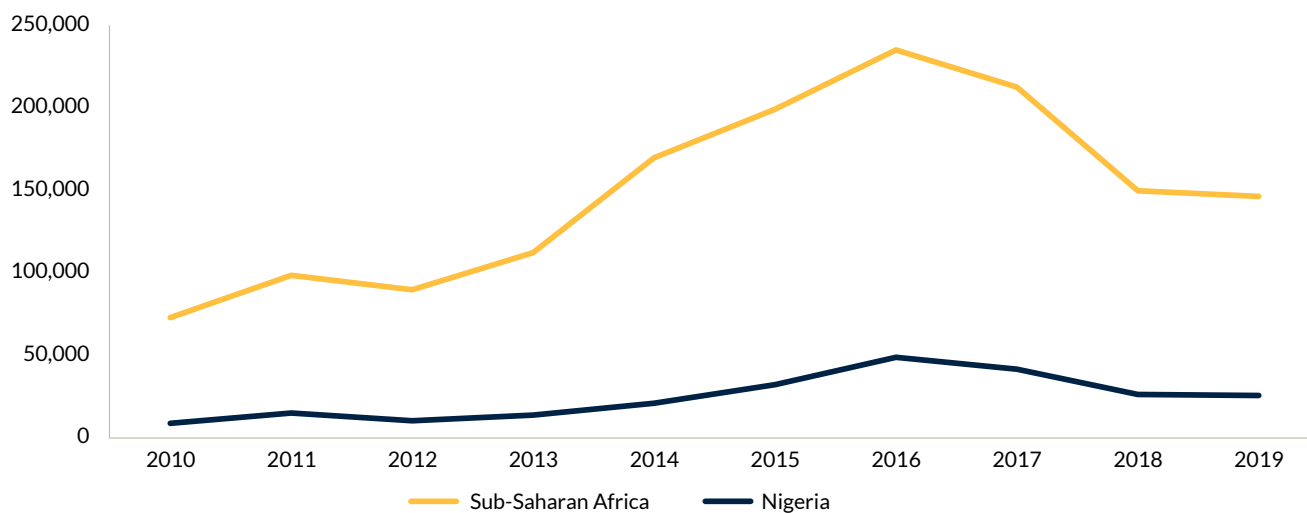
Source: Author's calculations based on data from EuroStat

In response to the increase in irregular migration from Nigeria, most resources and policy attention have been devoted toward strengthening border controls or creating awareness around irregular migration. While those initiatives are necessary, they are not sufficient to address the challenge of irregular migration, as it overlooks the economic and demographic context under which irregular migration occurs. Parallel to initiatives that address irregular migration, Nigerian institutions are well-placed to promote managed migration approaches that help create opportunities for prospective Nigerian jobseekers to find employment internationally and can be supported to help design schemes that increase the returns to human capital investments for Nigerian youth.

Narrative around Brain Drain

Over the last two decades, a myriad of local and international media, policy makers, and politicians have extensively raised the issue of brain drain in Nigeria. Some prevailing narratives that are often highlighted in this discourse include: (i) Brain drain is causing a net export of human capital from Nigeria; (ii) skilled migrants leaving the countries have left many domestic sectors vulnerable; and (iii) that a majority of these emigrants are graduates trained in Nigerian universities which are highly subsidized by the government.

It is important to acknowledge that the stock of skilled individuals is paramount to the economic development objectives of Nigeria and other Sub-Saharan African countries. For example, one in every nine persons born in Africa with a tertiary diploma lived in the OECD in 2010-11,[30] leading some to conclude that the continent's "best and brightest" were leaving for greener pastures after being trained using public resources.[31] However, a closer look reveals that this narrative of mass exodus of human capital originates from a single sector i.e., health care. While it is true that health worker migration has accelerated over the

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30. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). 2013. "World Migration in Figures." A joint contribution by UNDESA and the OECD to the United Nations High-Level Dialogue on Migration and Development, October 3-4, 2013. http://www.oecd.org/els/mig/World-Migration-in-Figures.pdf

31. Yomi Kazeem. 2019. "Nigeria's ongoing middle-class brain drain is costing it two generations in one swoop." Quartz Africa. May 25, 2019. https://qz.com/africa/1615518/nigerias-middle-class-keep-emigrating-to-canada-australia/

years (see Section 3), there is no concrete data available to assess the extent of brain drain in health care or other sectors and, more generally, for educated Nigerians. Ironically, the rationale often quoted by skilled health care professionals who have emigrated—such as low salaries, lack of job satisfaction, and lack of investment in the health sector—are similar to the reasons most youth give in opinion polls for wanting to emigrate. As a result, any investment in improving the quality of health worker education in Nigeria will have to go hand-in-hand with substantial improvements to the health system overall.

Instead, recent research using empirical evidence has found that skilled migration has many positive externalities such as remittances, investment and trade linkages with host countries, and better education attainment of community members in countries of origin.[32] Researchers have also argued that the phenomenon of brain drain is much more likely to adversely affect smaller countries and sparsely populated areas within countries.[33] While the health sector struggles from low investment and structural issues in Nigeria, it is parochial to criticize skilled immigration when a third of the country's youth struggle to find stable employment in the domestic labor market.[34] Instead, regulating skilled migration and implementing innovative approaches that increase the stock of skilled individuals at home and abroad can address high unemployment and skills mismatches in the domestic labor market while the positive externalities of skilled migration can lead to further human capital accumulation.[35]

The Way Forward

Driven by economic and demographic trends, international migration from Nigeria will continue to increase for the foreseeable future. On what terms this migration happens can be determined through cooperative policies with countries of destination. The imperative going forward should be to open safe, regular, and orderly channels for international migration, to the benefit of countries of destination and Nigeria alike. Prioritizing increasing regular migration alongside reducing irregular migration would generate important positive outcomes for Nigeria. This requires a concerted push by the Nigerian government to secure more and larger labor migration partnerships with other countries, to allow prospective Nigerian jobseekers to be gainfully employed in countries of destination. Nigerian migrants contribute to the development of Nigeria through remittances which equaled nearly 5 percent of the GDP in 2019. For sending households, global evidence strongly suggests that remittances help in investments in the human capital of children and provide cushions against economic shocks. Looking more broadly, migrants help spur innovation in the economy, which often leads to emergence of sectors that would otherwise have not been created in countries of origin. The links that migrants help generate between two countries help reduce trade-related transaction costs.

Despite the necessity for expanded legal migration pathways from Nigeria abroad, there has been little investment in these to date. For example, since the

32. Catia Batista, Aitor Lacuesta, and Pedro C. Vicente. 2012. "Testing the 'brain gain' hypothesis: Micro evidence from Cape Verde." *Journal of Development Economics* 97(1): 32-45. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0304387811000083; Frederic Docquier and Hillel Rapoport. 2012. "Globalization, Brain Drain, and Development." *Journal of Economic Literature* 50(3): 681-730. https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/jel.50.3.681; and William Easterly and Yau Nyarko. 2008. "Is the Brain Drain Good for Africa?", Brookings Global Economy and Development Working Paper No. 19. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1121853

33. John Gibson and David McKenzie. 2012. "The Economic Consequences of 'Brain Drain' of the Best and Brightest: Microeconomic Evidence from Five Countries." *The Economic Journal* 122(560): 339-375. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0297.2012.02498.x

34. See Section 3 on healthcare for a detailed overview of the structural problems in the health care sector in Nigeria.

35. Slesh Shrestha. 2017. "No Man Left Behind: Effects of Emigration Prospects on Educational and Labour Outcomes of Non-migrants." *Economic Journal* 127(600). https://econpapers.repec.org/article/wlyeconjl/v_3a127_3ay_3a2017_3ai_3a600_3ap_3a495-521.htm; and Satish Chand and Michael Clemens. 2019. "Human Capital Investment under Exit Options: Evidence from a Natural Quasi-Experiment." IZA Discussion Papers 12173. Bonn: Institute of Labor Economics (IZA). https://ideas.repec.org/p/iza/izadps/dp12173.html

onset of the European "migration crisis" in 2016-17, more than €770 million has been invested in migration related projects in Nigeria, through the EU Emergency Trust Fund for Africa (EUTF). The majority of the EUTF went toward strengthening border controls, creating anti-trafficking awareness, and domestic job creation programs. Only 0.3 percent of the total EUTF funds invested in Nigeria have been allocated toward creating more legal pathways for Nigerians to migrate internationally.[36]

Driven by economic and demographic factors, economic migration will continue to increase from Nigeria in the foreseeable future. The private sector in Nigeria is currently unable to absorb the growing number of educated youths entering the labor force. The tertiary education system is likely exacerbating this challenge as it is unable to align its curriculum to meet the global demand for a skilled workforce. Whether Nigeria can enhance the benefits from migration in the future will depend on how prepared Nigerian jobseekers are for employment outside of the country (such as skills and language) as well as how effectively the migration management system in Nigeria supports this move.

Europe

In October 2019, the new European Commission appointed three Commissioners to lead the migration portfolio. These Commissioners were given explicit instructions to more effectively manage migration by expanding legal pathways to Europe and building stronger cooperation with countries of origin and transit. While this focus has always been present in the various migration policies of the EU and its Member States, it has been given short shrift until recently. Europe now has a unique opportunity to build genuine partnerships with third countries, especially those in Sub-Saharan Africa, and benefit from enhanced economic development in the process.

Understanding Migration from Africa to Europe

Today, European countries attract considerable numbers of African migrants—for work, study, and family reasons. In 2017, Europe hosted 9.1 million African-born immigrants, of which 5.1 million were from North Africa and 4 million from Sub-Saharan Africa. While North Africa has long outstripped its southern neighbors in emigration rate terms, Sub-Saharan Africa (as its countries develop) is catching up (Figure 8).

Between 2010 and 2015, around 400,000 Africans moved to Europe each year. Until 2012, the vast majority moved with visas and residence permits. From then until 2016, the number of African immigrants moving legally substantially dropped, before levelling out. This corresponded with an increase in the number of irregular arrivals across the Mediterranean, peaking between 2014 and 2016 (Figure 9). The large majority of irregular arrivals were from Sub-Saharan African countries including those often recognized as refugees (e.g. from Eritrea, Somalia) and those with substantial emigration pressure (e.g. from Nigeria, Ivory Coast, and Senegal).

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36. The Correspondent. 2019. "A breakdown of Europe's €1.5bn migration spending in Nigeria." Available at: https://thecorrespondent.com/150/a-breakdown-of-europes-eurl-5bn-migration-spending-in-nigeria/19837235550-e86e62a5

Figure 8. The share of migrants coming from Sub-Saharan Africa is increasing

Precentage share of emigrants outside Africa

Legend: Northern Africa · Eastern Africa · Western Africa · Central Africa · Southern Africa

Note: The share is defined as the stock of Africans living outside Africa divided by the total stock of people from the analyzed region living outside the country of birth.

Figure 9. As legal migration from Africa decreases, irregular migration increases

Africa total · Northern Africa · Sub-Saharan Africa

Legend: Non-humanitarian first residence permits · Asylum seekers

Note: The figure only includes first residence permits with a duration equal or longer than 12 months issued by the EU28. It does not include residence permits for humanitarian reasons as most of the people receiving this status are included in the number of asylum-seekers.

It is unclear how long irregular arrivals will stay at their current levels. The COVID-19 pandemic has understandably reduced global mobility, but it has also reduced work opportunities for people within Sub-Saharan African countries. That, coupled with substantial demographic changes, is likely to lead to increased migration pressure in the near future. Yet, over time, European countries have reduced the number of visas available to people from African countries and increased their visa rejection rates.[37] As has been shown in other contexts, this reduction in legal migration routes, coupled with increasing border securitization, is likely contributing to the rise in irregular emigration.[38]

Managing Migration from Africa

In May 2012, the Global Approach to Migration and Mobility (GAMM) was formally adopted by the EU. GAMM aimed to integrate all aspects of migration and mobility with third countries into overarching "mobility partnerships". These partnerships were to be approached in a comprehensive and balanced manner, building trust and commitment on both sides.[39] Working through existing dialogues such as the Rabat Process, the Prague Process, and the ACP-EU Migration Dialogue, new partnerships were signed to promote returns and readmission and enhance circular migration.[40] Such partnerships were often focused on Africa (both North and Sub-Saharan), given that many African countries were significant countries of origin and transit. In developing such partnerships, actors drew on the principles developed in the 2007 Africa-EU Strategic Partnership including the interdependence of the two continents and the right to development.

Three years later, the Juncker Commission of the EU presented its European Agenda on Migration.[41] It was designed to respond to the challenges presented by the increasing migration crisis through four levels of action: reducing the incentives for irregular migration; saving lives and securing borders; building a strong, common, asylum policy; and creating a new policy on legal migration. Upon signing on to this Agenda, European Member States pledged to encourage more mobility (among other things) at all skill levels to meet growing employer demands. It was recognized that such actions would help meet the newly adopted Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and promote decent work and economic opportunity for all.

Over the next few years, European Member States worked together with partners at the global level to sign the 2016 New York Declaration on Refugees and Migrants and, eventually, the 2018 Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, and Regular Migration.[42] These nonbinding documents aimed to support international cooperation on the governance of international migration and provide states with a menu of options they could pursue to improve migration management. The Compact was adopted by 164 governments with the majority of European Member States voting in

37. Amanda Bisong. 2020. "The new EU visa code and what it means for African countries." European Centre for Development Policy Management (ECDPM) Blog. April 6, 2020. https://ecdpm.org/talking-points/new-eu-visa-code-what-it-means-for-african-countries/

38. Michael Clemens and Kate Gough. 2018. "Can Regular Migration Channels Reduce Irregular Migration? Lessons for Europe from the United States." Center for Global Development (CGD) Brief. February 14, 2018. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/can-regular-migration-channels-reduce-irregular-migration-lessons-europe-united-states

39. European Commission. 2011. "Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: The Global Approach to Migration and Mobility." Dispatched November 18, 2011. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX:52011DC0743

40. Marie Martin. 2012. "The Global Approach to Migration and Mobility: the state of play." Statewatch Journal 22(2/3). October 2012. https://www.statewatch.org/media/documents/analyses/no-215-gamm-state-of-play.pdf

41. European Commission. 2015. "Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: A European Agenda on Migration." Dispatched May 13, 2015. COM(2015) 240 final. https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/sites/homeaffairs/files/what-we-do/policies/european-agenda-migration/background-information/docs/communication_on_the_european_agenda_on_migration_en.pdf

42. International Organization for Migration (IOM). "The Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (GCM)." https://www.iom.int/global-compact-migration

favor.[43] Objective 5 of the Compact appealed to states to "enhance availability and flexibility of pathways for regular migration."

The Compact built upon a long history of various similar conventions and international agreements. For example, there are a host of ILO conventions that aim to better regulate and manage migration. Convention 97, Article 4, adopted in 1949, states "Measures shall be taken as appropriate by each Member, within its jurisdiction, to facilitate the departure, journey and reception of migrants for employment" and Convention 143, adopted in 1975, supports developing bilateral and multilateral agreements to aid migration of workers.

Yet none of these agreements were able to help European Member States come to an agreement on how to manage migration. The vast differences inherent within Member States led to disagreements over both legal immigration and asylum, and eventually ended in a stalemate. As a result, in late 2019, the Von der Leyen Commission enacted yet another European-wide migration agreement: the New Pact on Migration and Asylum.[44] This New Pact has three pillars: stronger trust fostered by better and more effective procedures, fair sharing of responsibility and solidarity, and a change of paradigm in cooperation with non-EU countries. Key to the New Pact is a mechanism to enhance burden sharing for asylum seekers and support "returns sponsorship" of failed asylum seekers.[45] Yet it also sought to build new legal pathways for migration particularly through two new instruments: the EU Talent Pool[46] and Talent Partnerships.[47]

Both instruments aim to facilitate the movement of third country workers to the EU to plug skills gaps. The Talent Pool aims to create a stock of available workers from which employers could hire directly, and Talent Partnerships aim to build this stock by investing in training, development, and systems strengthening within countries of origin. The latter builds on a long history of developing mobility partnerships. For example, to strengthen cooperation between Europe and key third countries, the EU-funded Mobility Partnerships Facility (MPF)[48] was established in 2016. Among other actions, it has funded four pilot projects on legal migration, between Lithuania and Nigeria; Belgium and Morocco; France and Egypt, Morocco, and Tunisia; and Spain and Morocco. It is also about to launch four more pathways: between Italy, Tunisia, and Morocco; Slovakia and Moldova; Spain and Morocco; and Belgium and Senegal. Now in its third phase, the MPF has a total budget of around €15.7 million and expects to be able to fund new labor mobility initiatives in 2021. Various EU institutions are currently conducting a review of past engagement on labor mobility initiatives to ascertain how they could be scaled up to become comprehensive Talent Partnerships, but it is likely that they will pursue similar bilateral or multilateral approaches.

Such a focus on promoting more skilled migration from third countries reflects the attitudes of people throughout the EU. Data from the 2015 European Social Survey shows a clear preference for professional or skilled immigrants, regardless of whether they are coming from a poor European or a poor non-European

43. The United Nations General Assembly officially adopted the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, and Regular Migration in a vote on 19 December (PLS INCLUDE YEAR). There were 152 votes in favor, with five countries voting against, and twelve abstaining. The countries voting against were: Hungary, Poland, the USA, the Czech Republic, and Israel. The countries abstaining were: Algeria, Australia, Austria, Bulgaria, Chile, Italy, Latvia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Romania, Singapore, and Switzerland. See https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/1656414?ln=en

44. European Commission. 2020. "A fresh start on migration: Building confidence and striking a new balance between responsibility and solidarity." Press Release. September 23, 2020. https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/ip_20_1706

45. Helen Dempster and Anita Käppeli. 2020. "The EU Migration Pact; Why Effective Returns are Necessary." Center for Global Development (CGD) Blog. October 30, 2020. https://www.cgdev.org/blog/eu-migration-pact-why-effective-asylum-returns-are-necessary

46. Martina Belmonte, Jonathan Chaloff, Maria Vincenza Desiderio, and Friedrich Poeschel. 2019. "Building an EU Talent Pool: A New Approach to Migration Management for Europe." Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). http://www.oecd.org/publications/building-an-eu-talent-pool-6ea982a0-en.htm

47. Helen Dempster and Michael Clemens. 2020. "The EU Migration Pact: Putting Talent Partnerships into Practice." Center for Global Development (CGD) Blog. November 19, 2020. https://www.cgdev.org/blog/eu-migration-pact-putting-talent-partnerships-practice

48. International Center for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD) "Mobility Partnerships Facility." https://mobilitypartnershipfacility.eu/

Figure 10. Sixty-two percent of Europeans are in favor of expanding skilled migration from specific poor non-European countries

Percentage

Professionals from poor (specific) European country — Allow none 9%, Allow a few 23%, Allow some 44%, Allow many 23%

Professionals from poor (specific) non-European country — Allow none 12%, Allow a few 26%, Allow some 43%, Allow many 19%

Unskilled labourers from poor (specific) European country — Allow none 25%, Allow a few 33%, Allow some 33%, Allow many 10%

Unskilled labourers from poor (specific) non-European country — Allow none 32%, Allow a few 34%, Allow some 26%, Allow many 8%

Allow many Allow some Allow a few Allow none

Source: Anthony Heath, Lindsay Richards, and Robert Ford. 2016. "How do Europeans differ in their attitudes to immigration?" Paper presented in session 1.1.2 'Attitudes towards immigrants: contextual and individual sources' at the 3rd International ESS Conference, July 13-15, 2016, Lausanne, Switzerland. https://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/about/conference/HEATH_FORD_how-do-Europeans-differ.pdf

Note: The survey question asked, "Do you support more skilled migration from X country" with 'X country' being the non-European country with the highest number of asylum applicants to the survey participant's country. For most countries in Europe, the highest number of asylum applications were from countries in Africa.

country. As can be seen from Figure 10, 62 percent are in favor of expanding skilled migration from poor non-European countries. This builds on other studies which have found a preference for skilled immigrants, especially those who are younger.[49]

It is uncertain whether the COVID-19 pandemic will reduce both public and political support for immigration in future. Business closures due to successive lockdowns have led to the highest unemployment levels in years. In December 2020, the European unemployment rate stood at 8.3 percent;[50] lower than in previous months of the pandemic but still dire.[51] European real GDP was projected to contract by 7 percent in 2020, its biggest decline since World War II. While it is expected to rebound by 4.7 percent in 2021, this will depend on the course of the pandemic, and government and public reactions.[52] As history has shown, such high unemployment rates are likely to lead to less support for increased immigration, at least in the short term.[53] Yet there is cause for optimism. COVID-19 has increased demand for foreign medical

49. See Helen Dempster and Karen Hargrave. 2017. "Understanding public attitudes towards refugees and migrants." Overseas Development Institute (ODI) Working paper 512. London: Overseas Development Institute (ODI) and Chatham House. https://www.odi.org/publications/10826-understanding-public-attitudes-towards-refugees-and-migrants; and Helen Dempster, Amy Leach, and Karen Hargrave. 2020. "Public attitudes towards immigration and immigrants: what people think, why, and how to influence them." Overseas Development Institute (ODI) Working paper 588. London: Overseas Development Institute (ODI). https://www.odi.org/publications/17333-public-attitudes-towards-immigration-and-immigrants-what-people-think-why-and-how-influence-them
50. Eurostat. 2021. "Unemployment statistics." Data up to January 2021. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Unemployment_statistics
51. Euronews. 2020. "New report paints bleak picture of EU unemployment, which has risen sharply in 2020." Updated December 2, 2020. https://www.euronews.com/2020/12/02/new-report-paints-bleak-picture-of-eu-unemployment-which-has-risen-sharply-in-2020
52. International Monetary Fund (IMF). 2020. "Europe. Whatever it takes: Europe's response to COVID-19." International Monetary Fund (IMF) Regional Economic Outlook. October 2020. https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/REO/EU/Issues/2020/10/19/REO-EUR-1021
53. Fragomen. 2021. "Worldwide Immigration Trends Report 2021." https://www.fragomen.com/about/news/worldwide-immigration-trends-reports

professionals and other essential (but lower-paid and lower-skilled) workers. For example, health care assistants and specialist medical professionals have recently appeared on the European Commission's Analysis of Shortage and Surplus Occupations (2020) for the first time. In addition, there is increased public support for such foreign workers.[54] Capitalizing on this support will be crucial.

The Impact of Opening New Legal Migration Pathways

As described above, the EU and its Member States have a number of commitments under the New Pact on Migration and Asylum, the Compact, and the Joint Africa-EU Strategy to expand labor migration between Africa and Europe. Honoring these commitments will require more than expanding the number of visas that are available to citizens from African states. It will require legal migration pathways that confer meaningful development benefits to countries of origin and destination alike.

By structuring these pathways so that their benefits are clear, tangible, and salient, the EU and its Member States can satisfy the needs of both political coalitions and their citizens. The benefits of such structured pathways are myriad, including combatting demographic decline and skill shortages, reducing irregular migration, improving foreign policy relationships with third countries, and enhancing immigrant integration.

Combat Demographic Decline and Skill Shortages

Europe is experiencing significant demographic shifts. By 2050, its working-age population (those aged between 20 and 64) is projected to decline by over 15 percent from 2020 levels (Figure 11).[55] This is owing to a combination of low birth rates and increased longevity. This is in line with similar shifts being felt throughout OECD countries. For example, without migration, over the same time horizon, a selection of OECD countries are predicted to lose more than 92 million workers. These same OECD countries are expected to gain, in the same time period, more than 100 million people over 65 years of age.[56]

This matters for two main reasons. First, pension schemes for retirement or old age incomes often depend on transfers or contributions from those of working age. With the latter declining, governments will be forced into drastic and unpopular policy moves, such as raising the retirement age, raising taxes, or cutting benefits.[57] Second, the absolute reduction in the working-age population will lead to substantial skill shortages within a number of key sectors (see Box 2).

54. Kings College London. 2020. "Two-thirds of Britons value 'low-skilled' workers more since Covid-19 crisis." May 18, 2020. London: Kings College London. https://www.kcl.ac.uk/news/two-thirds-of-britons-value-low-skilled-workers-more-since-covid-19-crisis

55. Michael Clemens, Helen Dempster, and Kate Gough. 2019. "Promoting New Kinds of Legal Labour Migration Pathways Between Europe and Africa." Center for Global Development (CGD) Brief. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/promoting-new-kinds-legal-labour-migration-pathways-between-europe-and-africa

56. Japan, Germany, United States, South Korea, Spain, Canada, United Kingdom, France, Greece, Italy, Portugal, The Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland, Belgium, Australia, Finland, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Ireland, Luxembourg, New Zealand, and Iceland. This analysis uses the UNDESA 2015 Population Projections and the zero-migration variant. See Rebekah Smith and Farah Hani. 2020. "Labor Mobility Partnerships: Expanding Opportunity with a Globally Mobile Workforce." Final report of the Connecting International Labor Markets Working Group. https://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/labor-mobility-partnerships-expanding-opportunity-globally-mobile-workforce.pdf

57. Rebekah Smith and Farah Hani. 2020. "Labor Mobility Partnerships: Expanding Opportunity with a Globally Mobile Workforce." Final report of the Connecting International Labor Markets Working Group. https://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/labor-mobility-partnerships-expanding-opportunity-globally-mobile-workforce.pdf

Figure 11. Europe's working-age population is projected to decline over 15 percent by 2050, while Sub-Saharan Africa's is increasing

Working-age population (20-64) (thousands)

Europe ········ Sub-Saharan Africa
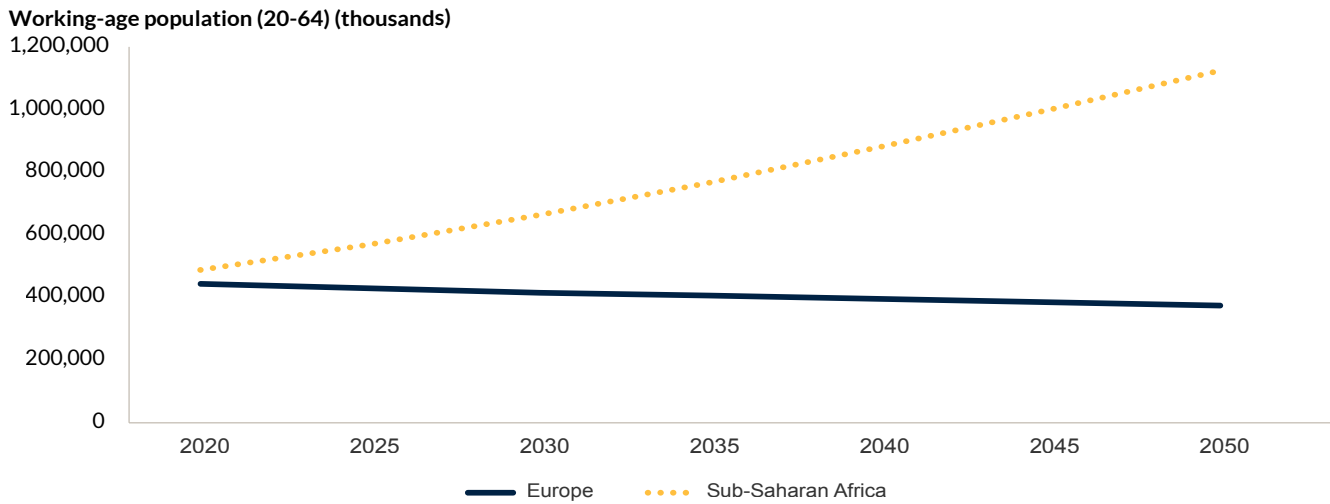
Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) Population Division World Population Prospects (2017).

Note: This projection uses the "medium-variant," which assumes a continuation of recent levels of net migration (the difference between the number of immigrants and the number of emigrants for a given country or group of countries). For more information, see UNDESA. 2017. "World Population Prospects: The 2017 Revision, Key Findings and Advance Tables." https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/Publications/Files/WPP2017_KeyFindings.pdf; and UNDESA. 2017. "Population Facts." http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/ migration/publications/populationfacts/docs/MigrationPopFacts20178.pdf

Figure 12. Most shortage occupations within Europe require a medium level of skills and qualifications

Percentage

■ % high   ■ % low
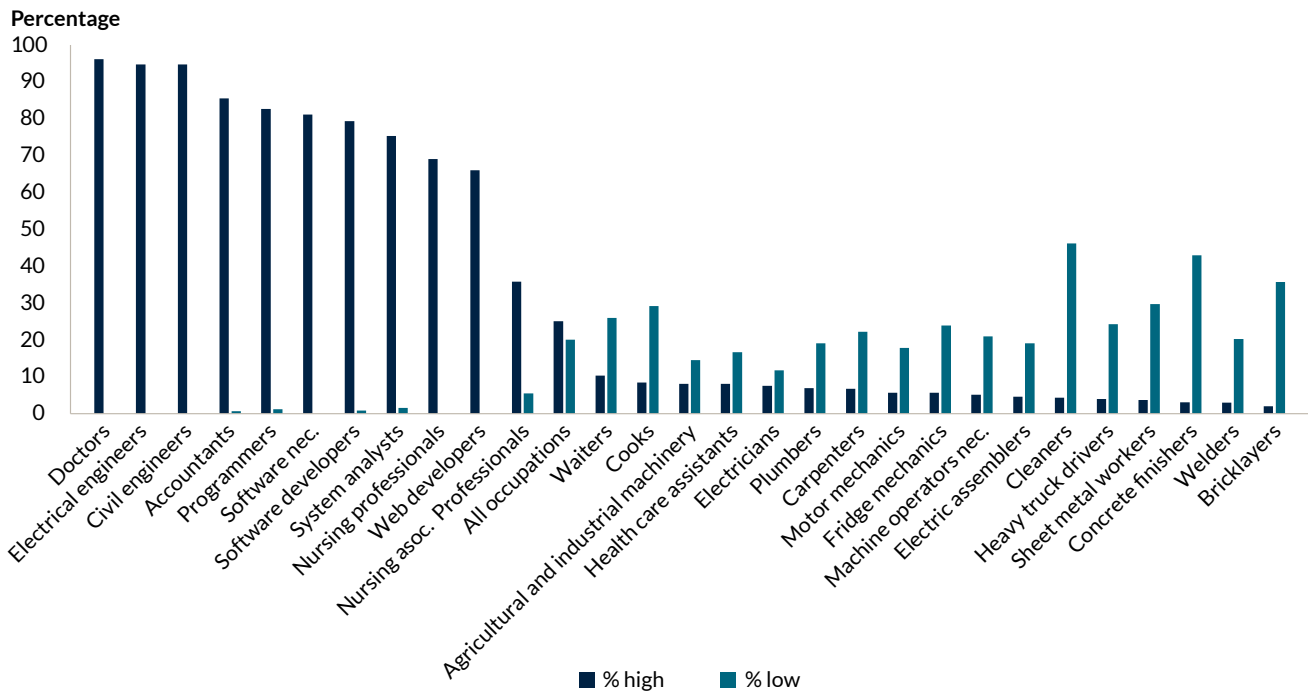
Source: Analysis of Eurostat data in John McGrath. 2020. "Analysis of shortage and surplus occupations 2020." Brussels: European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion. https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=738&langId=en&pubId=8356&type=2&furtherPubs=no

Box 2. The definitions of "skills", "skill gaps", "skill shortages", and "skill mismatches"

There is little agreement in the literature as to what exactly "skills" are and how they should be defined.[1] According to the OECD (2017) "skills" refer to both cognitive and noncognitive abilities and to abilities that are specific to a particular job, occupation, or sector.[2]

There is often a mismatch between the skills that are available within a particular labor market, and the skills in demand by the employers within that labor market. Many terms are used to describe this mismatch.[3] Firstly, "skill gaps" often refer to the failure of the education system to equip school leavers with basic needed skills. Secondly, "skill shortages" arise when employers cannot find the staff with the required skills they need within the accessible labor market at the ongoing rate of pay (for example, the

claim that there are "not enough" doctors, engineers, etc.). "Skill mismatches" occur when there is either an oversupply or undersupply of skills within specific labor markets. Such mismatches can lead to shortages. For example, it has been argued that there is no absolute labor shortage within the EU, but while some professions are in surplus in some countries, they are in shortage in others.[4]

In this report, we are going to focus on professions for which a majority of high-income European countries report having a "skill shortage". To reduce these shortages, countries have a range of options including stimulating automation, increasing wages and working conditions, mobilizing the un/under-employed, and attracting workers from abroad.[5]

1. Giorgio Brunello and Patricia Wruuck. 2019. "Skill Shortages and Skill Mismatch in Europe: A Review of the Literature." IZA Discussion Paper 12346. May 2019. Bonn: IZA Institute of Labor Economics. http://ftp.iza.org/dp12346.pdf
2. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) 2017. "Getting Skills Right: Skills for Jobs Indicators." Paris: OECD Publishing. https://www.oecd.org/employment/getting-skills-right-skills-for-jobs-indicators-9789264277878-en.htm
3. Peter Cappelli. 2014. "Skill Gaps, Skill Shortages and Skill Mismatches: Evidence for the US." National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER) Working Paper 20382. August 2014. Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER). https://www.nber.org/system/files/working_papers/w20382/w20382.pdf
4. John McGrath. 2020. "Analysis of shortage and surplus occupations 2020." Brussels: European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion. https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=738&langId=en&pubId=8356&type=2&furtherPubs=no
5. Dafne Reymen, Maarten Gerard, Paul De Beer, Anja Meierkord, Marli Paskov, Valentina Di Stasio, Vicki Donlevy, Ian Atkinson, Agnieszka Makulec, Ulrike Famira-Mühlberger, and Hedig Lutz. "Labor Market Shortages in the European Union." March 2015. Brussels: European Parliament Policy Department A to the Committee on Employment and Social Affairs. https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/STUD/2015/542202/IPOL_STU%282015%29542202_EN.pdf

Skill shortages are "a marker of growing, dynamic, international enterprises" and as such are more likely to arise in specific economic sectors.[58] The most recent analysis, completed by the European Commission in 2021, shows that out of the top 28 shortage occupations, all but three fell into six buckets: health care,

construction, engineering, mechanics, ICT, and hospitality. Fifty-five percent of these occupations require medium-level qualifications, while 28 percent and 25 percent require low and high qualifications, respectively.[59] Additional analysis by the European Commission in 2014 found that, within many of these occupations,

58. Cedefop. 2015. "Skill shortages and gaps in European enterprises: striking a balance between vocational education and training and the labour market." Cedefop reference series; No 102. Luxembourg: Publications Office. http://dx.doi.org/10.2801/042499
59. John McGrath. 2020. "Analysis of shortage and surplus occupations 2020." Brussels: European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion. https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=738&langId=en&pubId=8356&type=2&furtherPubs=no

it was a combination of a lack of relevant applicants and applicants not wanting to do the job that had led to the shortage.[60]

These skill shortages are having an impact on the ability of employers to invest, expand, and remain productive. The European Investment Bank's (EIB) Group Survey on Investment and Investment Finance (EIBIS) shows that the limited availability of skilled workers has increasingly become a concern for firms. In 2017, its survey found that 72 percent of firms consider skill shortages to have been an obstacle to investment in the previous year, with 40 percent considering it a major issue.[61] Responding to such skill shortages will depend on the sector being discussed. Improving wages and working conditions are strategies frequently used by the ICT and sales occupations, while increasing international recruitment is often used in more constrained sectors such as health care.[62]

Reduce Irregular Migration

As highlighted above, irregular migration to Europe has a range of negative consequences. Reducing irregular migration has therefore long been a cornerstone of EU migration policy, with huge financial resources committed to enhanced border security, tackling smuggling networks, and addressing the root causes of migration in countries of origin. Yet there has been little emphasis, either in rhetoric or funding, on the role that expanded legal pathways could plan in reducing irregular migration. For example, only 1.5 percent of the EUTF went toward expanding migration opportunities.[63]

There is little evidence as to whether expanded legal pathways can substitute for irregular migration. In 2015, Germany's policy move to open up a legal migration route to those from the Western Balkans dramatically reduced irregular arrivals.[64] Evidence from the Mexico-United States border has shown that under large demographic and economic pressure, increasing legal migration pathways are necessary to curb irregular migration, but they are not sufficient. As a result, they are only effective when combined with robust border enforcement.[65] Likewise, such enforcement measures have only been effective when coupled with an expansion in legal pathways. This report is not claiming that expanding legal migration opportunities from Sub-Saharan Africa to Europe would stop all irregular migration but, if well designed, executed, scaled, and supported by complementary measures, they could go some way to reducing such movements. As such, it should be an essential part of European policy making on the issue.

Improve Foreign Policy Relationships with Third Countries

As outlined above, the Joint Africa-EU Strategy aims to promote enhanced dialogue, institutional cooperation, and political relations between both continents. Inherent within this strategy is the recognition that both

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60. Karin Attström, Sebastian Niedlich, Kees Sandvliet, HannaMaija Kuhn, and Edmund Beavor. 2014. "Mapping and Analysing Bottleneck Vacancies in EU Labour Markets: Overview report." September 19, 2014. Brussels: European Commission. https://ec.europa.eu/eures/downloadSectionFile.do?fileId=8010
61. Stéphanie Jamet, Erik Canton, Anna Thum-Thysen, Anneleen Vandeplas, Peter Voigt, Patricia Wruuck, Mantas Sekmokas, Konstantinos Pouliakas, Lidia Salvatore, Ernesto Villalba-Garcia, Lars Thies, and Marcus Tamm. 2018. "Investing in Europe's future: the role of education and skills." European Investment Bank (EIB) Thematic Study. Luxembourg: European Investment Bank (EIB). https://espas.secure.europarl.europa.eu/orbis/sites/default/files/generated/document/en/EIB-investing_in_europes_future_the_role_of_education_and_skills_en.pdf
62. Karin Attström, Sebastian Niedlich, Kees Sandvliet, HannaMaija Kuhn, and Edmund Beavor. 2014. "Mapping and Analysing Bottleneck Vacancies in EU Labour Markets: Overview report." September 19, 2014. Brussels: European Commission. https://ec.europa.eu/eures/downloadSectionFile.do?fileId=8010
63. Tuuli Raty and Raphael Shilhav. 2020. "The EU Trust Fund for Africa: Trapped between aid policy and migration politics." Oxfam Policy Paper. Brussels: Oxfam International. https://www.oxfam.org/en/research/eu-trust-fund-africa-trapped-between-aid-policy-and-migration-politics
64. Jessica Bither and Astrid Ziebarth. 2018. "Creating Legal Pathways to Reduce Irregular Migration? What We Can Learn from Germany's "Western Balkan Regulation"." October 8, 2018. Berlin: The German Marshall Fund of the United States (GMFUS). https://www.gmfus.org/publications/creating-legal-pathways-reduce-irregular-migration-what-we-can-learn-germanys-western
65. Michael Clemens and Kate Gough. 2018. "Can Regular Migration Channels Reduce Irregular Migration? Lessons for Europe from the United States." Center for Global Development (CGD) Brief. February 14, 2018. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/can-regular-migration-channels-reduce-irregular-migration-lessons-europe-united-states

continents should be equal players in such discussions, and that the views of both should be heard. Yet historically, agreements on migration with third countries have been dictated by the desires of European countries. Aid and capacity building have been provided to enhance migration management infrastructure, border security measures, and nominal economic development investments. Despite an increased focus on legal migration instruments, agreements on return and reintegration of failed asylum seekers remains the top priority of the New Pact on Migration and Asylum. As mentioned earlier, although negotiations are ongoing, many African countries have so far refused to sign formal return and readmission agreements with the European Commission. This has led observers to conclude that the terms of the return and readmission agreements set forth by the Commission do not align with the mutual development interest of countries such as Nigeria which would rather see regular migration pathways and sustainable developmental support along with the returns of irregular migrants.[66]

Building a true partnership of equals will require an understanding of the views of African leaders and acting on them. Europe's need to develop agreements on return and reintegration, coupled with demographic and skills pressure, should put more bargaining power in the hands of African leaders.[67] Besides meaningful legal migration pathways to provide job opportunities for Africa's growing youth population, Africa's leaders would like to ensure that development investment is channeled toward budget support and systems strengthening to support Africa in its own job creation. Slowly, the views of European Member States are coming in line with this approach. Member States have frequently expressed concerns about brain drain in migrant countries of origin, and there have been some recent policy moves to compensate countries of origin for sending workers.[68] By opening pathways that enhance development and reduce brain drain, coupled with targeted aid investment, Europe can achieve its own objectives while building a true partnership of equals.

Enhance Immigrant Integration

There is no consensus on the definition of integration, but most agree it is centered around the process by which migrants become accepted into societies.[69] Measuring migrant integration is often done by looking at the differences in outcomes between migrants and non-migrants in employment, education, health, and social inclusion. The OECD's Indicators of Immigrant Integration (2015) found that in virtually all countries, immigrants experience higher income inequality and precarity, lower employment levels, and higher under-employment levels. Some of this gap can be explained by the concept of skill mismatch, as described above. Yet this lack of immigrant integration can lead to tensions between immigrants and host communities, and reduced support among host communities for immigration overall.

Expanding legal migration pathways from third countries to Europe will not, in itself, enhance integration. Yet there are two ways in which Europe could design these pathways to aid integration and improve public support for immigration overall. The first is to focus on skill shortages. Bringing in migrants with a particular set of skills which are in demand within Europe will ensure that these people can access meaningful

66. Kwaku Arhim-Sam. 2019. "The Political Economy of Migration Governance in Nigeria." Freiburg: Arnold-Bergstraesser Institute (ABI). https://www.medam-migration.eu/fileadmin/Dateiverwaltung/MEDAM-Webseite/Publications/Research_Papers/WAMiG_country_reports/WAMiG_Nigeria_country_report/WAMiG_Nigeria_country_report.pdf

67. Helen Dempster. 2020. "Four Reasons to Keep Developing Legal Migration Pathways During COVID-19." Center for Global Development (CGD) Blog. May 15, 2020. https://www.cgdev.org/blog/four-reasons-keep-developing-legal-migration-pathways-during-covid-19

68. UK Parliament. 2021. "Doctors and Nurses (Developing Countries) Bill." Originated in the House of Commons, session 2019-21. Last updated: January 14, 2021. https://bills.parliament.uk/bills/2804

69. International Organization for Migration (IOM). "Migrant Integration." Migration Data Portal. Last updated September 24, 2020. https://migrationdata-portal.org/themes/migrant-integration

job opportunities as soon as they arrive. This will help support their integration within the workplace and their society. The second is to start small. Bringing in small numbers of people (at least in the beginning) will ensure that authorities can track their integration outcomes and change the design of the pathway if necessary. It also allows host communities time to adjust to new immigrant groups. To build trust in the pathway among both employers and policy makers, the pathway could start by facilitating temporary (e.g. two-to-three-year) visas with a view to eventually supporting permanent movement if desired.

There are many ways in which Europe could expand legal migration pathways from third countries, including liberalizing formal immigration systems, creating shortage occupation lists, and introducing new bilateral partnerships. In this report, we are going to focus on this latter route, otherwise known as the Talent Partnerships approach envisioned in the New Pact on Migration and Asylum. We would stress that this may not be the best option for all countries and sectors; yet it offers promise within key sectors with skill shortages while having the positive impacts outlined above.

Finally, a word on actors. There has long been a focus on trying to harmonize training and qualification requirements across European Member States to aid the integration of third country nationals into the European labor market. An extension of such efforts has been included in the New Pact, including revisions to the Blue Card and Long-Term Residents Directive. Yet creating Talent Partnerships that span the entirety of the European Union will be incredibly difficult. Member States have different views of labor migration, different demographic trends, different skill needs, different languages, and different education and training systems. Instead of attempting to agree on common EU-wide initiatives, policy makers should explore bilateral or multilateral agreements between "coalitions of the willing" that could, over time, scale to include more European Member States.[70]

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70. Helen Dempster and Michael Clemens. 2020. "The EU Migration Pact: Putting Talent Partnerships int Practice." Center for Global Development (CGD) Blog. November 19, 2020. https://www.cgdev.org/blog/eu-migration-pact-putting-talent-partnerships-practice

Section 2:
The Innovation

Many high-income countries throughout Europe are predicted to experience significant demographic decline in the coming decades, leading to substantial skill shortages across a range of mid-skill occupations. And many low-income countries throughout Sub-Saharan Africa are predicted to experience massive growth in their working-age populations, requiring increased opportunities at home and abroad. Connecting these two labor markets, while promoting an increase in the global stock of skilled workers, will require fresh innovations. In this section, we outline one such innovation—the Global Skill Partnership—and how it could be implemented.

While the remainder of the report mostly focuses on the Global Skill Partnership, it is worth highlighting that Nigeria can benefit from all kinds of avenues for safe, orderly, and regular migration. Nigeria should improve its managed labor migration systems to facilitate overseas employment through well managed migration policies and to complement ongoing efforts to curb irregular migration. The strengths and weaknesses in Nigeria's Federal overseas employment systems are highlighted in a companion World Bank report titled "Of Roads Less Travelled: Assessing the Potential of Economic Migration to Provide Overseas Jobs For Nigeria's Youth".[71] Among others, the companion report places international migration within the broader labor market context in Nigeria, carefully stressing the push and pull factors that lead to both regular and irregular migration and makes the case for why more structured regular migration will be one of the crucial ways in which Nigeria can support education to work transition for aspiring Nigerian jobseekers.

The Global Skill Partnership

A Global Skill Partnership is a bilateral labor migration agreement between a country of origin and a country of destination.[72] It is a way to regulate how migration happens in a context where the labor force is shrinking in a country of destination but growing rapidly in a country of origin, resulting in increased labor market pressure. The model can address legitimate concerns about the impact of migration on both sides.

The country of origin agrees to train people in skills specifically and immediately needed in both the country of origin and destination. Some of those trainees choose to stay and increase human capital in the country of origin (the "home" track); others migrate to the country of destination (the "away" track). The country of destination provides technology and finance for the training and broader systems support, and receives migrants with the skills to contribute to the maximum extent and integrate quickly (see Figure 13).

The Global Skill Partnership model was first proposed by CGD Fellow Michael Clemens in 2012 as a way to regulate skilled migration to benefit countries of origin, destination, and the migrants themselves.[73] The model was expanded upon in a CGD brief in late 2017 where it was applied to a potential nursing partnership between Eastern and Western Europe.[74] In December 2018, after 18 months of consultations, negotiations, and public debate, 163 countries adopted the Global Compact for Safe, Regular, and Orderly Migration. The Global Skill Partnership is the only concrete initiative included in this landmark agreement. Today, there are three pilots of the model underway: between Belgium

71. Samik Adhikari, Sarang Chaudhary, and Nkechi Linda Ekeator. 2021. "Of Roads Less Travelled: Assessing the Potential of Economic Migration to Provide Overseas Jobs for Nigeria's Youth." World Bank, Washington, DC
72. Center for Global Development (CGD). "Global Skill Partnerships." https://www.cgdev.org/gsp
73. Michael Clemens. 2014. "Global Skill Partnerships: A Proposal for Technical Training in a Mobile World." Center for Global Development (CGD) Policy Paper 040. May 2014. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/global-skill-partnerships-proposal-technical-training-mobile-world
74. Michael Clemens. 2017. "Global Skill Partnerships: A Proposal for Technical Training in a Mobile World." Center for Global Development (CGD) Brief. October 11, 2017. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/global-skill-partnerships-proposal-technical-training-in-mobile-world-brief

Figure 13. The Global Skill Partnership model

Technical training

(including financial and technology transfer from the country to destination)

Integration training

(language, culture awareness)

Country of Origin

Option to stay

+ Skills
+ Earning potential

Option to migrate

+ Skills + Earning potential
+ Able to migrate legally and safely

Country of Destination
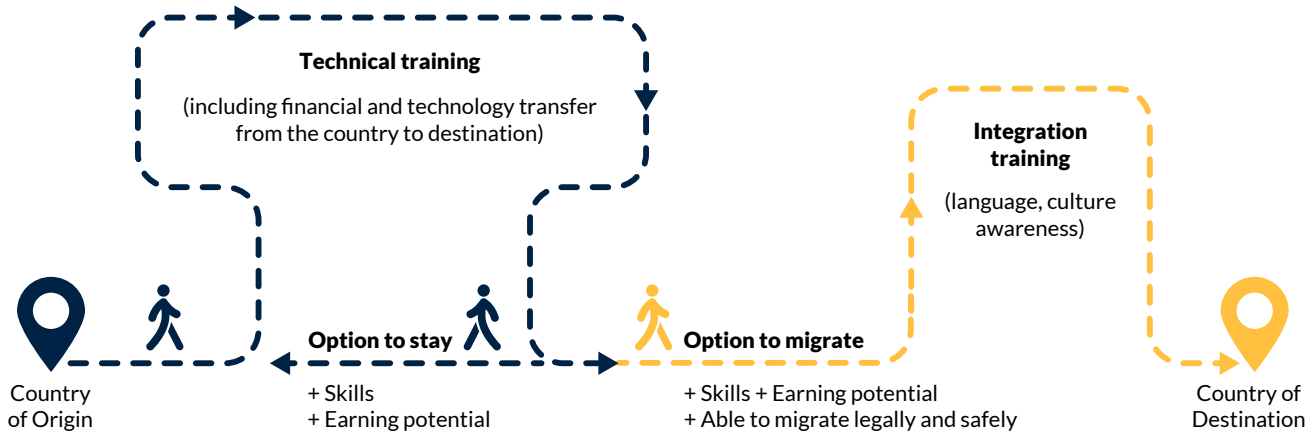
and Morocco in ICT, between Germany and Kosovo in construction, and between Australia and the Pacific Islands in a range of vocational skills.

How it Differs from Other Models

Over the past several decades, there have been many arrangements agreed upon to facilitate the movement of skilled professionals around the world. A Global Skill Partnership is unique and distinct from these prior arrangements. In fact, the model was explicitly designed to respond to many of the negative impacts of these arrangements. Table 2 identifies four of the primary differences.

However, a caveat must be issued first. As described above, the scale of the mismatch between labor demand and supply globally is vast. By 2050, Europe will have lost 92 million workers while at the same time, Sub-Saharan Africa will have gained two billion. The Global Skill Partnership could, and should, be scaled to train and move greater numbers of people than the hundreds involved in the current pilots. Yet it is unlikely that the model could,

or should, be scaled to meet the needs of millions as outlined above. It is an example of an innovation within the migration space that can be used when governments want to develop a long-term pipeline of talent globally. There are other mechanisms, such as the EU Talent Pool, which aim to facilitate the migration of already qualified talent. These, and many more, innovations are needed if we are to meet the scale of the problem.

As described earlier, many high-income countries have attempted to use migration to plug significant skill shortages across a range of occupations. In doing so, European countries have typically used two policy tools: "labor market tests" and "shortage occupation lists".[75] The former requires employers to provide evidence of their efforts to source labor locally before looking internationally. And the latter includes a list of occupations whereby employers do not need to jump through such hoops. Yet both methods attempt to attract labor from third countries without guaranteeing some form of reciprocal investment. Countries of destination would receive qualified workers without compensating those workers' countries of origin for providing them with such needed skills.

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75. Martin Ruhs. 2020. "Expanding Legal Labour Migration Pathways to the EU: Will This Time Be Different?" Instituto Affari Internazionali (IAI) Commentary Issue 20|95. December 2020. Rome: Instituto Affari Internazionali (IAI). https://www.iai.it/en/pubblicazioni/expanding-legal-labour-migration-pathways-eu-will-time-be-different

Table 2. How the Global Skill Partnership differs from other migration models

Existing migration models…	The Global Skill Partnership…
… Facilitate the entry of already qualified third country professionals. Such models could merely open up visa schemes to third country nationals or couple a new pathway with some investment in language and cultural awareness training.	… Targets those without existing skills, and trains them in skills needed in both the country of origin and the country of destination. Most, if not all, training occurs within the country of origin. Those on the "away" track could also receive language and cultural awareness training.
… Do little to support training institutions in countries of origin. Even when language and cultural awareness training is delivered in countries of origin, it usually is delivered through parallel training systems without a connection to local curricula and institutions.	… Strengthens training institutions, including investing in curriculum development, equipment, facilities, and the training of trainers. This ensures the country of origin receives a tangible and visible benefit from engaging in such pathways.
… May not explicitly link the third country nationals entering with employer demand. Some migration models liberalize visa systems, or promote the entry of skilled workers, with little regard for specific employer demand. There is therefore little investment in employee integration.	… Works directly with employers in countries of destination to ensure entry, placement, and the maximum contribution by migrant trainees. Global Skill Partnerships are explicitly driven by employer demand, and therefore any implementation must engage them in the design of the training program, and the selection and integration of trainees.
… Focus on low- or high-skill professions. Most migration arrangements fall within two buckets. Either they facilitate the short-term (seasonal) entry of low-skill third country workers, often for agricultural or horticultural work, or they facilitate the long-term (often permanent) entry of high-skill third country workers.	… Focuses on mid-skill professions. Given the skill shortages demonstrated above, it is in mid-skill professions such as health care, construction, engineering, ICT, hospitality, and tourism where an expansion in the number of skilled workers is needed. Given the enduring nature of these shortages, the Global Skill Partnership model could be used to facilitate long-term (two to three years) yet temporary movement, or permanent movement.

Such pathways are often accused of contributing to brain drain, the notion that qualified workers are leaving (often low-income) countries for better opportunities abroad,[76] thereby depleting their origin country of much needed workers and other associated benefits.[77] To combat brain drain, many countries of origin aim to restrict the number of people moving abroad through various policy interventions with limited success. Recognizing the issue, particularly within the health care profession, many countries of destination have barred recruitment from low-income countries altogether.[78]

Yet such an approach ignores the benefits that could come from more closely linking education and training with mobility. Benefits could include: trainees who are adequately prepared for labor markets, both domestic and international, thereby increasing their employment prospects, future earnings, and economic livelihoods; plugging skills gaps in both domestic and international labor markets by increasing the global stock of talent within a certain sector; and broader economic development through remittances, skill transfer, systems strengthening, private sector investment, and diaspora engagement. Despite these benefits, the ILO has noted that "skills aspects are rarely considered in all phases of the design, negotiation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of these [bilateral labour migration] agreements."[79]

76. Sunita Dodani and Ronald E LaPorte. 2005. "Brain drain from developing countries: how can brain drain be converted into wisdom gain?" Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine 98(11): 487-491. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMCl275994/
77. Michael Clemens. 2014. "A Case against Taxes and Quotas on High-Skill Emigration." Center for Global Development (CGD) Working paper 363. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/case-against-taxes-and-quotas-high-skill-emigration-working-paper-363
78. Amani Siyam and Mario Roberto Dal Poz (eds.) 2014. "Migration of health workers: The WHO Code of Practice and the Global Economic Crisis." May 2014. Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO) and the Migration Policy Institute (MPI). https://www.who.int/hrh/migration/migration_book/en/
79. International Labour Organization (ILO). 2020. "Guidelines for skills modules in bilateral labour migration agreements." Geneva: International Labour Organization (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/labour-migration/publications/WCMS_748723/lang--en/index.htm

It is here that the Global Skill Partnership model distinguishes itself from other migration models. The dual track approach ensures that there is an increase in the supply of skilled workers remaining in the country of origin, thereby combatting brain drain. It also ensures there is a steady stream of investment going into improving both training and systems overall, thereby compensating countries of origin for producing qualified workers for markets abroad.

The implementation of the Global Skill Partnership must be highly context specific, driven by public and private sector demand, as well as the requirements of immigration policies on both sides. For example, the training provided to people in the two tracks could be identical or differential. The former provides economies of scale—providing the same training to those on the "home" and "away" tracks makes it simpler to develop and execute a curriculum, and the same training facilities can be used. Yet the latter allows the model to adapt to different demands within the countries included. The model can be used to facilitate permanent or temporary movement, with the latter including a return and reintegration component. And it is recommended that such partnerships start in pilot phase, to test assumptions, align incentives, build trust, and assess the impact, before scaling. More information about the implementation of such schemes is described below.

How the Innovation Seizes the Opportunity

The Global Skill Partnership was explicitly designed to respond to many of the concerns and challenges with existing migration pathways, and therefore can help address many of the goals inherent in both Europe and Africa's migration policies. Table 3 outlines these factors, showing how existing policies address these opportunities, and how the Global Skill Partnership innovation could address them.

Box 3. The Global Skill Partnership on Migration

The migration model described here is not to be confused with the broader Global Skill Partnership on Migration. This partnership was launched in December 2018 between the ILO, IOM, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), International Employers Organization (IOE), and International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC). The aim of this partnership is to mobilize the technical expertise and constituencies of the organizations to "support governments, employers, workers and their organizations, educational institutions and training providers, and other stakeholders, to develop and recognize the skills of migrant workers with a particular focus on youth."[1] Implementing new legal migration pathways is therefore just one small part of this broader framework which is aiming to better regulate migration and improve outcomes for migrant workers.

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO). "Global Skills Partnership on Migration." December 10, 2018. https://www.ilo.org/skills/pubs/WCMS_653993/lang--en/index.htm

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1. International Labour Organization (ILO). 2020. "Guidelines for skills modules in bilateral labour migration agreements." Geneva: International Labour Organization (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/labour-migration/publications/WCMS_748723/lang--en/index.htm

Where are Global Skill Partnerships currently being implemented and what are we learning?

As described above, there are currently three Global Skill Partnerships in operation: between Belgium and Morocco in ICT, between Germany and Kosovo in

Table 3. How Global Skill Partnerships could address the opportunities explored above

The Opportunity	How Existing Policy Addresses It	How the Innovation (Global Skill Partnerships) Addresses It
Nigeria		
Growing unemploy-ment rates	Mostly through domestic job creation programs without considering a component on overseas jobs for qualified youth.	Qualified youth can get access to jobs overseas thereby relieving some of the pressure on the domestic labor market.
Skills mismatches	Reform the domestic skills development system and align it with domestic industry standards.	Align domestic training curriculum with global standards in priority sectors at home and abroad.
Irregular migration	Address the root causes of migration through domestic job creation programs, awareness cam-paigns, and border controls.	Displace some of the irregular migration by chan-neling qualified irregular migrants through regular routes.
Brain drain	No ban on international migrants but skilled migration is viewed as a net loss of human capital.	Increases the stock of skilled professionals at home and abroad.
Europe		
Demographic decline and skill shortages	Mobilize the un/under-employed, increase automation, and raise the retirement age; some nontargeted interventions to expand migration pathways at high-skill levels.	Open migration pathways at mid-skill levels, where there is greatest demand, to provide a new cohort of working-age people.
Irregular migration	Address the root causes of migration through domestic job creation programs, awareness cam-paigns, and border controls.	Displace some of the irregular migration by chan-neling qualified irregular migrants through regular routes.
Foreign policy rela-tionships with third countries	Provide aid and capacity-building support, while attempting to sign returns and readmissions agreements.	Expand investment in education, training, and systems, to expand economic development for all.
Immigrant integration	Support existing migrants with skill recognition and credentialling efforts.	Bring over new workers with targeted skills required in the labor market, thereby satisfying public concerns and facilitating cohesion.

construction, and between Australia and the Pacific Islands in various vocational skills. These are just three of over 60 legal migration pathways that are either current or completed around the world.[80]

· **Belgium and Morocco**. Called PALIM, this project is currently in the pilot stage. One hundred and twenty people in both Belgium and Morocco are being trained in specific ICT skills; 40 have chosen to join the "away track" and are prepared to move to the Flanders region of Belgium, and the other 80 will stay in Morocco. The program may soon be expanded to 400 trainees across Morocco and

Tunisia, as part of the German development agency GIZ-implemented project, "Towards a Holis-tic Approach to Labour Migration Governance and Labour Mobility in North Africa (THAMM)." (See Box 21.)

· **Germany and Kosovo**. Germany is a world leader on legal migration pathways and has a number of innovative projects in the works all around the world. In 2019, CGD reviewed these projects and found that their development impact could be enhanced if training was moved to the country of origin.[81] This partnership with Kosovo is just one of a series of construction pilot projects the German

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80. See https://www.cgdev.org/gsp

81. Michael Clemens, Helen Dempster, and Kate Gough. 2019. "Maximizing the Shared Benefits of Legal Migration Pathways: Lessons from Germany's Skills Partnerships." Center for Global Development (CGD) Policy Paper 150. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/maximizing-shared-benefits-legal-migration-pathways

development agency GIZ is hoping to implement around the world in the coming years. (See Box 16.)

- **Australia and various Pacific Islands**. This scheme, called the Australia Pacific Training Coalition (APTC), has been in place since 2006. It is now in its third stage and has over 15,000 graduates to date, primarily in semi-skilled professions such as hospitality, tourism, and various trades, especially construction. It recently implemented the "dual track" model, working closely with the new Pacific Labour Facility to train for skills in demand in both countries.

All three projects have identified similar lessons learned, many of which have been highlighted in an International Center for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD) report from 2020.[82] These lessons include:

- The importance of **time and flexibility** to build trust between the different stakeholders involved. This requirement renders projects time consuming and expensive, but is imperative to establish a solid foundation for the implementation of both a pilot and at scale.
- The need for thorough **skill mapping and research** to understand, in detail, labor market needs in both the country of origin and destination. Without this, the pilot runs the risk of training for a skill that is not in demand among employers.
- The necessity for cooperation between **public and private stakeholders** to build alliances and explore common interests. Yet often pilots did not bring the private sector in as early as possible, which resulted in further friction or inadequate placing of trainees.

More lessons learned have been folded into the forthcoming section on risks and mitigation measures.

Why Don't More Global Skill Partnerships (or More Legal Pathways for Migration) Exist?

Given the vast potential benefits outlined above, it is useful to explore why Global Skill Partnerships are not already widespread within the migration and development policy space. In recent years, interest has increased with two new pilots agreed on and at least five more currently in development. Further, the Talent Partnerships are ostensibly similar to the Global Skill Partnership model in that they purport to better link labor market needs with education and training abroad.[83] Yet despite this interest, the actual number of pilots (and the number of people being trained within them) remains small. The reasons are myriad.

Coordination failures. While aid investments are designed and driven by country of destination governments, they are rarely connected to the needs of employers within countries of destination and origin. Employers have, for decades, been concerned about skill shortages, but often do not think about recruiting abroad, or do not have the resources to do so. Further, the solution is often to recruit already trained professionals, rather than invest in building the global stock of talent. For those employers who are interested in this route, the cost, risk, and time involved in such an approach can be daunting.

Lack of support on groundwork. Working with the government in the country of destination can be difficult. The remit for developing such partnerships sits

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82. Diana Stefanescu. 2020. "Partnerships for Mobility at the Crossroads: Lessons Learnt From 18 Months of Implementation of EU Pilot Projects on Legal Migration." Vienna: International Center for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD). https://mobilitypartnershipfacility.eu/what-we-do/publications/partnerships-for-mobility-at-the-crossroads-lessons-learnt-from-18-months-of-implementation-of-eu-pilot-projects-on-legal-migration

83. Helen Dempster and Michael Clemens. 2020. "The EU Migration Pact: Putting Talent Partnerships into Practice." Center for Global Development (CGD) Blog. November 19, 2020. https://www.cgdev.org/blog/eu-migration-pact-putting-talent-partnerships-practice

awkwardly between ministries of development, interior, foreign affairs, and the ministry responsible for the area at hand e.g., health. These ministries all have different perspectives on the role of labor migration and development and agreeing on a set path that satisfies all political and public constituencies is rarely easy. Compounding this difficulty is the fact there is currently no international or nongovernmental organization set up to facilitate such partnerships. ICMPD, which implemented MPF and advises Member States on labor migration issues, does take some responsibility for supporting states which are interested in expanding legal migration pathways. But its role is not comprehensive, nor is it set up entirely for that purpose.

Costs and time. As indicated above, the implementation of such pathways can be expensive and time-consuming. Most of the pilot programs highlighted in this document built new coordination structures, training institutions, curricula, and, often, visa schemes from scratch. Invariably, setting up these mechanisms took at least one year and a huge cost to both development ministries and international organizations to (eventually) move only a small number of people. Many new legal pathways are criticized for this imbalance and such criticism can deter other governments from developing similar innovations. There seems to be little thought given to transitioning a pilot model to scale, in a way that reduces the unit cost of the pathway while training and moving more people. Transitioning into a sustainable model whereby the private sector and/or the migrants themselves co-pay for the training has only been trialed in a few instances and there is little written about the pros and cons of such an arrangement. There are undoubtedly governments that feel these complexities outweigh the productivity losses from skill shortages.

In short, governments will not act until employers push them to, but employers will not push for anything until the groundwork is laid by governments. It takes coordinated investment by both country of

origin and destination to show employers what is possible, such that they can demand it, such that governments can expand it. Such coordinated investment is still nascent.

Choosing Sectors: A Framework

To implement a Global Skill Partnership, one of the first steps is for countries of origin and destination to decide which sectors to focus on. Deciding these sectors will dictate which actors need to be involved in negotiations, which countries to partner with, which funding instruments to draw on, how training should be developed and implemented, how development assistance should be channeled, and the potential for scale. While there is no rule of thumb for picking the sector in which to implement a Global Skill Partnership, we have developed a rough framework which can be used by both countries of origin and countries of destination (Figure 14). The following five elements are ranked in order of most important to least important: existing skill shortage, employer demand, political will and public interest, specialized training requirements, and the potential for remittances and skill transfer.

Figure 14. A Framework for Choosing Sectors for a Global Skill Partnership

- Existing Skill Shortage
- Employer Demand
- Political Will and Public Interest
- Specialized Training Requirements
- Potential for Remittances and Skill Transfer
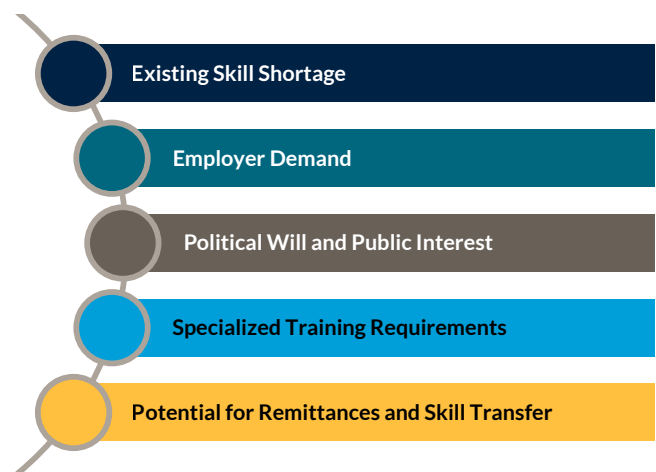
Where Is There a Skill Shortage?

As described earlier, defining a skill shortage is difficult. It requires sector-based analysis, over a long-time horizon, to ascertain where employer demand is not being met. Box 2 shows that this demand may not be met for a number of reasons, including a lack of skills within the local labor market and/or an absolute lack of people available to be employed. Understanding the reason for the shortage is crucial. With some sectors, the right approach may be to work with employers to raise wages and improve working conditions to attract local workers, or to work with education and training institutions to ensure they are exporting a certain type of worker. With other sectors, the skill shortage may be absolute. Employers may not have the flexibility to raise wages or improve working conditions (particularly difficult for public sector employers or within low-skill industries such as agriculture) or building the required level of skills within the domestic population may be a decade-long project. Within these sectors, migration may be the only option. Quantifying the number of migrants required within a certain sector over a long-time horizon is crucial to understanding the scale of need and therefore the demands on the new partnership.

The previous sections focused on skill shortages within Nigeria and across Europe. As can be seen from these discussions, while there is employer demand at all levels of skills, it is most notable in the mid-skill category. These professions often require primary and secondary education with some additional training (to diploma or certificate level, but not a university degree). Demand often falls within six major sector buckets: health care (especially general care nursing and elder-care nursing), construction, engineering, mechanics, ICT, and tourism and hospitality. Crucially, these skills are in demand across several sectors; for instance, many otherwise thriving sectors may face a shortage of ICT professionals.

COVID-19 has further highlighted the role of migrant workers within these sectors and may have created more public support for expanding migration pathways within these in-demand sectors (see Box 4).[84]

The norm is to focus on a skill that is in demand in both countries. This makes training cost effective and economies of scale achievable. However, it is not essential that the skill in demand be exactly the same within both the country of origin and the country of destination. Take, for example, the health care sector. A country of destination may be in need of qualified primary care nurses, while a country of origin may be in need of community health workers. The training could deliver a certain period of basic skills training after which those on the "home" track could move on to specialist community health worker training, and those on the "away" track could undertake more intensive training in primary care skills. Training can accommodate these differences.

In this report, we have focused on exploring three of the sectors outlined above: health care, construction, and ICT. Notably, there are large skill shortages within the tourism and hospitality sector that have been focus of the APTC, the biggest Global Skill Partnership operational today. However, the pandemic has reduced and shifted demand within this sector leaving little appetite among employers to pursue partnerships within the sector in the near-term. Countries should focus on this sector in the future and seek opportunities to expand skilled migration (particularly for cooks and hotel workers) once the effects of the pandemic recede.

Where Is There Employer Demand?

By definition, those sectors which are suffering from skill shortages will have a large number of employers, at all sizes, who require additional workers. Yet, it is not a given that these employers will look to migration

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84. Kirstie Hewlett, Bobby Duffy, Rebecca Benson, Steve Ballinger, and Sunder Katwala. 2020. "Has COVID-19 reset the immigration debate?" Policy Institute, Kings College London, and British Future. London: Kings College London. https://doi.org/doi:10.18742/pub01-030

to plug these shortages. It is imperative that countries of origin and destination work with private and public employment agencies to identify employers who are willing to engage with the partnership and hire migrant workers, at least in the pilot phase.

Within countries of destination, it is quite often larger companies or multinational corporations that show the greatest interest in hiring migrants. Most of these companies have branches abroad and hire migrant staff. They may already have robust cultural awareness training and intra-company integration procedures in place to support migrant staff. They may be more likely to understand and trust the education and training and skills that migrant workers bring to company operations. However, larger companies often find it easier to recruit abroad directly rather than through a partnership. It is small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in both countries of origin and destination where skill shortages have the greatest impact on productivity and where the potential benefits from hiring a small number of migrant workers could be the largest. Yet, in countries of destination at least, SMEs rarely hire migrant workers and are more likely to mistrust the skills these workers would bring, or concerned about a potential cultural clash within their organizations.

To inspire trust across the board in these partnerships, it would be good to involve one or two larger companies during the pilot phase, prove the effect of the partnership on productivity and employer growth, and then use these testimonials to expand the partnership to SMEs, once the partnership enters scale.

Where Is There Political Will and Public Interest to Expand Migration?

There is broad public interest in expanding skilled migration opportunities within both countries of origin and countries of destination. Furthering this interest will require careful communication to the

Box 4. COVID-19 has highlighted labor shortages in key sectors

In many EU destination countries, migrants are key to recovery from the economic fallout of COVID-19. Faced with shrinking populations and labor shortages, these high-income countries need migrants to plug labor shortages in essential sectors. In sectors such as hospitality and tourism, demand for migrants may be subdued until global travel restrictions are fully lifted.

Lessons learned since the onset of the COVID-19 crisis in many high-income countries show that migrants already form a large share of essential worker categories across the skills spectrum. For example, in the United States, 30 percent of doctors and 27 percent of farm workers are foreign-born. In Australia, 53 percent of doctors and 35 percent of nurses are immigrants. In the EU, more than one in three domestic workers and one in five workers in the food processing industry are migrants.

To ensure ongoing migrant contributions during the critical recovery phase, some countries have already instituted immigration reforms. Portugal has granted all migrants and asylum-seekers citizenship rights. In the US, foreign-born health care workers have been given temporary work permits and skills recognition. Italy has instituted a process to regularize irregular migrants to enable recovery in critical sectors.

Source: Marta Foresti. 2020. "Less gratitude, please. How COVID-19 reveals the need for migration reform." May 22, 2020. https://www.brookings.edu/blog/future-development/2020/05/22/less-gratitude-please-how-covid-19-reveals-the-need-for-migration-reform/; and Overseas Development Institute (ODI). 2020. "Key workers: Migrants' contribution to the COVID-19 response." https://migrants-keyworkers-covid-19.odi.digital/

public about the structure of the partnership and the types of migrants being admitted under it.

Ascertaining political will is more difficult. Countries of origin may lack policy coherence on the links between migration and development. For example, ministries of finance may be interested in expanding migration opportunities to benefit from remittances and skill transfers. Ministries of health, on the other hand, may be concerned about brain drain and therefore unwilling to facilitate skilled migration. Countries of destination may face the same issues. Ministries of development or foreign affairs may see expanding legal migration as a way to enhance international relationships and cultivate economic development on both sides. Yet ministries of home affairs may be concerned about the security implications of new migration movements or be unwilling to extend new pathways to countries with historically high visa overstay rates.

The key to unlocking debates on both sides is to find champions within individual ministries who are enthusiastic about or even supportive of the idea. Build a constituency internally, before holding Chatham House rule workshops with a wide variety of stakeholders to discuss issues and concerns. It is often helpful for countries to build bridges between partner ministries to discuss the needs within the sector, the current training and curriculum design, and how it can be adapted. The takeaway from such discussions is that there is often political will and public interest to be found as long as the partnership can be designed and communicated in a way that appeals to entrenched interests.

Where Are There Specialized Training Requirements?

Implementing a Global Skill Partnership usually requires conducting some form of training within the country of origin. It adapts the local curriculum for employer needs both domestically and internationally. This way,

the training institution should be able to provide qualifications which are recognized in both markets.

Such an approach requires substantial financial and technical investment, as well as political desire to support internationally gained qualifications. It is therefore likely that such an approach will only be pursued within sectors where there is a genuine and widespread shortage, and where existing migration pathways do not exist. Most jobs in certain sectors such as agriculture and horticulture may not require specialized training. In addition, pathways such as Seasonal Agricultural Worker schemes already exist to support such movement. High-skill sectors are also unlikely to require such training investment and perhaps are better suited to mechanisms such as the proposed EU Talent Pool, whereby employers can recruit qualified migrant workers, or the EU Blue Card. As a result, mid-skill professions that require some level of training are likely to be the focus.

Finally, it will be imperative for political actors to consider how quick the "wins" need to be, within the context of the project. For example, in the long run, we could conceive of delivering a full three-year nursing qualification in a country of origin with both a "home" and "away" track. Yet this may not be possible within the context of a two- or three-year long pilot project, and longer projects may not be politically or financially feasible. If this is the case, it may be necessary to target skills which can be taught in a relatively short period of time (6-18 months). For example, the "away" track could target nurses who are already trained and equip them with country of destination specific skills; this would require less time than a full nursing degree.

Where Is There Potential for Remittances and Skill Transfer?

The Global Skill Partnership model was designed to ensure that the migration of skilled professionals has the maximum development benefit for their country of origin. In the model, this is done through transferring

training to the country of origin, thereby increasing the number of skilled professionals operating within the local labor force and improving the overall training and system architecture. It also is done by facilitating remittances and skill transfer.

Remittances are usually defined as transfers of money and goods from diaspora back to their countries of origin. In 2019, before COVID-19, remittances to low- and middle-income countries set a record $554 billion, overtaking foreign direct investment as the largest financial flow to these countries.[85] In some countries, remittances constitute a huge share of the overall GDP

Box 5. Female Engagement in Legal Migration Pathways

The last 30 years have seen two interesting trends in female migration. First, globally, the share of international migrants who are women is decreasing (in Nigeria, however, the share of international migrants who are female has increased from 42 percent in 1990 to 48 percent in 2020). Second, the skill level of women who do migrate is increasing. More and more, women are migrating for work, rather than for family reasons. Regardless of their skill level, however, women are still more likely to work within gendered professions such as caregiving, health care, teaching, and hospitality.

Besides the benefits to the migrants themselves and their countries of destination, this movement also has important impacts for their countries of origin. Women send approximately the same amount of remittances home as male migrants, yet women generally send a disproportionately higher share of their income.[1] These remittances are often spent on education, often for girls, and these flows also help balance female bargaining power within the households.[2] The impacts on countries of origin are

not all positive, with some questioning the impact of female migration on household stability and family networks.

Given these findings, it is unsurprising that many of the legal migration pathways that do exist are highly gendered. For example, the Australian Government's Pacific Labour Scheme's aged care trainees were 100 percent women, and its meat processing trainees were 100 percent men.[3]

This report analyzes migration in three sectors which traditionally have a range of gendered participation: health care (female), construction (male), and ICT (mixed). Implementing projects in all three will allow us to better understand the gendered impacts of opening new legal migration pathways. For example, some legal migration pathways have imposed quotas on their trainings (the PALIM project had a 30 percent quota for women) to try and incentivize female take-up, especially within traditionally male-dominated professions. It is hoped that such an approach will lead to more

1. Elke Holst, Andrea Schäfer, and Mechthild Schrooten. 2012. "Gender and Remittances: Evidence from Germany." *Feminist Economics* 18(2): 201-229. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13545701.2012.692478
2. Shelly Lundberg and Robert A. Pollack. 1996. "Bargaining and Distribution in Marriage." *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 10(4): 139-158. https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/jep.10.4.139
3. Stephen Howes and Holly Lawton. 2019. "The Pacific Labour Scheme: is it a flop?" DevPolicy Blog. July 29, 2019. https://devpolicy.org/the-pacific-labour-scheme-is-it-a-flop-20190729/

85. World Bank. 2020. "World Bank Predicts Sharpest Decline of Remittances in Recent History." World Bank Press Release April 22, 2020. https://www.world-bank.org/en/news/press-release/2020/04/22/world-bank-predicts-sharpest-decline-of-remittances-in-recent-history

of a country, for example, reaching 37.6 percent of GDP in Tonga.[86] While COVID-19 may cause these flows to decline in some corridors, they will still remain a substantial source of development investment for migrant origin countries in the years to come. In addition to these financial flows, migrants also transfer human capital such as language skills, shifted social and cultural norms, technical skills, and knowledge.

Maximizing the potential of these transfers is key to combatting brain drain. It is important to pick a sector which is sufficiently highly skilled to increase the potential of transfer home. It could also be useful to focus on increasing the share of women in male-dominated professions such as construction and engineering (see Box 5). Encouraging women to acquire these skills, and perhaps to employ them abroad, could lead to increased norm and knowledge transfers (though this remains to be proven).

Applying the Framework

Based on the five elements described above, health care, construction, and ICT emerge as suitable sectors for implementing a Global Skill Partnership between Nigeria and select European countries. All three professions have large skill shortages, both in Nigeria and Europe, with many employers (particularly SMEs) demanding qualified talent. As a result of this employer demand, there is widespread political will to expand migration to meet the scale of the issue. For example, the current UK government has pledged to expand the number of nurses by 2025, a goal that can only be met by increasing immigration. COVID-19 has created strong public support for both migrants working within the sector and expanding migration to meet the needs of the sector. Both construction and ICT have continued to thrive throughout COVID-19, and their demands have not been dampened by economic downturns.

In addition, all three sectors are sufficiently skilled to need specialized training requirements and to engender sizeable remittance and skill transfers. All three sectors require training programs that last between one and three years, with a combination of classroom-based and practical curricula. Promoting migration within these sectors would enable trainees from Nigeria to obtain higher incomes in Europe, thereby supporting their communities of origin. As a result, case studies for these sectors have been developed in sections 3-5.

A number of sectors that fit this framework have not been analyzed as part of this feasibility assessment, notably tourism and hospitality. Previous skill partnerships have attempted to address the demands within these sectors. For example, the APTC has a number of modules for these sectors, particularly supporting migration for hotel and resort staff during peak tourist season. Yet COVID-19 has reduced demand for jobs in these sectors. While, undoubtedly, demand will increase in the future, there is insufficient private sector confidence in the market to predict the skills that will be needed (and where they will be needed).

Finally, a word on agriculture. There are at least 15 seasonal agricultural migration programs in operation throughout the world, primarily to bring workers on temporary contracts to high-income countries of destination. These pathways do not, on the whole, require specialized training requirements or a minimum standard of skills. Hence, while they definitely match a number of the elements outlined above—notably skill shortages, employer demand, political will, and the potential for remittances—they fall short on requiring specialized training of candidates. This is not to say that migration partnerships are not needed within this sector, only that agriculture is not a good candidate for Global Skill Partnerships.

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86. Teuila Fuatai. 2020. "Pacific hurt by drop in money being sent home." April 28, 2020. Newsroom. https://www.newsroom.co.nz/pacific-hurt-by-drop-in-money-being-sent-home

Choosing Countries: A Framework

It is imperative that any new partnership has a strong and enduring focus on the labor market and social integration prospects of all participating actors. Part of this equation requires carefully selected willing employers, regions, and countries in the suitable sectors described above with whom to collaborate.

Implementing a Global Skill Partnership requires strong cooperation from multiple stakeholders in countries of origin and destination. Figure 15 ranks some of the elements that can help countries of origin, such as Nigeria, assess the feasibility of partnering with different destination countries to implement a Global Skill Partnership approach. Needless to say, these are not the only elements that should go into the decision-making process. However, prior assessment of some of these elements can help identify any gaps that need to be addressed through the Global Skill Partnership before such a model is implemented. The following five elements are ranked in order of most important to least important: similar labor shortages, foreign policy ties, strong labor laws, existing migratory pressure, and existing cultural linkages.

Which Countries Have Similar Labor Shortages?

For a Global Skill Partnership to be successful, it must be driven by labor market demand in both countries of origin and destination. An initial labor market assessment must be undertaken by both government and private sector actors in both countries to ascertain where shortages lie. This helps ensure that the trainees will emerge from the program with market-relevant skills and will be able to obtain positions within the domestic or international labor market. Ideally, within a Global Skill Partnership, countries would partner with other countries who have similar labor shortages within similar sectors.

It is not essential that the skills developed through the "home" and "away" track be exactly the same, though it would confer economies of scale if they were. For example, the Enabel-implemented PALIM project (see Box 21) is training JavaScript developers in both tracks, as that skill is in need in both Belgium and Morocco. Those who are on the "away" track, then receive additional training in language and cultural awareness, but the hard skills training is the same for both tracks. Yet a partnership can easily be developed with less overlap. For example, both Nigeria and the UK have shortages within the health care sector but, while the UK requires fully trained primary care nurses, Nigeria is in need of nurses in a range of categories. These two profiles require different levels of skills, delivered through different curricula over different periods of time. A Global Skill Partnership can still facilitate the training of both profiles through the dual track approach, ideally with some overlap early in the curriculum.

Another important area for consideration is existing linkages between the private sector and training providers in countries of origin and the private sector in countries of destination. For example, the International Vocational, Technical and Entrepreneurship College (IVTEC) in Kwara State in Nigeria is a nongovernmental educational institute that has partnership agreements with universities in Nigeria and abroad and can leverage those partnerships to train graduates in areas where similar skills shortages exist in countries of destination and origin.

Where Are There Existing Foreign Policy Ties?

Global Skill Partnerships are much easier to design and implement with countries that have good foreign policy ties. In the example of Nigeria, markers for good foreign policy ties include existing employment-based visa schemes that allow flow of workers from Nigeria to countries of destination, presence of bilateral embassies in countries of origin and destination, and volume of trade that the country of destination has with

Figure 15. A Framework for Choosing Countries for a Global Skill Partnership

1 — **Which countries have similar labor shortages?**
- Matching labor shortages
- Partnership between training providers and employers
- Employer Demand

2 — **Where are there existing foreign policy ties?**
- Existing visa schemes
- Strong inter-ministerial cooperation
- Links with worker unions

3 — **Which countries have strong labor laws?**
- Legal protection of migrants
- Strong grievance redress mechanisms

4 — **Where is there existing migration pressures?**
- Changing demographics
- Irregular migration

5 — **Where are there existing cultural linkages?**
- Easy language adaptation
- Similar social norms

Nigeria on a bilateral basis. For example, the recently formulated Joint Africa-EU Strategy has specific objectives to develop pathways for regular migration opportunities including for labor, entrepreneurs, students, and researchers.[87]

Apart from foreign policy ties, countries of destination that are strong candidates for Global Skill Partnerships are those that have strong inter-ministerial cooperation and ties with Nigeria, existing relationships with Nigerian worker associations and trade unions, and those that are actively supporting Nigeria through bilateral and multilateral agencies in the area of managing migration. For example, the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) supports the "Migration for Development" program in several countries of origin including Nigeria.[88]

Which Countries Have Strong Labor Laws?

The SDGs recognize the important role that migrants can play in the development process of both countries of origin and destination. SDG target 10.7 calls for States to "facilitate orderly, safe, and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies" within Goal 10 on reducing inequalities. Migrant rights is therefore the cornerstone for any labor mobility scheme, and a central issue to consider when selecting a suitable country of destination. Labor mobility schemes that do not protect migrant rights in countries of destination can lead to disastrous outcomes. This is evident in the abuse and exploitation that migrants have suffered in the oil-rich economies in the Persian Gulf.[89]

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87. African Union. "The Africa-EU Partnership." https://africa-eu-partnership.org/en/strategic-priority-areas/migration-and-mobility

88. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH. 2021. "Programme "Migration for Development"." Last updated January 2021. https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/62318.html

89. Pete Pattisson, Niamh McIntyre, Imran Mukhtar, Nikhil Eapen, Md Owasim Uddin Bhuyan, Udwab Bhattarai, and Aanya Piyari. 2021. "Revealed: 6,500 migrant workers have died in Qatar since World Cup Awarded." *The Guardian.* February 23, 2021. https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2021/feb/23/revealed-migrant-worker-deaths-qatar-fifa-world-cup-2022

This issue is already recognized in the migration management process in Nigeria. For example, the Federal Ministry of Labor and Employment in Nigeria suspended government facilitated international recruitment of Nigerian workers in early 2018 because of the maltreatment being meted out to Nigerian labor migrants in destination countries, particularly in the Gulf. Any BLAs/MoUs should carefully review labor laws in destination countries to see whether they apply to foreign nationals, and ensure that protection mechanisms exist for migrants to voice their grievances, both in destination countries as well as in countries of origin through respective embassies or labor attaches.

Where Is There Existing Migratory Pressure?

More than 40,000 Nigerians reached Italian shores in 2016 after crossing the Mediterranean Sea. Data on the stock of Nigerian migrants in countries of destination show that there is clear migratory pressure from Nigerians willing to employ their skills in Europe and North America. Global Skill Partnerships are one of several tools that policy makers have to regularize the irregular flow of migrants from Nigeria to countries of destination. It is therefore important to understand intended countries of destination for current irregular and aspiring migrants.

In 2017, EU countries carried out 189,545 returns of irregular migrants to third countries, of which 9,235 were to Sub-Saharan Africa.[90] About one-third of all the returnees to Sub-Saharan Africa came from Nigeria. Since 2000, Nigeria has signed several bilateral repatriation agreements with European countries such as the UK, Spain, and Ireland to facilitate the return and readmission of irregular migrants. Negotiating new legal migration pathways such as Global Skill Partnerships could help displace some of the current forms of irregular mobility, therefore reducing returns

and readmission rates. Whether or not to include such legal pathways within broader migration management agreements remains to be seen. On the one hand, it provides a meaningful benefit to countries of origin like Nigeria to agree to receive their own irregular migrants. On the other hand, it could put pressure on the existence of the legal pathway to fully reduce irregular migration, an outcome that should never be put before other the notable successes outlined above.

Where Are There Existing Cultural Linkages?

Similarities in languages spoken and presence of diaspora networks from Nigeria in countries of destination could be important markers for selecting potential destinations as these factors could make the pathways cheaper and easier to implement. However, compared to the first four factors, cultural similarities are not necessarily a "must-have" in assessing partnerships. One area where cultural similarities can facilitate partnership is in providing language training to aspiring migrants, as the length of the training is determined by the time required for aspiring migrants to become proficient in languages spoken in countries of destination. For example, since the most widely spoken international language in Nigeria is English, potential destination countries with English as the main language spoken in the workplace or where languages spoken are closely related to English (such as German or Dutch) could be more suitable for Global Skill Partnerships.

Another factor for consideration is whether potential employers in countries of destination already operate in countries of origin and are familiar with the sociocultural landscape of potential migrants. Diaspora groups from countries of origin can support the cultural awareness training of those on the "away" track, support them once they arrive within the country of destination, and help facilitate increased remittances and skill transfer to

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90. Jonathan Slagter. 2019. "An "Informal" Turn in the European Union's Migrant Returns Policy towards Sub-Saharan Africa." January 10, 2019. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute (MPI). https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/eu-migrant-returns-policy-towards-Sub-Saharan-africa

magnify the development impact. If the pathway is temporary, they could also help facilitate sustainable and meaningful returns and reintegration.

Applying the Framework

Based on the elements described above, the UK and Germany emerge as suitable countries of destination for implementing Global Skill Partnerships pilots with Nigeria. Both countries have strong foreign policy ties with Nigeria and existing employment-related visa schemes for movement of both skilled and unskilled visa categories. They have a strong presence of Nigerian diaspora networks; the number of Nigerians in the UK increased by four times between 1990 and 2019 and doubled in Germany within the same time-period. These destination countries also fulfill the language criteria with English being spoken in the UK and used widely in professional settings in Germany. Two other destination markets are also considered for an ICT partnership—Belgium and Lithuania—given the presence of existing ICT migration pathways with Africa.

Besides these, there are several other countries of destination that satisfy some but not all of the five criteria. For example, while the number of Nigerians in Italy has increased substantially over the last two decades, most Nigerians in Italy work in low-paying farm jobs and Italy does not have existing visa schemes for Nigerians employed in the agricultural sector. English is also far less prevalent in workplace settings in Italy. The Netherlands, the United States, and Canada all see large Nigerian migration flows, predominantly those that are high-skilled. Yet there are fewer cultural linkages and less political imperative in these countries at present to create visa structures to facilitate large-scale African migration.

Implementation of a Global Skill Partnership

By following the frameworks for choosing sectors and countries, it is hoped that both countries of origin and destination can get a good sense of the types of sectors and countries that will lend themselves well to Global Skill Partnerships. This section aims to provide lessons learned from similar projects on how to move from a scoping exercise to implementation, evaluation, and scale. Given the pilot nature of many of the interventions in this space, there are relatively few pieces of guidance which new countries can follow. It is recommended that countries interested in such partnerships consult with those countries that have attempted something similar and also get in touch with institutions such as MPF, IOM, and ILO for guidance.

Risks and Mitigation Measures

Global Skill Partnerships are inherently complex. They require precise tailoring to specific contexts, and the involvement of a wide variety of stakeholders. It is important to identify all potential risks with such an approach, and implement concrete mitigation measures. Table 4 outlines a list of risks and mitigation measures that have been identified in previous pilot projects. This list is by no means exhaustive and future pilots will undoubtedly uncover other risks and mitigation measures.

Table 4. Common risks and potential mitigation measures in implementing Global Skill Partnerships

Risk	Mitigation Measure
Unions/internal lobbying threaten the establishment of the project	Many sectors experiencing significant skill shortages are in this position due to their wages and working conditions being insufficient to attract local workers. Unions for these sectors are therefore, rightly, pushing for improvements in these areas to make the sectors more attractive. They may see expanded migration within the sector as a way for employers to avoid responsibility for improving wages and working conditions and may see migrants as a threat to job opportunities for local workers. These concerns are valid and resonate with a number of migrant-dominated sectors, especially agriculture and horticulture. Unions should be involved from the very start of the project for two reasons: first, they can ensure that migration is not being used to substitute for sector improvements and can ensure that both interventions are being conducted in tandem; and second, they can advocate for migrant rights throughout the process, ensuring that migrants are able to uphold the terms and conditions of their contracts and that they are integrating well into local economies.
The nature of work within mid-skill sectors makes them unattractive	In both countries of origin and destination, professions that require TVET training can have a low reputation.* This can make it difficult to ensure that governments put resources toward improving access to TVET training and the training itself. It can also make it difficult to attract trainees— why would parents encourage their children to undertake TVET training when they could pursue a more "professional" path. Here, the opportunity to access a mobility pathway could help. Evidence from the Philippines shows that making migration a possibility can induce more people to invest in that skill, even if they aren't able to access the migration pathway. In addition, ensuring that employers in both countries are committed to employing trainees from the start of the program can enhance the attractiveness of roles. People are likely to be more interested in investing in a skill if there is a promise of a job offer at the other end, whether in their country of origin or destination.
The language skills of the trainees will be insufficient	The easiest way to approach this issue is to partner with a country which conducts their education and training in the same language. If this is not possible, some level of language training will be required. The private sector must instruct the government partners as to what level of language is required to ensure the worker is able to contribute fully and integrate within the work and home environment. The project should then engage language trainers (either in person or remotely) to design a concurrent language curriculum for those entering the "away" track.
There is a skill mismatch between supply and demand	The Global Skill Partnership model is inherently flexible. While it can encourage economies of scale and train for exactly the same skills in both countries, this is not a requirement. It is important to ensure that the training is serving the needs of the labor markets on both sides, a feat which requires the close involvement of the private sector. In addition, the training will need to adapt over time. For sectors such as ICT, where skill requirements change frequently, the curriculum may need to shift even mid-training. For other sectors such as health care, where skill requirements are relatively constant, the curriculum will still need to be adapted frequently to keep pace with shifting requirements within the profession. It also needs to respond to the changing nature of demand overall and have an exit strategy in place if the profession is no longer in demand (say, for example, shifting to purely training for local country of origin markets). As a result, any implementation must inherently be long-term, and plan for a multiyear commitment.
Trainees in the "away" track do not fully integrate	A lack of trainee integration threatens not only the future success of the project (a negative feedback loop could occur if trainees tell future participants of their experiences, while employers would be unlikely to participate again) but also undermines faith in managed migration policy overall. The project should engage cultural awareness trainers, who could also be the same organizations that deliver integration training to newly arrived refugees and asylum seekers. This training should be delivered to those on the "away" track towards the end of their formal training. In addition, as described above, it is recommended that the project operate with employers in areas with sizable diaspora and that local diaspora organizations are engaged to help facilitate integration. Finally, the project must include a robust period of check-ins with both trainees and employers to identify issues as they arise. Such feedback must be baked into the evaluation of the project as a success criteria.

Table 4. Common risks and potential mitigation measures in implementing Global Skill Partnerships cont.

Risk	Mitigation Measure
Stakeholders are not adequately identified/consulted, leading to friction	The Global Skill Partnership model needs to involve the following actors in both countries of origin and destination: public and private employment agencies, employers, government ministries (foreign affairs, interior, development, labor, and sector-specific), state-level authorities, diaspora organizations, integration agencies, migration agencies and authorities, trade unions, migrant rights associations, and researchers and academics. A detailed stakeholder map should be created at the start of the partnership and all parties brought together singularly and together to discuss the project in depth. The private sector, ideally specific companies, should be brought in from day one. Such consultations are time-consuming but are required to build trust and investment in the project.
Insufficient funds to pilot and/or scale	Today, there are numerous funding instruments that are able to support the piloting of such projects, including ICMPD's EU-funded Mobility Partnerships Facility (MPF), as well as Official Development Assistance (ODA) budgets and multilaterals like the World Bank and IOM. Yet, for the time being, many of these funding sources are unsustainable and essentially mean the private sector is receiving qualified workers for free. The project should develop a financing analysis to explore the best options for both the pilot and scale phases and explore how to move to a more sustainable financing model.
A lack of political will	Lack of political will can be the biggest reason why a project does not get off the ground in the first place, but changing political demands can also threaten the establishment and scalability of projects in the long-term. All government stakeholders need to be regularly consulted and engaged in the design and implementation of the project, so that any issues are identified early. It can also be helpful to prepare a communications plan including ways in which to describe and "sell" the project to internal government stakeholders who may be less familiar with the project.
Security concerns threaten the establishment and scalability of projects	Some government ministries, particularly home or internal affairs departments in countries of destination, are understandably concerned about the security implications of opening new legal labor immigration pathways. This may be a particular concern when partnering with countries which already have high visa overstay rates and rates of return (whether voluntary or forced). A further complicating factor is COVID-19, and concerns about health security. It will be necessary to build in screening protocols, ensuring countries of destination have access to the backgrounds of those seeking visas so that they can be aware of any security threats. In addition, health screening protocols may be required, including vaccinations and health passports. Ultimately, though, this is a communications challenge as much a practical one. Global Skill Partnerships are a way to manage migration, ensuring countries of destination are bringing in precise workers with precise skills. This narrative can help allay security concerns.
The program does not lead to the expected economic benefits	Evidence shows us that better connecting training to local and international labor markets will increase the earning potential of trainees, thereby improving remittances and livelihoods at home and abroad. In addition, the presence of significant skill shortages has been reported as one of the major impediments to employer productivity and growth. As such, one would expect that a project like the Global Skill Partnership would help employers meet these shortages and therefore expand. That being said, neither of these impacts are a given. Even if these benefits do arise, they also may not be enough to offset the significant cost that accompanies these partnerships (at least in the pilot phase). Therefore the model should be equipped with an in-depth evaluation to ascertain the precise impact of the intervention and shift the implementation as necessary.
The program has no impact on irregular migration flows	Given increasing irregular migration between countries of origin and destination (especially Sub-Saharan Africa to Europe) it is reasonable that countries on both sides would expect to see a Global Skill Partnership reduce irregular migration along the corridor. There is very little evidence about the displacement effect of new labor pathways, but the research we do have indicates that extended legal migration pathways are necessary but not sufficient to curb irregular migration flows.** New pathways, especially in pilot phase, can provided opportunities to people who may otherwise seek to move irregularly. But they are unlikely to be able to absorb all emigration pressure, and as such should not be expected to make a meaningful impact on irregular migration, at least in the short term.

Table 4. Common risks and potential mitigation measures in implementing Global Skill Partnerships cont.

Risk	Mitigation Measure
Parties suffer from a lack of capacity to implement the project	Implementing a Global Skill Partnership requires a certain level of institutional capacity. Government departments must have the ability to be able to conduct skills assessments and develop government-to-government agreements, while coordinating among themselves on the best way to use migration to promote economic development. Public and private employment agencies must exist, and must have strong links with and an understanding of the needs of the private sector. Training and education institutions (as well as the trainers themselves) need to be equipped to deliver an increase in training. And a number of other civil society organizations need to be able to monitor and evaluate the project to ensure safeguards are in place. These requirements are vast, especially for some countries of origin. It is therefore crucial to partner with countries that have some of this capacity available and can build such capacity over time.
No employers are interested in the project	Given the significant skill shortages inherent within the sectors where Global Skill Partnerships are being encouraged, it is unlikely that there will be little take-up of the project. Yet, as described above, it may be difficult for SMEs to trust the quality and integration potential of foreign workers, especially if they are not used to hiring internationally. Therefore it may be useful to ensure the project has one or two larger employers signed on from day one, and have them advertise the potential benefits from the project to other smaller employers. As the project enlarges, those smaller firms may be more interested in coming on board. As ever, it is useful to evaluate the impact on firms and use this data to persuade others to join.

* Paolo Abarcar and Caroline Theoharides. 2020. "Medical Worker Migration and Origin-Country Human Capital: Evidence from U.S. Visa Policy." Amherst College Draft Working Paper July 2020. https://www.amherst.edu/system/files/Abarcar_Theoharides_2020_July_FINAL.pdf

** Michael Clemens and Kate Gough. 2018. "Can Regular Migration Channels Reduce Irregular Migration? Lessons for Europe from the United States." Center for Global Development (CGD) Brief. February 14, 2018. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/can-regular-migration-channels-reduce-irregular-migration-lessons-europe-united-states

Funding

Implementing a Global Skill Partnership requires understanding the different categories of costs that are required and an exploration of the different ways to cover these costs. Since the extent of these costs will depend on the countries and sectors in which the Partnership is being implemented, it is difficult to provide average figures. However, these five groups of costs need to be factored into project proposals.

1. **Training costs**. Once a new curriculum has been designed, it needs to be delivered. This may require building new training facilities or adding on to existing training facilities. Trainers will need to be procured and supported in delivering the new curriculum. Equipment will need to be purchased at sufficient levels to support all trainees. The running costs of any training facilities will need to be factored in and scaled as the project shifts. Crucially this cost needs to include the delivery of both hard and soft skills (including language and cultural awareness support). The extent of this cost will of course depend on the nature of the training (e.g. health care requires much more equipment than ICT), the length of the training (e.g. a two-year diploma versus a six-month certificate), and the structure of the training (e.g. classroom, online, or on-the-job based).

2. **Staffing costs**. Global Skill Partnerships require a large amount of set-up investment. It is likely that specific staff members will need to be hired to manage the project, in both countries of origin and destination, and existing staff members will need to be compensated for their time. These staff members will need to be on-boarded, trained, and provided with requisite wages and benefits.

3. **Migration costs**. For those trainees who have completed the "away" track, there will need to be a budget to support the costs of migration including certificate recognition fees, visa fees, and airfares. Some projects include these costs within the broader budget, while others (for example, APTC) require migrants to cover these costs themselves through loans provided by their eventual employers.

4. **Living costs**. Once workers have completed their training and are offered opportunities within companies in countries of origin and destination they will need to be provided with requisite wages and benefits. These wages should be borne by the companies in question. Some projects include some initial costs to support integration such as housing, food, and living expenses (at least until wages come through).

5. **Returns and reintegration costs**. If the pathway is temporary (even if this means the trainees are provided with one- or even three-year visas) there will need to be a budget to support the return and reintegration of these people. This could cover the same costs as outlined above: certification recognition, airfare, and initial housing or set-up costs, while also including institutional fees to support those workers in finding employment in their countries of origin.

There are many different ways in which such costs could be covered. CGD recently conducted a review of all legal labor immigration pathways in the world and found over 60 current and completed partnerships.[91] These partnerships employed a range of different funding mechanisms. Some were solely covered through ODA, normally executed by country of destination development departments. Others were funded or supported by international organizations such as the World Bank or IOM; multilateral institutions such as the EU; and the private sector, impact investors, or even the migrants themselves. All of these approaches have positive and negative impacts, and there is no one "right way" to fund a Global Skill Partnership. It is crucial to understand the incentives of potential funders, and to ensure that either the funding is sustainable and scalable, or that the project has a plan for how to achieve this type of funding for a scaled pilot in the future.

One way to do this is to employ a different funding structure at pilot phase and at scale. For example, at scale, it may be preferable for the public or private sector employers in countries of destination who will benefit from new skilled labor to finance the cost of the training of workers on the "away" track and their migration expenses. Some of these costs, for example, accommodation and subsistence, could be covered through a loan scheme which is recouped through a migrant's eventual earnings, or a scholarship/sponsorship scheme. Overseas development assistance or other forms of international financing could then be used to support the training of workers on the "home" track. This could overlap with or supplement the already substantial investments that countries of destination put into both education and TVET programs in many partner countries of origin. "Such a financing scheme requires contracts spelling out the obligations of each party, reliable payment systems, secure records, and a mutually-agreed division of the financial burden of training subsidies, among other elements."[92]

Developing such a complex funding model at the pilot stage could be difficult given the incentives involved. Public or private sector employers may not trust the quality of the training and the skills of the trainees. They may not be used to hiring internationally or may not have developed the systems to adequately integrate culturally diverse employees. As a result, it could be difficult to get the financial buy-in of employers from day one. Hence, many of the existing Global Skill Partnership pilots have relied solely on development assistance or international organization financing during these initial stages. They hope to build a proof of concept and slowly transition some of the financial responsibility to the private sector. For example, as can be seen in Box 6, now that a partnership between Germany and Morocco has been proven of value to participating employers, the German Development Agency and the World Bank are looking to transition

91. See https://www.cgdev.org/gsp
92. Michael A. Clemens. 2015. "Global Skill Partnerships: a proposal for technical training in a mobile world." *IZA Journal of Labor Policy* 4(2). https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s40173-014-0028-z

some financial responsibility for the second phase of the project.

Evaluation

Finally, it is imperative that the project is accompanied by a robust evaluation to test the assumptions inherent within the project and provide evidence as to why the design should or should not shift as the project moves to scale. This evaluation could be undertaken in-house (e.g. by the country of destination development ministry) or externally (e.g. by contracting a consultant or evaluation agency in the country of origin or destination). Crucially, data collection should occur in four distinct phases:

- **Before the training starts**. To be able to quantify the impact of the project to trainees and employers, it is useful to gather some form of benchmark from which to start. A questionnaire should be developed which gathers basic information from both participants and employers. For the former, this questionnaire should detail their demographic and socio-economic profile, their professional experience (at home and abroad), their language proficiency, and their expectations for the program. For the latter, this questionnaire should detail the impact of skill shortages on their business, their experience in recruiting abroad or with foreign workers, and their expectations for the program. Crucially, the results of these two questionnaires should be benchmarked against two control groups. The trainee control group could be made up of people who applied for the training but were not selected, and the employer control group could be made up of companies who were interested in the program but did not elect to receive a trainee in the plot phase.
- **At the end of the training/before migration**. The same trainees and employers should be surveyed on their experience with the selection process, training (in both hard and soft skills), recruitment, employment situation, and economic situation. Those in the "away" track should be surveyed on their experience with pre-departure training, migration, and initial integration. The results from these surveys should be benchmarked against the economic situation of those in the control group. Were those who applied for the training able to find roles (either at home or abroad) regardless? And were those companies who requested workers able to find workers regardless? How did they meet their labor demand?
- **At the end of the project**. Again, all participants should be surveyed on their employment and economic outlook, as well as their satisfaction with the program. The trainees in the "away" track should be surveyed on their experience with return and reintegration (if applicable), especially their ability to be plugged back into the local labor market.
- **Sometime after the end of the project**. This is the element of evaluation that is often missed yet is crucial to understanding the success of the project. For trainees in the "away" track it is necessary to understand how well they are integrating into their workplaces and societies. This may showcase the need to invest more heavily in post-departure support or language training. For trainees in the "home" track, the evaluation may show that these trainees were unable to source meaningful employment opportunities so were seeking to move abroad regardless, which may signify that more institutional support is needed. And finally, most important, a follow-up evaluation will show the long-term impacts of the program on employers. The New Zealand Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) scheme conducts employer evaluations every year and is able to show what percentage of employers expanded due to the scheme and/or were able to hire more New Zealanders.[93] Such evidence is crucial to getting new employers on board and expanding the project.

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93. New Zealand Immigration. "Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) scheme research." https://www.immigration.govt.nz/about-us/research-and-statistics/research-reports/recognised-seasonal-employer-rse-scheme

The precise impacts of a Global Skill Partnership are potentially wide reaching. The evaluation should seek to gather data on as many of the following potential impacts as possible:

- **Increased earnings**. Evidence suggests that by better aligning skills training with employer demand, trainees in both tracks should be able to access higher earning potential and therefore better socio-economic livelihoods.
- **Expanded businesses**. If skills shortages are a barrier to productivity and expansion, plugging these gaps should allow employers to invest in new technologies and products, expand into new business lines, and hire more local workers in middle management positions.
- **Increased remittances**. Those in the "away" track should have access to a higher level of earnings, and evidence suggests they are likely to remit a large share of that money back to their origin communities. Such transfers can be substantial and have a huge impact on economic development.[94]
- **Increased skill transfers**. While remittances capture the financial flows that often occur within migration pathways, it is also useful to look more broadly at skill, information, and norm transfers, especially from those in the "away" track to their home communities. Measuring these transfers is inherently difficult but is an essential element of the project that must be captured.
- **Shifted gender norms**. Projects should include a quota for women, a policy even more important in traditionally male-dominated professions like construction and engineering. The impact of such quotas should be studied, especially regarding norm transfers from those on the "away" track and

the future investment decisions of parents when facilitating girls' access to education and training.

- **Increased TVET participation**. Many TVET programs struggle to see high levels of enrolment. Offering migration opportunities to some trainees should increase the number of people undertaking these programs.
- **Improved systems**. Global Skill Partnerships are not just about increasing the supply of workers available within a given sector. They are also about channeling development investment to areas where it is most needed. Creating benchmarks to assess systems strengthening is imperative.
- **Increased focus on migration innovation**. There is often an assumption that progress within migration policy is too difficult, and that problems such as attracting skilled third country workers in a managed way are intractable. Any evaluation should attempt to qualitatively show that the pilot enabled stakeholders both in the partnership countries and beyond to think more innovatively about linking migration, education, and development.

Role of the World Bank

As highlighted earlier, the World Bank aims to support the Government of Nigeria and other governments around the world in their objectives to equip youth with market-relevant skills at all levels and to create pathways to employment, both domestically as well as in international labor markets. In doing so, the World Bank can bring in three distinct advantages it possesses to help expand legal pathways between countries or origin and destination that promote mutual development interest for all parties involved.

The first advantage is leveraging the immense knowledge generation potential that the World Bank possesses. As Global Skill Partnerships and other labor

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94. John Gibson and David McKenzie. 2010. "The development impact of a best practice seasonal worker policy: New Zealand's Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme." University of Waikato Department of Economics Working Paper Series number 10/08. Hamilton: University of Waikato. https://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/handle/10289/4944

migration partnerships are best implemented within specific sectors and context suitable to the parties involved, the World Bank can carry out foundational analysis to understand the full range of possibilities. For example, in Afghanistan, the World Bank carried out analytical work in 2018 to highlight that Afghani migration is essentially informal, mostly unskilled and often illiterate, and absorbed by neighboring countries Iran and Pakistan. As a result Afghan labor migrants typically hold precarious jobs, earn low wages that limit remittances back home, and have limited possibilities to develop new skills when abroad.[95] Similarly, in 2017, the World Bank carried out analytical work, including through substantial stakeholder consultations, to highlight that ASEAN countries would improve workers' welfare (by 14 percent if only targeting high-skilled workers, and by 29 percent if including all workers) by reducing barriers to labor mobility within the region, and provided country-specific policy recommendations for each of the countries in the region to implement reforms that would support prospective, current, and returning migrants.[96] Within the scope of the Global Skill Partnerships, the World Bank can play a leading role in collecting, analyzing, and forecasting data on skills shortages faced by countries of destination and origin in an effort to highlight where targeted training of workers can help close the skills gap through international labor intermediation and partnerships.

The second distinct advantage that the World Bank brings to the table is the ability to support capacity-building activities to improve migration systems in countries of origin. For example, the Skills and Employment for Tongans (SET) project is a $18.5 million grant from the World Bank to the Government of Tonga that aims to ensure TVET courses are improved to help students build skills to make them more employable, not only in Tonga, but also through the Australian or New Zealand employment programs.[97] In Bangladesh, the World Bank worked together with the NGO BRAC to design the Safe Migration for Bangladeshi Workers (SMBW) project that provided aspiring migrant workers and their families pre-departure and safe migration information through awareness workshops in courtyards and schools, infotainment, and community radios. Implemented between 2013 and 2017, the project reached more than 1 million migrant families and supported pre-decision and pre-departure orientation and training for more than 30,000 aspiring migrants.[98]

The third distinct advantage that the World Bank possesses is its convening power and ability to play the role of an interlocutor, especially where coordination failures, similar to the ones described in earlier sections, arise. While countries of destination and origin may be interested in developing mutually beneficial partnerships on labor migration, they might want to see "proof of concept" or some amount of groundwork already laid for such partnerships to foster and mitigating mechanisms clearly developed for some of the risks inherent in the process. The World Bank is uniquely positioned to work on financing and evaluating pilots on migration partnerships because of multi-country, multi-sector engagements as well as its global experiences conducting policy dialog around several relevant issues such as transnational recruitment systems, public and private intermediation services, safe migration and workers' rights, and skills training and

95. Robert Holzmann.2018. "Managed labor migration in Afghanistan: exploring employment and growth opportunities for Afghanistan (English)." Washington, DC: World Bank Group. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/746891516915310370/Managed-labor-migration-in-Afghanistan-exploring-employment-and-growth-opportunities-for-Afghanistan
96. Mauro Testaverde, Harry Moroz, Claire H Hollweg and Achim Schmillen. 2017. "Migrating to Opportunity: Overcoming Barriers to Labor Mobility in Southeast Asia." Washington, DC: World Bank. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/28342
97. World Bank. 2018. "New pathways, new opportunities: skills and employment project kicks off in Tonga." https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2018/11/21/skills-and-employment-project-kicks-off-in-tonga
98. World Bank. 2017. "In Bangladesh, Migrant Workers Can Dream of a Better Life with Access to Better Resources." https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2017/07/30/in-bangladesh-migrant-workers-can-dream-of-a-better-life-with-access-to-better-resources

recognition. For example, Box 6 highlights one such specific example where the World Bank, in coordination with participating stakeholders from countries of origin and destination, is funding a pilot in Morocco that aims to strengthen the institutional capacity of its public employment agency to enable better preparation and placement of Moroccan youth for overseas jobs placement in Germany that also meets the destination labor market needs through the Access to Overseas Employment project.

Box 6. World Bank: Accessing Overseas Employment Opportunities for Moroccan Youth

In 2015, the governments of Germany and Morocco along with the World Bank designed a bilateral agreement to facilitate the migration of Moroccan youth to Germany. The project was specifically designed to fill labor shortages in Germany's tourism industry, a sector which was picked following extensive consultations with the German Federal Employment Agency and the German Development Agency (GIZ). The primary goal was to build the capacity of Morocco's public employment agency, ANAPEC, to help facilitate migration and match trainees with employers. The World Bank took on the responsibility of funding ANAPEC to shortlist candidates, bringing German employers to Morocco for interviews, and funding a part of the trainees' stipend once in Germany.

Initially, a pool of 100 young Moroccans looking to work in the tourism sector were identified. They were provided with six months of basic pre-departure training including language classes, before being placed with 48 German employers for a three-year apprenticeship. One year later, all trainees were still with their employers and had become valued employees. The visa they were holding allowed them to eventually access permanent residency and citizenship, thereby aiding integration.

News of the program spread to other German employers who then sought to engage with the program, thereby also growing the potential scope. The next phase of the project aims to move six months of the three-year apprenticeship training to Morocco, thereby creating a Global Skill Partnership. Eventually, the aim is to shift financial responsibility to the German employers.

This project neatly demonstrates the value of the World Bank, or even other international organizations, to the design and implementation of Global Skill Partnerships. By providing initial seed funding, the World Bank was able to provide extensive language and soft skills training, and some integration support upon arrival for trainees, as well as within the participating Member States and the EU itself. It has delivered a proof of concept, which has paved the way for other EU labor mobility projects. Since the project focused on building both capacity within the Moroccan public employment agency and jobs and skills for Moroccans, it helped ANAPEC develop skills and experience the agency has used to successfully develop new pathways. This catalyst role, even beyond the direct benefits to the trainees and employers, should not be underestimated.

Source: World Bank, "Accessing Overseas Employment Opportunities for Moroccan Youth Project". Documentation available at: https://projects. worldbank.org/en/projects-operations/document-detail/P150064?type=projects

Section 3:
Case Study.
A Global Skill Partnership in nursing between Nigeria and the United Kingdom (UK)

By 2030, the world will require an additional 15 million nurses if it is to reach universal health coverage (UHC). These shortages are felt globally, with both Nigeria and the UK suffering from a shortage of skilled personnel. Neither produce nor employ the number of nurses required within their public and private institutions, and both have specific needs. The following section outlines a Global Skill Partnership between Nigeria and the UK within nursing, including an overview of the training and migration landscape in both countries, the specific design of such a partnership, and risks and mitigation measures.

Developing a Health Care Migration Partnership

Globally, the world needs more health workers. A Global Burden of Disease Study in 2017 found that "only half of all countries had the health care workers required to deliver quality health care", critical to achieving universal health coverage (UHC).[99] These shortages are universal, but not universally distributed. For example, the World Health Organization (WHO) has shown that the African region experiences 24 percent of the disease burden but has only 3 percent of the world's health workforce. Within countries, shortages are most acute within rural areas due to issues with worker recruitment and retention, as well as infrastructure deficits.[100]

Achieving UHC by 2030 will require 80 million health workers globally, double the number of health workers that existed in 2013. Currently, we are on track to produce 65 million health workers, leaving a shortage of 15 million.[101] These shortages are likely to be highest among upper middle-income countries, driven by economic and population growth, as well as aging demographics. Despite the need for increased health coverage in low-income countries, both the demand for and supply of health workers is projected to remain low. This could lead to a paradoxical situation whereby health workers are trained but unable to be employed within the current labor market.

The WHO defines "health workers" as all people who are engaged in actions whose primary intent is to enhance health. Therefore, it includes doctors, nurses, and midwives, along with hospital administrative and support staff. These professions all require different levels of qualifications and skills, and therefore different training architectures. In this report, we will primarily focus on nurses. Nursing is the largest occupational group in the health sector (59 percent); in 2018, there was a shortage of 5.9 million nurses worldwide, with 89 percent of the shortage in low- and middle-income countries (Figure 16).[102]

Health Worker Migration

The international migration of health workers is increasing, with a 60 percent rise in the number of migrant doctors and nurses working in OECD countries over the last decade.[103] Today, for example, one in every eight nurses practice outside the country where they were born or trained, which translates into 3.7 million people.[104] While most migration takes place

99. The Lancet. 2018. "GBD 2017: a fragile world." *The Lancet* 392(10159): 1683. November 10, 2018. https://www.thelancet.com/action/showPdf?pii=S0140-6736%2818%2932858-7

100. Onyema Ajuebor, Mathieu Boniol, Michelle McIsaac, Chukwuemeka Onyedike, and Elie A. Akl. 2020. "Increasing access to health workers in rural and remote areas: what do stakeholders' value and find feasible and acceptable?" *Human Resources for Health* 18(77). https://human-resources-health.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12960-020-00519-2

101. Jenny X. Liu, Yevgeniy Goryakin, Akiko Maeda, Tim Bruckner, and Richard Scheffler. 2017. "Global Health Workforce Labor Market Projections for 2030." *Human Resources for Health* 15(11). https://human-resources-health.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12960-017-0187-2

102. World Health Organization (WHO) 2020. "State of the World's Nursing Report -2020." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/publications-detail-redirect/9789240003279

103. World Health Organization (WHO) "Health workforce – Migration." https://www.who.int/hrh/migration/en/

104. World Health Organization (WHO). 2020. "State of the World's Nursing Report -2020." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/publications-detail-redirect/9789240003279

Figure 16. The density of nursing personnel in the world is highly uneven
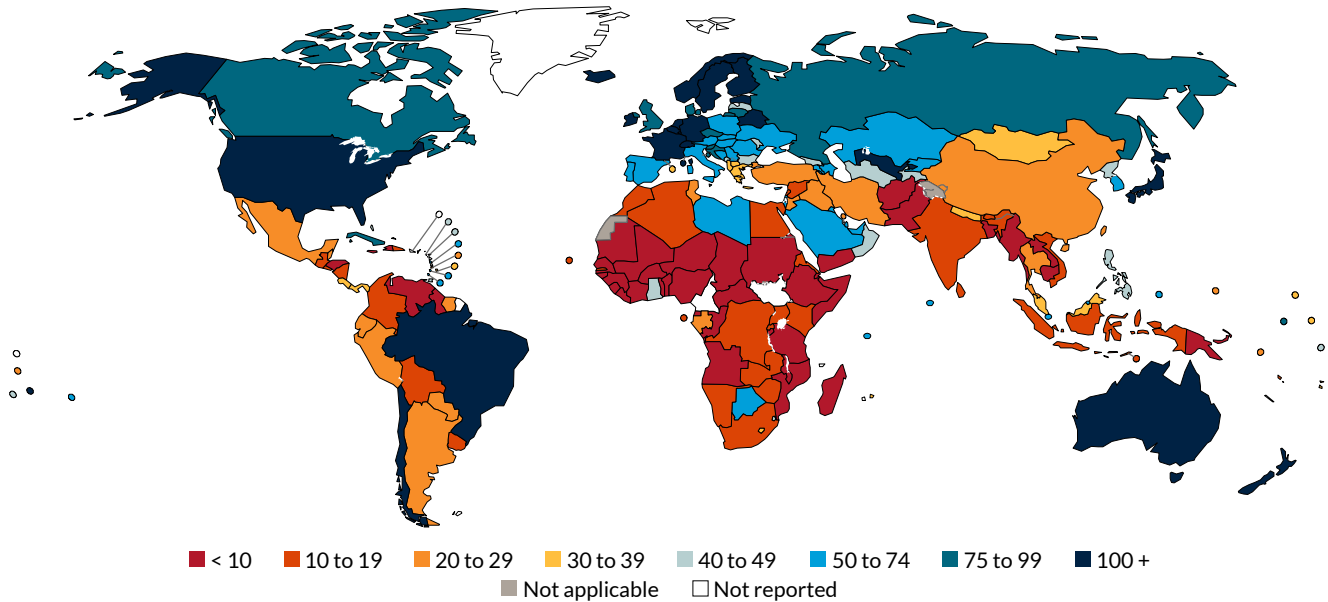
Legend: < 10 | 10 to 19 | 20 to 29 | 30 to 39 | 40 to 49 | 50 to 74 | 75 to 99 | 100 + | Not applicable | Not reported

Source: World Health Organization (WHO) 2020. "State of the World's Nursing Report -2020." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/publications-detail-redirect/9789240003279

from low- to high-income countries, there are emerging patterns of South-South migration as well. Such trends deplete low- and middle-income countries of their already meagre health workforces and contribute to a perception of brain drain.

Why do health workers move? Research has shown that while economic factors (e.g. higher potential earnings) are important, so too are institutional factors (e.g. declining health services, lack of equipment and support), professional factors (e.g. upgrading professional qualifications and skills), and political reasons (e.g. crime and political violence).[105] For example,

Awases et al (2004) find that many African health professionals are dissatisfied, suffering from delayed salaries and promotions, a lack of recognition, and an inability to afford the basic necessities of life.[106] These issues are even more pronounced in rural areas. Governments find it difficult to translate public spending into effective services, even when such funding is available. Many countries (especially their public systems) are unable to employ newly qualified workers, even if such workers are required, creating emigration pressure and dissatisfaction. A range of potential policy options have been posited and these will be explored further in this section.[107]

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105. A good summary can be found in James Buchan, Tina Parkin, and Julie Sochalski. 2003. "International nurse mobility: Trends and policy implications." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/68061/WHO_EIP_OSD_2003.3.pdf

106. Magda Awases, Akpa R. Gbary, Jennifer Nyoni, and Rufaro Chatora. 2004. "Migration of Health Professionals in Six Countries: A Synthesis Report." Johannesburg: World Health Organization (WHO) Regional Office for Africa. https://www.afro.who.int/publications/migration-health-professionals-six-countries-synthesis-report

107. For example, raising wages and working conditions, providing fully or partially subsidized housing, providing pension plans and health insurance, ensuring good transport options, providing access to good schooling for health workers' children, improving / providing infrastructure and equipment, and providing job security and career advancement opportunities. The best results, argue the World Health Organization (WHO), are those that bundle contextually relevant recommendations. For more information, please see Gloria Pallares. 2020. "Financial incentives for frontline health workers." Devex. October 30, 2020. https://www.devex.com/news/financial-incentives-for-frontline-health-workers-98447; and World Health Organization (WHO) 2010. "Increasing access to health workers in remote and rural areas through improved retention: Global policy recommendations." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/hrh/retention/guidelines/en/

Box 7. Germany's Triple Win

Since 2013, Germany's Triple Win project has aimed to place qualified health professionals from third countries with German clinics, hospitals, and old people's homes. The project is being implemented by the International Placement Services (ZAV) of the Federal Employment Agency and the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) and is aimed at people from Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Philippines, and Tunisia. These countries were selected as they have a surplus of well-trained nurses, thereby avoiding issues of brain drain.[1]

Jointly, ZAV and GIZ select applicants and pass on their details to the care facilities. Applicants must have already undertaken a three-year nursing training qualification. Before leaving, successful applicants are given German language training and cultural awareness and integration support. Nurses are initially granted a one-year residence permit which can be extended and translated into permanent residency in the long-run.[2] By November 2019, more than 3,000 nurses had been placed of which 2,100 had already moved.[3] Demand continues to grow, despite COVID-19, and the project is expected to expand to new countries of origin in 2021.

Source: Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH. 2021. "Sustainable recruitment of nurses (Triple Win)" Last updated January 2021. https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/41533.html

1. Juliana Ziegler. 2018. "A programme with three advantages." Deutschland.de. September 6, 2019. https://www.deutschland.de/en/topic/life/society-and-integration/working-as-a-nurse-in-germany-the-gizs-triple-win-project
2. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH. 2013. "Placement of qualified nurses from the Philippines in Germany." https://poea.gov.ph/TWP/files/Triple%20Win%20Philipinen.pdf
3. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH. 2021. "Sustainable recruitment of nurses (Triple Win)" Last updated January 2021. https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/41533.html

Despite these impacts, countries of destination have long encouraged health worker migration. From 2010 to 2015, the number of foreign-born doctors in 18 OECD countries rose by over 20 percent.[108] Many workers moved while young and obtained their qualifications in the country of destination, while others applied under increasingly less restrictive visa policies and targeted pilot programs. Today, the US has the largest number of foreign-trained doctors and nurses, followed by the UK. The Philippines is the largest global supplier of nurses, predominantly supplying markets in the US, UK, Saudi Arabia, the Netherlands, and Ireland.[109]

Experts are split on the impact of health worker migration on patient outcomes. It is difficult to distinguish the impact of health worker migration on patient outcomes from broader structural factors. Clemens (2007) argues that Africa's generally low staffing levels and poor public health conditions, for example, are the result of factors entirely unrelated to the international movement of health professionals.[110] On the

108. rganisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). 2019. "Recent Trends in International Migration of Doctors, Nurses and Medical Students." Paris: OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/5571ef48-en

109. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). 2019. "Recent Trends in International Migration of Doctors, Nurses and Medical Students." Paris: OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/5571ef48-en. For more information see Fely Marilyn E Lorenzo, Jaime Galvez-Tan, Kriselle Icamina, and Lara Javier. 2007. "Nurse Migration from a Source Country Perspective: Philippine Country Case Study." *Health Services Research* 42(3 Pt 2): 1406-1418. June 2007. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1955369; and Barbara Brush and Julie Sochalski. 2007. "International Nurse Migration: Lessons From the Philippines." *Policy, Politics, and Nursing Practice* 8(1): 37-46. March 2007. https://www.researchgate.net/deref/http%3A%2F%2Fdx.doi.org%2F10.1177%2F1527154407301393

110. Michael Clemens. 2007. "Do Visas Kill? Health Effects of African Health Professional Emigration." Center for Global Development (CGD) Working paper 114. Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/do-visas-kill-health-effects-african-health-professional-emigration-working-paper-114

contrary, he argues. The availability of health care migration pathways can actually incentivize people to undertake health worker training, thereby increasing the number of skilled professionals available. For example, a recent study in the Philippines found that for every nurse who moved abroad, approximately ten more individuals with nursing degrees graduated.[111] Yet the study does not track the impact of this increase on the number of health workers working in the Philippines, nor on health outcomes. Other studies have found a perception that migration led to higher caseloads, which overextends, overburdens, and demotivates those who stay.[112]

Even if the specific impact on patient outcomes is difficult to identify, many argue that health worker migration has an adverse impact on health systems overall. This impact is the main concern of the WHO's Resolution 57.19: International migration of health personnel: a challenge for health systems in developing countries.[113] In situations of substantial health worker migration, countries of origin are effectively subsidizing the training of medical staff who benefit overseas markets and receive very little compensation in return. For example, Mills et al (2011) argue that "medical education is typically highly subsidized by the public sector in African countries, with more than half of the medical schools in Sub-Saharan Africa either offering free tuition or charging less than USD$1,000 yearly."[114] Yet countries of origin cannot always recoup this investment. They estimate that for every Nigerian doctor that moves to the UK, Nigeria has lost $71,757 in investment.

Promoting a Genuine Development Benefit

To address this imbalance, the same WHO Resolution calls on states to develop mechanisms whereby countries of destination can support the training of health personnel and the development of health systems within countries of origin. Such an approach has been codified in the WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel. The Code of Practice discourages private recruitment from a list of countries that exhibit health worker shortage in a bid to avoid brain drain. Yet it supports health worker migration from these countries as long as it is conducted within a comprehensive government to government (G2G) agreement which ensures a genuine development benefit for the country of origin.[115]

There are many ways in which countries of destination can ensure a meaningful development benefit from any health care migration partnership. As discussed above, health systems in countries of origin suffer from a range of issues which constrain the system's ability to recruit and retain workers. Here, it is crucial to go beyond merely increasing supply. If countries of origin are unable to employ newly qualified workers, especially within the public system, this will merely create more emigration pressure and dissatisfaction. Instead, countries of destination should interrogate the reasons why more qualified workers are not trained and employed, and tackle these. As the WHO has mentioned, "the policy prescription should therefore focus on treating the underlying causes (in terms of improving the work environment, support systems

111. Paolo Abarcar and Caroline Theoharides. 2020. "Medical Worker Migration and Origin-Country Human Capital: Evidence from U.S. Visa Policy." Amherst College Draft Working Paper July 2020. https://www.amherst.edu/system/files/Abarcar_Theoharides_2020_July_FINAL.pdf

112. Magda Awases, Akpa R. Gbary, Jennifer Nyoni, and Rufaro Chatora. 2004. "Migration of Health Professionals in Six Countries: A Synthesis Report." Johannesburg: World Health Organization (WHO) Regional Office for Africa. https://www.afro.who.int/publications/migration-health-professionals-six-countries-synthesis-report

113. World Health Organization (WHO) "WHA57.19 International migration of health personnel: a challenge for health systems in developing countries." Resolutions and Decisions of the 57th World Health Assembly. https://apps.who.int/gb/ebwha/pdf_files/WHA57/A57_R19-en.pdf

114. Edward J. Mills, Steve Kanters, Amy Hagopian, Nick Bansback, Jean Nachega, Mark Alberton, Christopher G Au-Yeung, Andy Mtambo, Ivy L. Bourgeault, Samuel Luboga, Robert S. Hogg, and Nathan Ford. 2011. "The financial cost of doctors emigrating from Sub-Saharan Africa: human capital analysis." BMJ 343. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.d7031

115. Michael Clemens and Helen Dempster. 2021. "Ethical Recruitment of Health Workers: Using Bilateral Cooperation to Fulfil the World Health Organizations' Global Code of Practice." Washington, DC: Center for Global Development (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/publication/ethical-recruitment-health-workers-using-bilateral-cooperation-fulfill-world-health

Box 8. The WHO International Platform on Health Worker Mobility

The WHO Global Strategy on Human Resources for Health, published in 2016, called on WHO to work with ILO, OECD, and other actors, to establish an international platform on health worker mobility.[1] The vision of the platform, launched in September 2019, is to maximize the benefits and mitigate the adverse effects from health worker mobility through elevated dialogue, knowledge, and cooperation.[2] To do this, members and other relevant stakeholders pledge to work together to refine partnership mechanisms, enhance national reporting on progress against the Code of Practice, support countries with gathering data and developing agreements, and publish research.[3]

Source: World Health Organization (WHO). "International Platform on Health Worker Mobility." https://www.who.int/hrh/migration/int-platform-hw-mobility/en/

1. World Health Organization (WHO). 2016. "Global strategy on human resources for health: Workforce 2030." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/hrh/resources/globstrathrh-2030/en/
2. World Health Organization (WHO). "International Platform on Health Worker Mobility." https://www.who.int/hrh/migration/int-platform-hw-mobility/en/
3. International Labour Organization (ILO), Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and World Health Organization (WHO). "The International Platform on Health Worker Mobility: Elevating dialogue, knowledge and international cooperation." https://www.who.int/hrh/migration/International-platform-HW-mobility.pdf?ua=1

Box 9. The US Nursing Education Partnership Initiative (NEPI)

In 2003, the US enacted the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) which sought to address the global HIV/AIDS epidemic through tackling a number of factors, including the lack of quality nursing and midwifery education in Sub-Saharan Africa. As a result, in 2011, PEPFAR's Nursing Education Partnership Initiative (NEPI) was launched.[1] Between 2011 and 2017, it supported 22 nursing education institutions across six African countries: Ethiopia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, and Zambia. NEPI's findings provide a useful framework for thinking about the challenges that face nursing education within Africa, and ways in which to improve it through updated curricula, training the trainers, and the establishment of nursing councils.[2]

Source: Lyn Middleton, Andrea A Howard, Jennifer Dohrn, Deborah Von Zinkernagel, Deborah Parham Hopson, Barbara Aranda-Naranjo, Carolyn Hall, Address Malata, Thokozani Bvumbwe, Adeline Chabela, Nthabiseng Molise, and Wafaa M El-Sadr. 2014. "The Nursing Education Partnership Initiative (NEPI): innovations in nursing and midwifery education." *Academic Medicine* 89(8) S24-S28. August 2014. https://journals.lww.com/academicmedicine/Fulltext/2014/08001/The_Nursing_Education_Partnership_Initiative.9.aspx

1. Lyn Middleton, Andrea A Howard, Jennifer Dohrn, Deborah Von Zinkernagel, Deborah Parham Hopson, Barbara Aranda-Naranjo, Carolyn Hall, Address Malata, Thokozani Bvumbwe, Adeline Chabela, Nthabiseng Molise, and Wafaa M El-Sadr. 2014. "The Nursing Education Partnership Initiative (NEPI): innovations in nursing and midwifery education." *Academic Medicine* 89(8) S24-S28. August 2014. https://journals.lww.com/academicmedicine/Fulltext/2014/08001/The_Nursing_Education_Partnership_Initiative.9.aspx
2. Susan Michaels-Strasser, Janel Smith, Judy Khanyola, Roberta Sutton, Tashtiana Price, and Wafaa M. El Sadr. 2018. "Strengthening the Quality and Quantity of the Nursing and Midwifery Workforce: Report on Eight Years of the NEPI Project." *Annals of Global Health* 84(1): 31-35. http://doi.org/10.29024/aogh.6

and remuneration), rather than attempting to address in isolation the migratory phenomenon."[116]

While there are myriad potential investments, expanding the training infrastructure is likely to be a requirement of any health care Global Skill Partnership. The amount of donor funding that has been directed toward human resources for health has increased from $34 million in 1990 to $1.5 billion in 2016. This funding supports training, education, infrastructure, and the provision of equipment. Yet despite these grand figures, such funding only equates to 4 percent of development assistance for health.[117] Much of this support has gone towards Sub-Saharan African countries (Figure 17) and yet it remains insufficient. WHO estimates that funding for nursing education alone needs to increase by $10 per capita in low- and middle-income countries.[118] Countries of destination could support such infrastructure by supporting and sustaining the human resource development plans of countries of origin thereby contributing to sustainable and equitable health systems.[119]

Box 10. Corvus Health

Corvus Health was formed to provide services throughout the health worker life cycle, with a goal of reducing the global shortage and maldistribution of health workers around the world. In addition to broader efforts advising health care providers and training institutions, Corvus Health also has a model of sustainable health worker recruitment that increases the number of health workers trained in origin countries. It works in partnership with private health training institutions in countries of origin including Tunisia, Kenya, Ethiopia, Sudan, and Ghana. It helps to expand the quality of these schools, improving curricula, business and operational plans, and sharing best practices. Corvus Health then uses these schools as recruiters to place workers in health care facilites in countries of destination such as Canada. Corvus Health was one of 20 finalists in the Global Forum for Migration and Development's 2021 Migration Challenge and it is interested in including European countries of destination in the future.
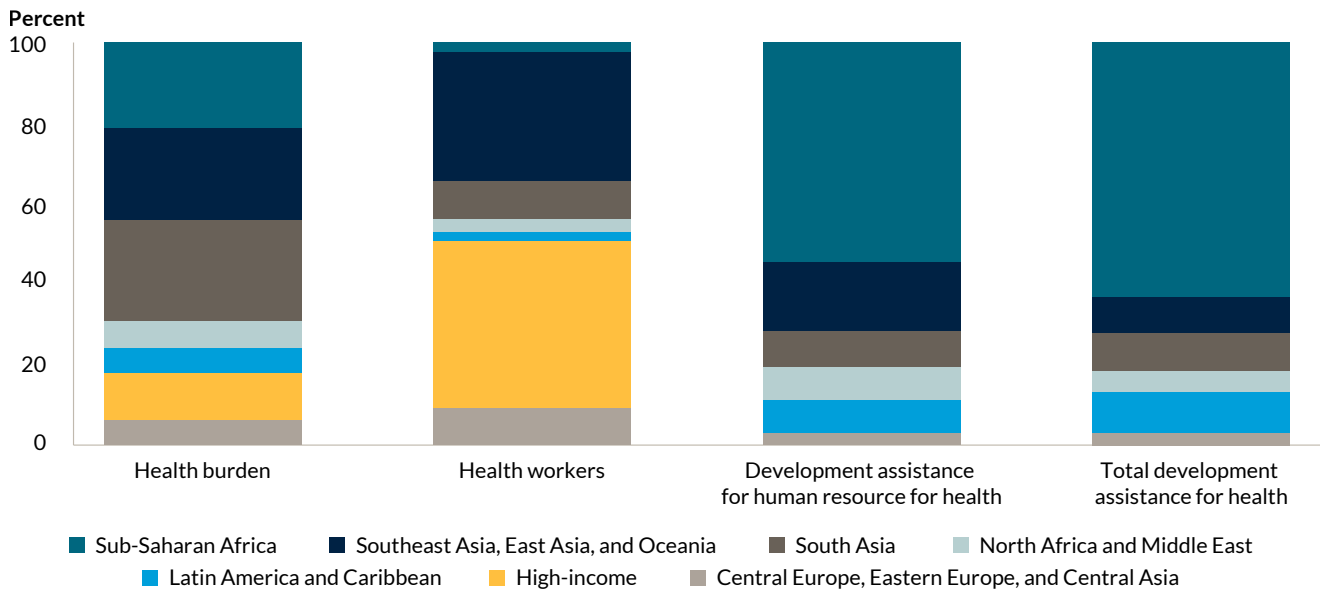
Source: https://corvushealth.com/services/

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116. World Health Organization (WHO) 2020. "State of the World's Nursing Report -2020." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/publications-detail-redirect/9789240003279

117. Angela E. Micah, Bianca S. Zlavog, Catherine S. Chen, and Abigail Chapin. 2018. "Donor financing of human resources for health, 1990-2016: An examination of trends, sources of funds, and recipients." *Globalization and Health* 14(1). October 2018. https://www.researchgate.net/deref/https%3A%2F%2Fglobalizationandhealth.biomedcentral.com%2Farticles%2F10.1186%2Fs12992-018-0416-z

118. World Health Organization (WHO) 2020. "State of the World's Nursing Report -2020." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/publications-detail-redirect/9789240003279

119. Remco van de Pas and Linda Mans. 2018. "Global Skill Partnerships & Health Workforce Mobility: Pursing a Race to the Bottom?" Discussion paper for the Stakeholder's Dialogue on International Health Worker Migration and the Global Skill Partnerships, 9 December, Marrakesh. Morocco. Ferney-Voltaire: Public Services International (PSI). http://world-psi.org/sites/default/files/attachment/news/web_2018_mig_report_marrakesh.pdf

Figure 17. Most development assistance for human resources for health goes to Sub-Saharan Africa

Percent

Legend
■ Sub-Saharan Africa ■ Southeast Asia, East Asia, and Oceania ■ South Asia ■ North Africa and Middle East
■ Latin America and Caribbean ■ High-income ■ Central Europe, Eastern Europe, and Central Asia

Source: Angela E. Micah, Bianca S. Zlavog, Catherine S. Chen, and Abigail Chapin. 2018. "Donor financing of human resources for health, 1990-2016: An examination of trends, sources of funds, and recipients." Globalization and Health 14(1). October 2018. https://www.researchgate.net/deref/https%3A%2F%2Fglobalizationandhealth.biomedcentral.com%2Farticles%2F10.1186%2Fs12992-018-0416-z

Health Care in Nigeria

Nigeria needs more health care workers to serve its rapidly expanding population. In 2020, Nigeria had 1.2 nurses and midwives and 0.4 physicians for every 1,000 inhabitants, slightly higher than the Sub-Saharan African average but worse than many of its regional peers such as Ghana, Namibia, and Zambia as well as structural and aspirational peer countries such as Indonesia and Vietnam (Figure 18).

Nigeria's health-related indicators highlight the extent of health care needs in the country and show great variation between income groups and regions in access to health care services. For example, Nigeria has the highest under-five mortality rate in the world with 117 de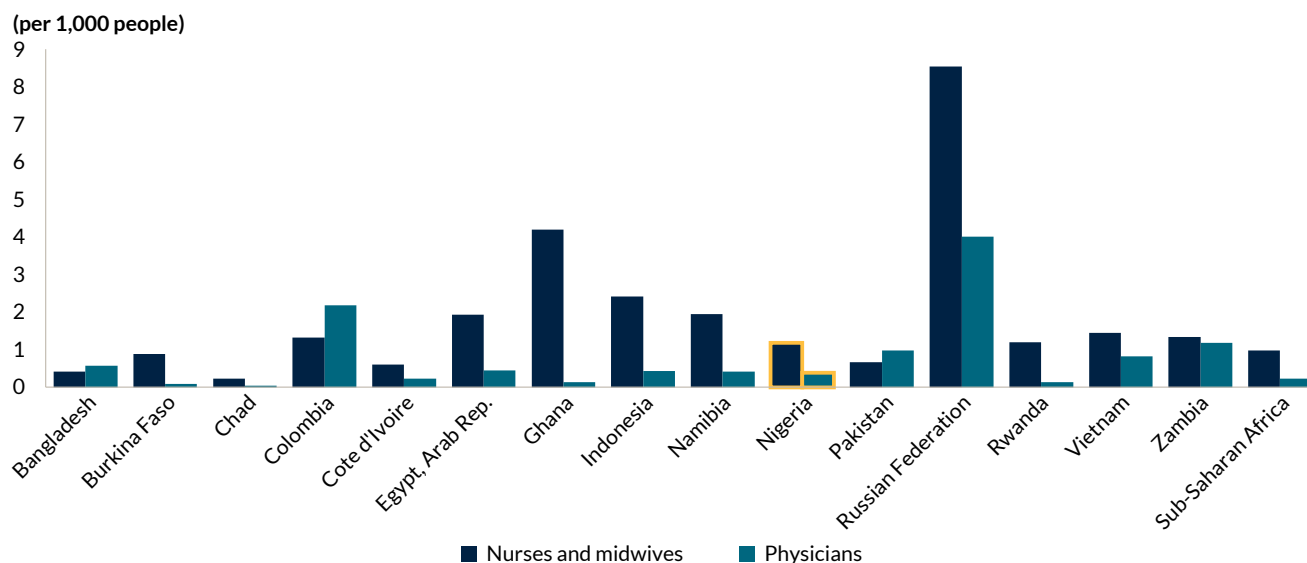aths per 1,000 live births. More starkly, the under-five mortality rate of 158 deaths per 1,000 live births among the poorest quintile is eight times worse than in the richest quintile.[120] In the Northern region of the country, stunting rates among children under-five are three times higher than in the South.[121] There is a high degree of heterogeneity in the availability of health care services across different regions in Nigeria with an urgent need to increase the number of high-quality health workers and improve their distribution.

Health care in Nigeria is delivered through a three-tier system consisting of the Federal Ministry of Health (FMH), the respective States' Ministries of Health, and the National Primary Healthcare Development Agency. Tertiary health care delivery is provided through teaching hospitals which are managed by Colleges of Medicine in either Federal- or State-owned universities; secondary

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120. World Bank. 2018. "Investing in Human Capital for Nigeria's Future." Nigeria Biannual Economic Update Fall 2018. Washington, DC: World Bank. http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/346771542864299850/pdf/132316-21-11-2018-17-31-9-NigeriaBEUAMF.pdf

121. National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). 2017 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2016-17, Survey Findings Report. Abuja, Nigeria. Available at: https://www.unicef.org/nigeria/sites/unicef.org.nigeria/files/2018-09/Nigeria-MICS-2016-17.pdf

(per 1,000 people)

■ Nurses and midwives ■ Physicians

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Nigeria's peers are selected based on the groupings provided in the World Bank Systematic Country Diagnostic (2019) report.

health care delivery is provided through Federal Medical Centers and General Hospitals, while Health Centers provide primary health care at the community level.[122] Seventy-three percent of hospitals and clinics are publicly funded whereas 27 percent are privately-owned. Around 85 percent of hospitals and clinics offer primary care facilities with 14.5 percent offering secondary care and 0.4 percent offering tertiary care.[123]

The public health care system is funded through annual budgets including the National Health Insurance Scheme which covers certain eligible Nigerians who contribute to the scheme.[124] In 2020, the health care budget was a total of N46 billion, which was N4.15 billion less than the allocation for 2019.[125] Nigeria's 2018 domestic general government health expenditure of

$12.45 per capita and 0.58 percent as a percentage of GDP is lower than the Sub-Saharan African average of $30.25 and 1.87 percent, respectively, and also lower than its regional peers Ghana ($30.3 and 1.38 percent) and Kenya ($37.24 and 2.18 percent) respectively.[126] Private health care providers are funded by the users.

The Workforce

According to the 2018-19 National Living Standard Survey (NLSS), around 3 percent of the active working-age population between the ages of 15 and 64 in Nigeria were employed in the health care sector. Of those working in the health sector, 57 percent were employed in urban areas and 43 percent were employed

122. Francis Koce, Gurch Randhawa, and Bertha Ochieng. 2019. 'Understanding Healthcare Self-referral in Nigeria from the Service Users' Perspective: a Qualitative Study of Niger State." *BMC Health Services Research* 19(1) 209. April 2019. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-019-4046-9

123. Nigeria Health Facility Registry, retrieved from https://hfr.health.gov.ng/

124. Nigeria National Health Insurance Scheme. See more at https://www.nhis.gov.ng/

125. For more information, please see Paul Adepoju. 2020. "A breakdown of Nigeria's 2020 budget for health." *Healthnews.* http://www.healthnews.ng/a-breakdown-of-nigerias-2020-budget-for-health/

126. World Bank. "World Health Organization Global Health Expenditure database." Available at: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.XPD.GHED.GD.ZS?locations=ZG-NG&most_recent_value_desc=true

in rural areas; over 60 percent have completed tertiary education and an additional 26 percent have completed secondary education; 94 percent were between the ages of 25 and 64; and 54 percent were women.

The health workforce in Nigeria is made up of medical professionals including doctors, dentists, nurses, pharmacists, medical laboratory scientists, community health practitioners, and other clinical support workers. Table 5, which is based on the Nigeria Health Workforce Country Profile of 2018 and is not exhaustive of the categories of health care professionals in Nigeria, shows that nurses make up the highest number of health workforce when compared to other professionals during a given period. Note that while Nigeria has one of the highest health workforce densities in Africa, it is still below the recommended standard.[127] The WHO's indicative minimum density to achieve the SDG Target 3.8 regarding UHC is 4.45 doctors, nurses, and midwives per 1,000 population; Nigeria has below 2. 1.

As of 2018, Nigeria had 180,709 nurses and 120,870 midwives registered with the Nursing and Midwifery Council of Nigeria (NMCN). Eighty-seven percent of nurses and midwives are females and 72 percent are between the ages of 30 and 60 years. Nigeria's ratio of 1 nurse for every 1,135 in the population and 1 midwife for every 1,697 in the population is among the lowest in the world and similar to the Sub-Saharan African average.

Based on data from NMCN, critical nursing shortages in Nigeria are primarily found in the areas of Cardiothoracic, Anesthesia, Burns and Plastic, Occupational Health, Nephrology, and Otorhinolaryngology. In terms of nursing related technology and equipment, Nigeria primarily faces shortages in Automated Infusion Pump, Portable Cardiac Monitor, Antishock Garment, Glucometer, Doppler Fetal Monitor, Standard Delivery and Smart Beds, and Electronic Health Records (ERS) and Computer Systems.

Table 5. Profile of health care professionals in Nigeria as of 2018

Profession	Number Registered	Number per 100,000	Ratio to Population
Doctors	74,543	36.3	1:2,753
Dentists	4,358	2.12	1:49,075
Nurses	180,709	88.1	1:1,135
Midwives	120,870	58.9	1:1,697
Pharmacists	24,668	12	1:8,317
Community Health Officers	8,533	4	1:24,044
Community Health Extension Workers	61,668	30	1:3,327

Source: Federal Ministry of Health, Nigeria. 2018. Nigeria Health Workforce Country Profile. Available upon request.

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127. World Health Organization (WHO). 2016. "Health Workforce Requirements for Universal Health Coverage and the Sustainable Development Goals." Background paper No. 1 to the Global Strategy on Human Resources for Health. Geneva: World Health Organization. https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/250330/9789241511407-eng.pdf

Health Care Management and Training

The NMCN trained more than 35,000 general nurses and more than 19,000 midwives between 2015 and 2020. Figure 19 (Panel A) shows that the number of general nurses trained by NMCN has increased from 5,392 in 2015 to 8,261 in 2020. Similarly, the number of midwives trained by the council increased from 2,690 in 2015 to 3,704 in 2020. Figure 19 (Panel B) shows the number of nurses trained between 2015 and 2020 by specialties. The three categories of nurses most frequently trained by the council were in the areas of Perioperative, Mental Health, and Pediatric whereas the lowest numbers of nurses trained were in areas of Cardiothoracic, Burns and Plastic, Nephrology, and Occupational Health. These have been highlighted by the NMCN as areas with critical shortages of nurses and areas that can benefit from further investments in training, infrastructure, and equipment.

Figure 19. The number of nurses and midwives trained by the NMCN has increased from 2015 to 2020

Panel A: It has not kept pace with the need of the growing needs or population growth in Nigeria
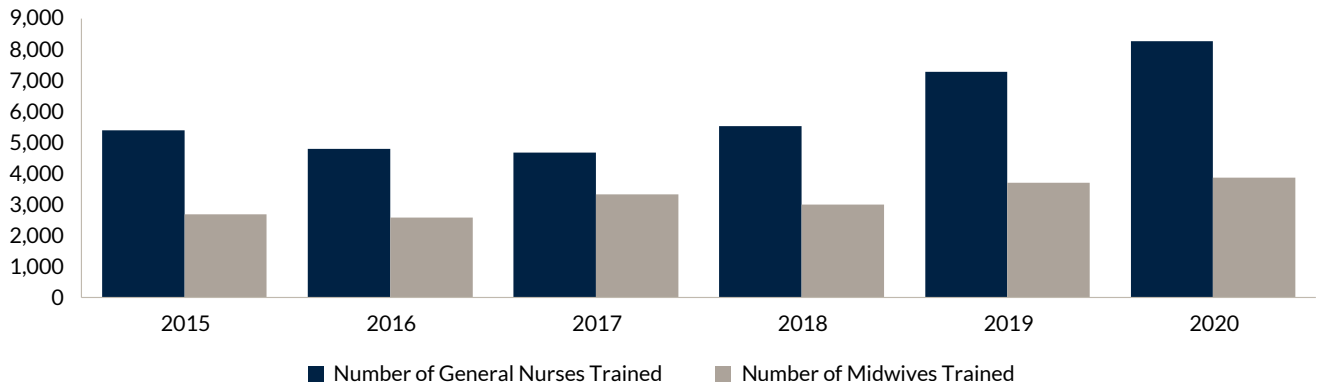
Panel B: Most of Nigeria's nurses are not being trained in categories where shortages exist
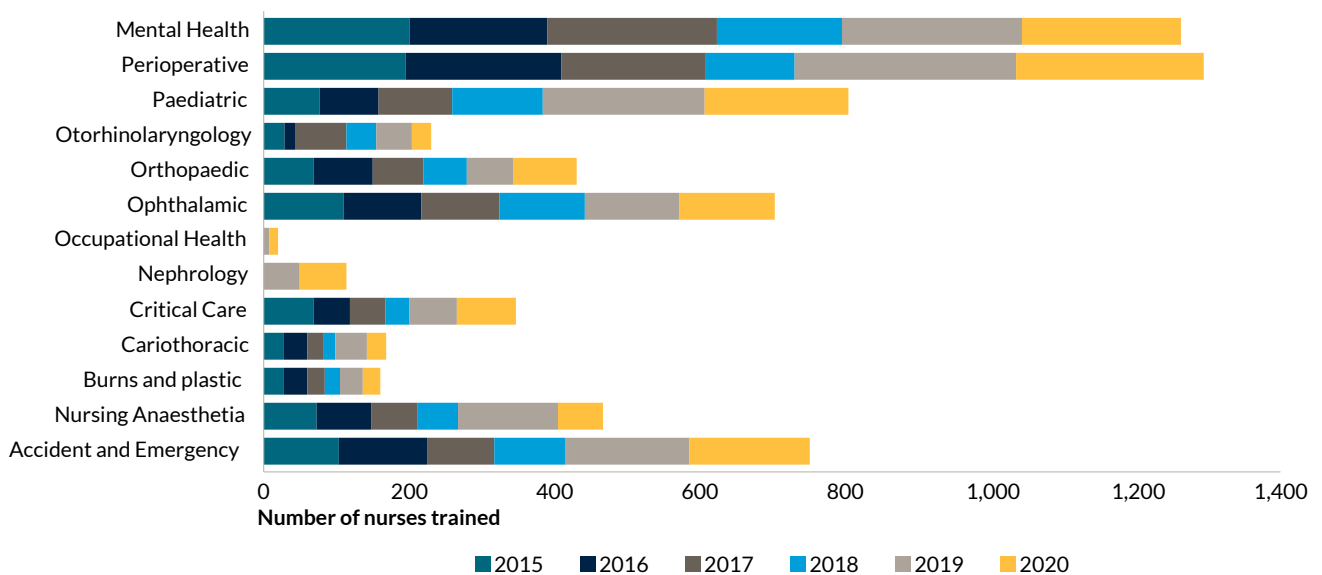

Source: Administrative Data provided by the Nursing and Midwifery Council of Nigeria (NMCN)

In addition to 34 departments of nursing in Nigerian universities, as of 2018, there were 262 health care training institutions nationwide—171 basic nursing schools, 83 basic or post-basic midwifery schools, and 8 community midwifery schools. Out of the 262 training institutions, 99 were fully accredited, 147 had provisional accreditation, and 16 had accreditation denied or withdrawn. As Figure 20 shows, nursing training institutes are located in different states of the Federation, with 50 percent located in 10 states, 6 of which are located in the South and only 2 in the North, pointing to acute shortages of training institutions in the Northern regions of the country.[128] In 2018, the profession of nursing, midwifery and community midwifery added 8,154 graduates to its numbers; 3,561 of existing practitioners (43 percent of the number added) migrated the same year.[129]

A prospective trainee must present a minimum of five O Level credit passes at not more than two sittings from any of the following: West African Examination Council (WAEC), National Examination Council (NECO) or National Business and Technical Examinations Board (NABTEB).[130] The minimum entry age for a trainee is 16 years.[131] Candidates may undertake a 3-year basic nursing training in a School of Nursing

Figure 20. Nursing institutions are concentrated in the Southern regions of Nigeria
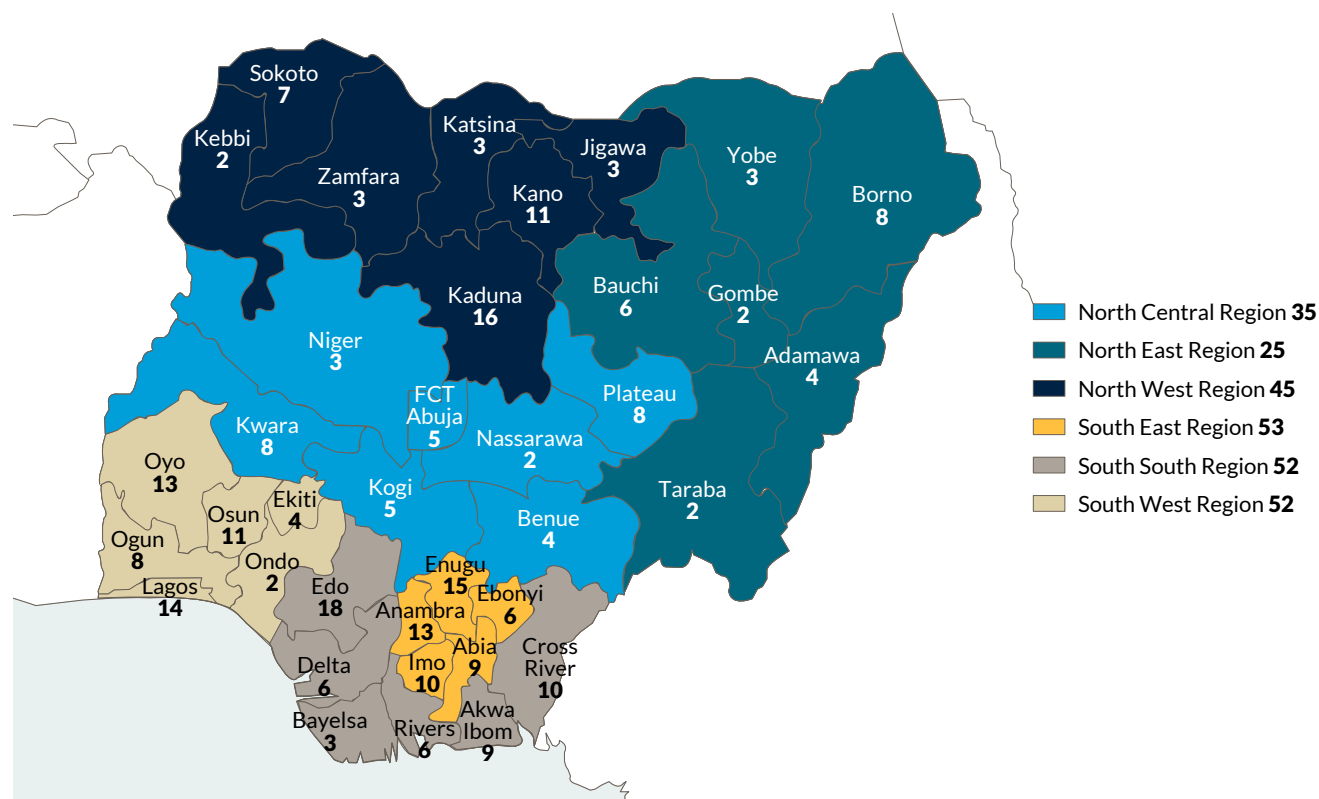
Source: Ezra Gayawan, Ekundayo D Arogundade, and Samson B Adebayo. 2014. "Possible determinants and spatial patterns of anaemia among young children in Nigeria: a Bayesian semi-parametric modelling." International Health 6(1): 35-45. March 2014. https://doi.org/10.1093/inthealth/iht034, modified to show number of nursing training institutions in each State and the Federal Capital Territory

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128. Edo (18), Kaduna (16), Enugu (15), Lagos (14), Anambra (13), Oyo (13), Kano (11), Osun (11), Cross River (10), and Imo (10).
129. Africa Health Workforce Observatory. 2008. "Human Resources for Health: Country Profile Nigeria." Abuja: Africa Health Workforce Observatory. https://www.who.int/workforcealliance/knowledge/resources/hrh_profile_nigeria/en/
130. The credit passes must be in in Mathematics, English Language, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology.
131. Nursing and Midwifery Council of Nigeria. "Programs and Requirements." https://www.nmcn.gov.ng/requirement.html

followed by a 1-year Midwifery training; or they can enroll for the 5-year nursing program in a Department of Nursing at the universities.

Both routes consist of classroom and practical training. However, while the former entails more of hospital placement, the latter entails more of classroom training. The 3-year trainees receive a Certificate in General Nursing while the 5-year graduates receive multiple certificates including the Certificate in General Nursing, General Midwifery Certificate, Certificate in Public Health, and Bachelor of Nursing Science (B. N. Sc.).[132] Nurses can pursue specialist trainings in different fields.[133] Each training takes 18 months to complete.[134]

Over 600,000 nurses are needed in Nigeria between 2016 and 2030.[135] As of 2018, Nigeria had less than 200,000 nurses which means a shortage of over 400,000 nurses.[136] The top five states and territory with the highest number of practicing nurses per 100,000 members of the population are the Federal Capital Territory (186.4), Edo (118.4), Lagos (113.7), Enugu (105.1), and Kwara (103.2); while the bottom 5 are Jigawa (17.7), Kano (20.8), Katsina (21.2), Kebbi (22.5), and Yobe (25.9).[137] This means that Nigeria could benefit from more nursing training and employment, especially in the North-West and North-East where the lowest densities were recorded. Some unemployed nurses could be absorbed to shore up the number of health workers especially in states with the lowest densities and to limit the numbers migrating to work abroad. Nurses from the Southern states could be attracted to work in the North if the Northern states government would employ them on equal terms as their indigenous nurses rather than employ them on contract basis.

Migration

The draft National Policy on Health Workforce Migration for Nigeria does not prohibit migration. Rather, the policy recommends better and more ethical health worker migration which allows countries to work together in finding mutually beneficial solutions to their respective health workforce problems, balancing the migration rights of individual health workers with the health care needs of the population they are meant to serve.[138]

Migration of nurses has been recognized as one of the critical issues facing the Human Resources for Health (HRH) policy, planning, and management in Nigeria. The goal is to provide appropriate and adequate human resources for health care at all levels of the health care system. There are no official legal pathways for Nurses to migrate for employment. However, the NMCN which regulates the Nursing and Midwifery sector and registers qualified nurses and oversees the accreditation of Schools of Nursing and Midwifery, also issues the Letter of Good Standing, a document that verifies certificates and confirms registration status of those who wish to migrate.[139]

Thirteen percent of the nurses and midwives who were registered in 2016 requested Letters of Good Standing from the NMCN and their destination countries

132. Nursing – University of Lagos. "Welcome to the Department of Nursing." https://unilag.edu.ng/?page_id=2836
133. Psychiatrist, Accident and Emergency, Public Health, Pediatric, Dialysis/Renal, Peri-operative, Occupational Health, Anesthetics, Ophthalmic, Ear, Nose & Throat (ENT), Burns and Scald/Disaster, Oncology, Orthopedic, Neonatal, Intensive/Critical Care, Nurse Tutor/ Educator, and Cardiothoracic nursing. For more information please see Damilola Bode-Benson, 2016. "Nursing Specialties: Availability, Choices and Reason. *NursingWorld*. August 3, 2016. https://www.nursingworldnigeria.com/2016/08/nursing-specialties-availability-choices-and-reason-by-damilola-bode-benson. Radiography, Urology, Respiratory, Rehabilitation, Otorhinolaryngology, Ophthalmic, Nephrology, and Hospice/Palliative Care nursing. For more information please see National Association of Nigeria Nurses and Midwives. "Some Classification of Nurses." https://www.nannm.com.ng/some-classification-of-nurses/
134. Ahmadu Bello University Teaching Hospital (Abuth) Zaria. "Postbasic Nursing." https://abuth.gov.ng/index.php/schools/postbasic-nursing
135. Oladimeji Adebayo, Adetunji Labiran, Franklin Emerenini, and Leslie Omoruyi. 2016. "Health Workforce for 2016-2030: Will Nigeria have enough?" *International Journal of Innovation Research and Growth* 4(1): 9-16. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309399635_Health_Workforce_for_2016-2030_Will_Nigeria_have_enough
136. Africa Health Workforce Observatory. 2008. "Human Resources for Health: Country Profile Nigeria." Abuja: Africa Health Workforce Observatory. https://www.who.int/workforcealliance/knowledge/resources/hrh_profile_nigeria/en/
137. Ibid.
138. Draft National Policy on Human Resources for Health Migration.
139. Nursing and Midwifery Council of Nigeria. "Verification of Certificate." https://www.nmcn.gov.ng/verify.html

were the US, Canada, the UK, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Australia, and Ghana.[140] Between 2017 and 2020, the number of nurses and midwives requesting for Letters of Good Standing from NMCN progressively increased—from 2,689 in 2017 to 7,360 in 2020, which as a proportion of general nurses trained is a rise from 57 percent of nurses requesting the Letter of Good Standing in 2017 to 89 percent in 2020.[141] In 2018, Nigeria was one of the top five countries whose candidates successfully took the US nurse licensure examinations.[142]

Health Care in the UK

The majority of health care in the UK is delivered through the country's free, publicly-funded, health care system—the National Health Service (NHS). While there is a smaller private health care sector, the majority of employers (and employees) reside in the public sector. Policy for health in the UK is devolved to the Administrations in each of the four nations. NHS England and NHS Improvement lead the NHS in England and the Department of Health and Social Care (DHSC) provides the overarching policy and strategy. NHS England and Ireland is responsible for overseeing the commissioning, the planning, and the buying, of NHS services. The service is funded through direct taxation: in 2018, the UK spent £214.4 billion on health care, which equals 10 percent of gross domestic product. Health expenditure has been growing over recent years, with spending on long-term care growing at an even faster rate due to the UK's shifting and aging demographics.[143]

The Workforce

NHS staff are employed throughout the four countries that make up the UK, though the NHS is the largest employer in England with nearly 1.2 million full-time equivalent (FTE) staff.[144] Around half of all employees are professional qualified clinical staff working in hospital, community, and primary care settings. These workers are direct employees of various NHS trusts which manage facilities around the country. Today, there are around 150,000 doctors and 330,000 nurses and midwives working for the NHS, in addition to clinical support staff, scientists, technical staff, infrastructure support, and ambulance workers, to name a few (Figure 21).

There is no single, robust data source on the level of vacancies within the NHS, but estimates show that there are large and widespread staff shortages. Between October and December 2019 alone, 100,000 FTE vacancies were advertised, a shortfall of 8.1 percent.[145] While these vacancies also reflect standard turnover, many are due to widespread and persistent shortages. In June 2020, NHS hospitals, mental health services, and community providers reported a shortage of nearly 84,000 staff, as well as 2,500 FTE GPs.[146] These shortages are not felt evenly, with the highest percentage of vacancies in London (10.7 percent) and lowest in the North East and Yorkshire (5.5 percent).[147] The majority of vacancies are for registered nurses and midwives, with administrative and clerical support, and allied health professions, coming in second and third (Figure 22). Many of these nurses are needed within critical, community, mental,

140. World Health Organization (WHO) and European Union. 2017. "A Dynamic Understanding of Health Worker Migration." https://www.who.int/hrh/HWF17002_Brochure.pdf

141. Administrative Data provided by the Nursing and Midwifery Council of Nigeria (NMCN)

142. National Council of State Boards of Nursing. 2018. "The 2018 NCLEX Examination." https://yearinreview.ncsbn.org/2018/nclex.htm

143. Office for National Statistics. 2018. "Healthcare expenditure, UK Health Accounts: 2018." https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/healthandsocialcare/healthcaresystem/bulletins/ukhealthaccounts/2018
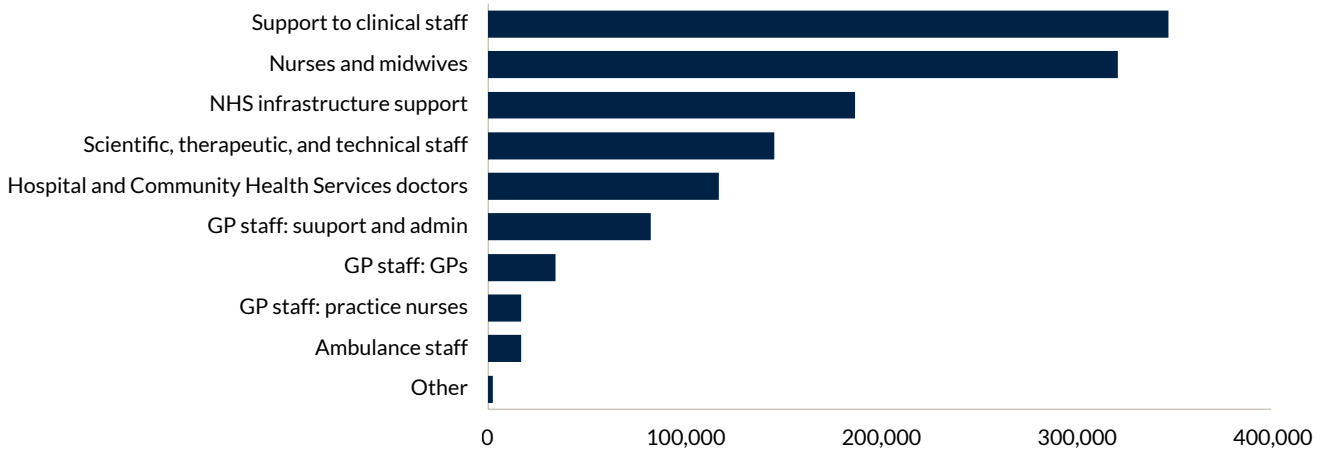
144. 1.2 million in England, 162,000 in Scotland, 89,000 in Wales, and 64,000 in Northern Ireland. Please see Full Fact. 2017. "How many NHS employees are there?" June 1, 2017. https://fullfact.org/health/how-many-nhs-employees-are-there/ and The King's Fund. 2021. "NHS workforce: our position." Last updated February 26, 2021. https://www.kingsfund.org.uk/projects/positions/nhs-workforce

145. Lucina Rolewicz and Billy Palmer. 2019. "The NHS workforce in numbers." *Nuffield Trust*. Last updated February 29, 2020. https://www.nuffieldtrust.org.uk/resource/the-nhs-workforce-in-numbers

146. NHS Digital. 2020. "NHS Workforce Statistics – June 2020." September 24, 2020. https://digital.nhs.uk/data-and-information/publications/statistical/nhs-workforce-statistics/june-2020
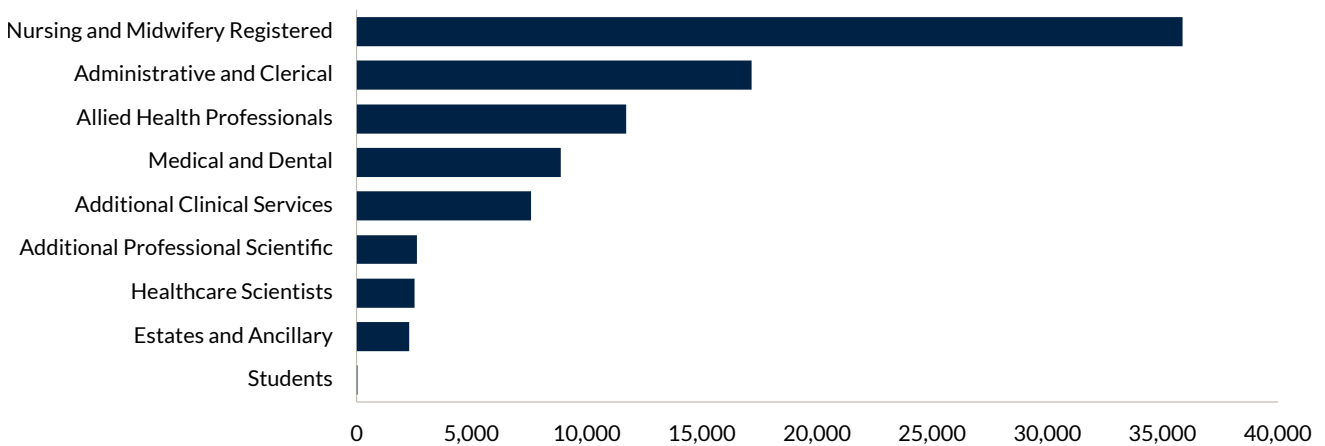
147. NHS Digital. 2020 "NHS Vacancy Statistics (and previous NHS Vacancies Survey." https://digital.nhs.uk/data-and-information/publications/statistical/nhs-vacancies-survey

Figure 21. The Workforce in the UK's National Health Service

Category	
Support to clinical staff	
Nurses and midwives	
NHS infrastructure support	
Scientific, therapeutic, and technical staff	
Hospital and Community Health Services doctors	
GP staff: suuport and admin	
GP staff: GPs	
GP staff: practice nurses	
Ambulance staff	
Other	

(Axis: 0 — 100,000 — 200,000 — 300,000 — 400,000)

Figure 22. Staff shortages in the UK's National Health Service

Category	
Nursing and Midwifery Registered	
Administrative and Clerical	
Allied Health Professionals	
Medical and Dental	
Additional Clinical Services	
Additional Professional Scientific	
Healthcare Scientists	
Estates and Ancillary	
Students	

(Axis: 0 — 5,000 — 10,000 — 15,000 — 20,000 — 25,000 — 30,000 — 35,000 — 40,000)

Note: FTE number of vacancies, October-December 2019

and social care, while there is an increasing need for aged care nursing assistants as well.

The Health Foundation, King's Fund, and Nuffield Trust have estimated that without policy action and investment, shortages could grow to 200,000 by 2023-24 and at least 250,000 by 2030. Nursing remains the key area of shortage and requires over 100,000 new workers by 2028-29.[148] These unfilled vacancies are putting pressure on remaining staff, leading to high levels of stress, absenteeism, and turnover. They have also led to an over-reliance on temporary staff, which strains already

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148. Ben Gerschlick and Anita Charlesworth. 2019. "Health and social care workforce: Priorities for the new government." *The Health Foundation*. November 27, 2019. https://www.health.org.uk/publications/long-reads/health-and-social-care-workforce

tight budgets.[149] Such pressures have been exacerbated by a lack of new staff coming through the system. Between 2010 and 2018, the amount of care provided by the health service increased by a third, yet the number of nurses barely shifted.[150] In 2021, it was found that 28 percent of nurses and health professionals leave the NHS within the first three years of service.[151]

Health Care Management and Training

Given the large nursing staff shortages within the NHS, the following section will focus on the process by which UK nationals become a nurse in the UK and the main actors involved. There are four main fields of nursing in the UK: adult, children's, learning disability, and mental health nursing.[152] Some degrees allow trainees to specialize in two of these fields. To become an adult nurse, trainees will need to have five GCSE's and two A levels at secondary education level, and then apply for a nursing undergraduate degree at a number of universities throughout the UK. The Bachelor of Nursing degree generally takes three years and involves both theoretical study and a clinical placement. If trainees already have a degree in a relevant subject, they can undertake a postgraduate degree which only takes two years.

These courses must be approved by the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC) – the professional regulator for the nursing and midwifery sector.[153] They have four main roles:

1. Maintaining a register of nurses and midwives who meet the requirements for UK registration;

2. Setting requirements for professional education;
3. Promoting and developing standards, promoting lifelong learning; and
4. Investigating issues with nurse and midwife conduct.

As described above, nurses who have completed their qualification and registered with the NMC are then employed by UK Trusts around the country. If they wish, they can then apply to join a union. There are three nursing unions: the Royal College of Nursing (RCN), UNISON, and Unite. The RCN is the world's largest nursing union and professional body. They represent more than 450,000 nurses, student nurses, midwives, and nursing support workers, offering "free and confidential advice and support on employment matters, career development, immigration, welfare and more."[154] UNISON acts for members in public services, including health care,[155] and Unite has over 100,000 members within the health care sector.[156] There are also a number of smaller unions.[157]

Many have attributed these staffing shortages to a failure to invest in training. OECD data shows that the number of people with a nursing qualification per head of population in the UK is below the OECD and the EU-14 average (Figure 23). In 2011, the number of training places for nurses was reduced by 10 percent. Nurses were able to access bursaries to help support their training and living costs, yet this scheme was capped due to limited funds. In a bid to increase take-up, this scheme was dropped in 2017 but it did not lead to an increase in people taking up training places.

149.   Lucina Rolewicz and Billy Palmer. 2019. "The NHS workforce in numbers." *Nuffield Trust*. Last updated February 29, 2020. https://www.nuffieldtrust.org.uk/resource/the-nhs-workforce-in-numbers

150.   Anita Charlesworth. 2021. "Staff shortages left the NHS vulnerable to the COVID-19 storm." *The Health Foundation*. January 12, 2021. https://www.health.org.uk/news-and-comment/blogs/staff-shortages-left-the-nhs-vulnerable-to-the-covid-19-storm

151.   The King's Fund. 2021. "NHS workforce: our position." Last updated February 26, 2021. https://www.kingsfund.org.uk/projects/positions/nhs-workforce

152.   NHS. "How to become a nurse." https://www.healthcareers.nhs.uk/explore-roles/nursing/studying-nursing

153.   Nursing and Midwifery Council. "Who we are and what we do." https://www.nmc.org.uk/about-us/our-role/

154.   Royal College of Nursing. "What the RCN does." https://www.rcn.org.uk/about-us/what-the-rcn-does

155.   UNISON. See https://www.unison.org.uk/

156.   UNICTE. See https://unitetheunion.org/

157.   Polly Adgey. "What is a nursing Union and Why Should I Consider Joining One?" *SureCert*. September 6, 2018. https://www.surecert.com/blog/what-is-nursing-union-why-should-consider-joining-one/

Attrition remains high—one in four nursing students does not graduate.[158] Thankfully, things may be slowly shifting. The number of FTE nurses and health visitors rose by 4.8 percent in the year to June 2020.[159] COVID-19 has led to record numbers of students enrolling in nursing programs, up 32 percent in the last year.[160] Yet advocates warn that this is still not meeting the scale of the shortages, with many pushing for a robust, long-term approach to measuring demand and potential supply of nurses.[161]

These staff shortages have long been front of mind for the UK's successive governments. In 2020, the new Conservative government pledged to increase nurse numbers by 50,000 over the next five years, and offered additional cost of living support of £5,000.[162] A new "We are the NHS, We are Nurses" campaign is attempting to recruit teenagers and those switching careers.[163] The NHS' Long Term Plan acknowledges the shifting needs of the sector, and is supported by a workforce development strategy in the form of the NHS People Plan.[164] Such interventions, coupled with long-term investment, will needed to reduce the impact of these broader

Figure 23. The number of people in the UK with a nursing qualification per head of population is one of the lowest rates in Europe
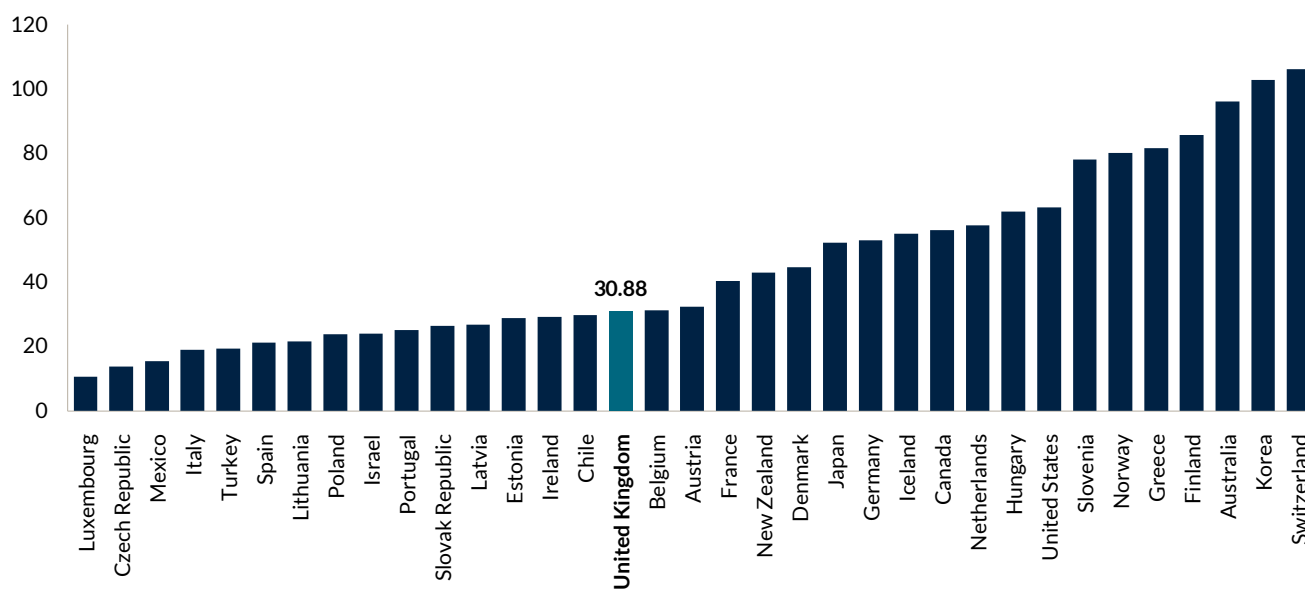
Source: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) "Nursing graduates." Retrieved March 19, 2021. https://data.oecd.org/healthres/nursing-graduates.htm

Note: Data from 2019 or latest available.

158. Ben Gerschlick and Anita Charlesworth. 2019. "Health and social care workforce: Priorities for the new government." *The Health Foundation*. November 27, 2019. https://www.health.org.uk/publications/long-reads/health-and-social-care-workforce

159. James Buchan, Jane Ball, Nihar Shembavnekar, and Anita Charlesworth. 2020. "Building the NHS nursing workforce in England: Workforce pressure points." London: *The Health Foundation*. https://www.health.org.uk/publications/reports/building-the-nhs-nursing-workforce-in-england

160. BBC. 2021. "Covid-19: Record number of students apply for nursing". February 18, 2021. https://www.bbc.com/news/uk-56111379

161. For example, the Health Foundation's REAL Centre produced a model that can be used to develop supply projections of the nursing workforce with a time horizon of 10 to 20 years. See Siôn Cave, Emma Woodham, Dave Exelby, Keith Derbyshire, Rosemary Wildblood, and Nihar Shembavnekar. 2020. "Nurse supply model: progress so far." London: *The Health Foundation*. https://www.health.org.uk/publications/nurse-supply-model-progress-so-far

162. Department of Health and Social Care (DHSC) 2019. "Nursing students to receive £5,000 payment a year." Published December 18, 2019. https://www.gov.uk/government/news/nursing-students-to-receive-5-000-payment-a-year

163. NHS. "We are Nurses. We are the NHS." https://www.healthcareers.nhs.uk/we-are-the-nhs/nursing-careers

164. NHS. "NHS Long Term Plan." https://www.longtermplan.nhs.uk/; and NHS. "We are the NHS: People Plan for 2020/21 – action for us all." https://www.england.nhs.uk/publication/we-are-the-nhs-people-plan-for-2020-21-action-for-us-all/

shifts. Recognizing the limited nature of these investments, the government has also turned to international recruitment, a key part of the government's commitment to deliver 50,000 additional nurses by 2024.
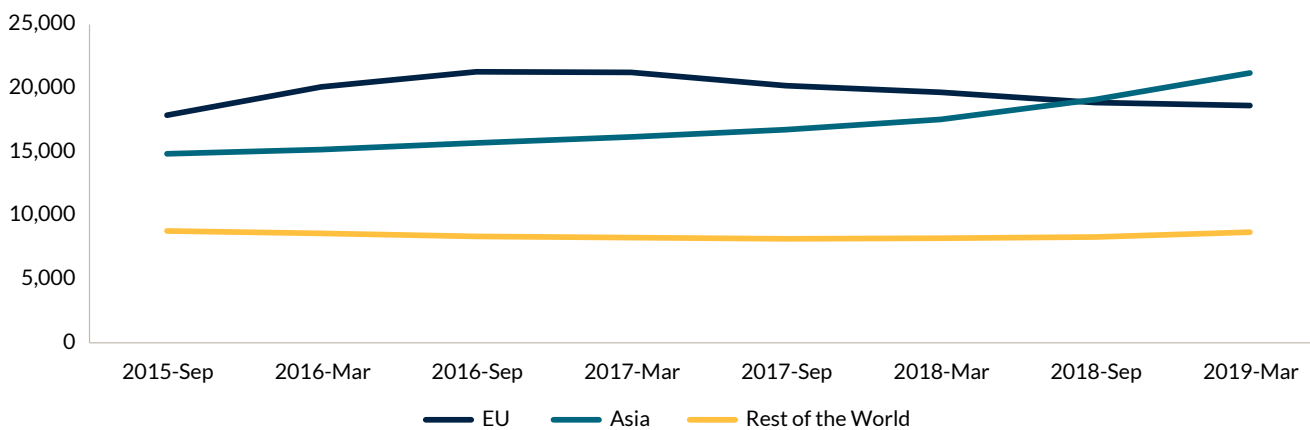
Migration

In 2018, non-British nationals made up 12 percent of the NHS workforce—6 percent EU nationals and 6 percent non-EU nationals.[165] Of those doctors who were non-EU nationals, the greatest proportion came from Asia, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa. Out of those from Sub-Saharan Africa, the greatest proportion came from Nigeria: 1,391 doctors. Similar trends can be seen within the nursing profession, with Asian nurses outstripping those from EU countries (Figure 24). The proportion of foreign-born workers varies throughout the country, with the greatest proportions in London.

There are two ways in which nurses can be recruited from overseas: directly by Trusts, or through an intermediary. To be offered a job, nurses must acquire both a UK work permit and a Nursing and Midwifery Council registration. They must have a valid nursing qualification from their home country which is verified by the Council. They must pass an English language test (IELTS or OET) and pass a two-part Council application process: a computer based multiple-choice examination (which nurses can access in their home countries) and a practical test which is held in the UK (the objective structured clinical examination, or the OSCE). Employers often sponsor foreign nurses to come to the UK where they are able to work as health care assistants until they pass their OSCE. Completing all of the above is difficult without the support of an agency, hence a large overseas recruitment industry exists.

The UK has become a "net importer" of health care professionals. Every year, the NHS needs to recruit 5,000 nurses from overseas.[166] The OECD has found that the UK imports more foreign-trained nurses than all other countries bar New Zealand, Switzerland, and Australia.[167] As described above, European-trained nurses have long been a source of talent for the NHS. Yet Brexit, and the extension of language

Figure 24. UK National Health Service workers of non-British origin

Source: Office for National Statistics (ONS) "International migration and the healthcare workforce." Last updated August 15, 2019. https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/populationandmigration/internationalmigration/articles/internationalmigrationandthehealthcareworkforce/2019-08-15

Note: NHS HCHS nursing workforce in Trusts and CCGs by nationality, England, 2015-2019

165. Office for National Statistics (ONS) "International migration and the healthcare workforce." Last updated August 15, 2019. https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/populationandmigration/internationalmigration/articles/internationalmigrationandthehealthcareworkforce/2019-08-15
166. The King's Fund. 2021. "NHS workforce: our position." Last updated February 26, 2021. https://www.kingsfund.org.uk/projects/positions/nhs-workforce
167. Ben Gerschlick and Anita Charlesworth. 2019. "Health and social care workforce: Priorities for the new government." *The Health Foundation*. November 27, 2019. https://www.health.org.uk/publications/long-reads/health-and-social-care-workforce

requirements, has led to a fall in the number of European professionals seeking employment in the UK. As the King's Fund notes, "the number of nurses and midwives from Europe leaving the Nursing and Midwifery Council's register has risen from 1,981 in 2015/16 to 2,838 in 2019/20, while the number joining fell by 90 per cent over the same timeframe."[168]

Therefore, the NHS is having to look elsewhere. Over the same time period, there has been some increase in the number of nurses arriving from countries outside the EU, especially India and the Philippines.[169] The UK maintains its own Code of Practice for the international recruitment of health and social care personnel which precludes active recruitment of health care professionals from developing countries, unless there exists a government-to-government agreement to support recruitment activities.[170] Under this Code, the UK has negotiated agreements which allow recruitment from the Philippines[171] and all Indian states barring Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, and West Bengal (those that receive ODA).[172]

The updated Code, published in late February 2021, reduces the number of countries which require such agreements, in line with new guidance from the WHO. The UK no longer holds its own list of countries, but uses the WHO Support and Safeguards List of 47 countries with the most pressing health workforce to population ratios, including Nigeria.[173] Neither India nor the Philippines are on this list, reflecting their fast-growing economies and therefore declining potential for nurse emigration. The DHSC and NHS are exploring other

markets, in two ways. The first is exploring potential markets with which to develop government-to-government agreements. Promoting mobility in line with the UK's Code will require in-depth consultation with the Ministries of Health in these countries and for robust agreements to be signed which promises mutually beneficial migration.

The second way is by augmenting the formal immigration system. Due to Brexit, the UK has had to develop a new Points Based Immigration System which came into force in January 2021. Within the context of this system, the UK has introduced a new Health and Care Visa.[174] To be eligible, an applicant must have a job offer from a relevant employer within the health and care sector, be undertaking a specific job role within the visa rules (e.g. doctor, nurse, adult social care professional), be paid over £20,480, and speak English up to level B1. This standard is likely to be one of the biggest barriers to take-up as it is one of the highest English language requirements in the world. The fees are substantially lower than normal immigration fees, there are no annual caps or quotas, no requirement for employers to advertise locally, and the ability to transition an initial five-year visa into permanent residence and eventually citizenship.

The Health and Care Visa is remarkably open. Given the high level of skill shortages within the NHS, and the government requirement to recruit more staff within a short period of time, it is likely that employers will seek to take advantage of this new openness. Many foreign-trained health professionals have been

168. The King's Fund. 2021. "NHS workforce: our position." Last updated February 26, 2021. https://www.kingsfund.org.uk/projects/positions/nhs-workforce
169. Ben Gerschlick and Anita Charlesworth. 2019. "Health and social care workforce: Priorities for the new government." *The Health Foundation*. November 27, 2019. https://www.health.org.uk/publications/long-reads/health-and-social-care-workforce
170. Department of Health and Social Care (DHSC) 2021. "Code of practice for the international recruitment of health and social care personnel." https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/code-of-practice-for-the-international-recruitment-of-health-and-social-care-personnel
171. NHS Employers. "Memorandum of Understanding between the Government of the Republic of the Philippines and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in Healthcare Cooperation." https://www.nhsemployers.org/~/media/Employers/Documents/Recruit/UK%20Philippines%20MOU.pdf
172. NHS Employers. 2021. "Developing countries – recruitment." Published February 25, 2021. https://www.nhsemployers.org/your-workforce/recruit/employer-led-recruitment/international-recruitment/uk-code-of-practice-for-international-recruitment/list-of-developing-countries
173. World Health Organization (WHO) 2021. "Health Workforce Support and Safeguards List, 2020." Published February 25, 2021. https://cdn.who.int/media/docs/default-source/health-workforce/hwf-support-and-safeguards-list8jan.pdf?sfvrsn=1a16bc6f_5
174. Gov.UK. "Health and Care Worker visa." https://www.gov.uk/health-care-worker-visa/your-job

Box 11. Health Education England's Global Learners Programme

Health Education England (HEE) essentially oversees the training and development of the health workforce in England. It is a nondepartmental body sponsored by the Department of Health and Social Care (DHSC). According to its website, HEE is responsible for ensuring that the NHS' future workforce is "available in the right numbers and has the necessary skills, values and behaviours to meet patients' needs and deliver high quality care."[1]

One way it does this is by working globally: supporting NHS staff and organizations in their engagement overseas, bringing overseas staff to work on placements, and by aligning objectives through different government departments including the Foreign, Commonwealth, and Development Office.

HEE's Global Learners Programme offers the ability for foreign-trained nurses to work in the NHS. [2]Applicants must be registered nurses who have practiced for at least six months after qualifying and have practiced within the last two years. They must have a minimum grade of B in reading, speaking, and listening English and a C+ in writing. Nurses are able to apply for roles from their home countries, pass an initial CBT test, and then apply for a UK visa. Once their visa is approved, and they have paid the requisite fee, they prepare to move to the UK. Applicants are provided with flights to the UK and three months of accommodation by their employer Trust, along with pastoral care and integration support. Once they arrive, they start work for their new employer before taking the

Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE) which leads to full qualification. Successful trainees are allowed to bring their dependents, and all can stay for the full length of the visa (three years) before transferring onto a Tier 2 (General) Visa and eventual permanent residency and citizenship.

The program operates through agreements that the UK has with several low- and middle-income countries including focusing on at-scale recruitment from states in India and supporting labor ministries to ensure candidates reach a level at which they are able meet the NMC requirements (for example, through support with English language programs). A pilot called "Earn, Learn, Return" was launched in 2017/18 yet the Tropical Health Education Trust (THET) noted that few nurses were likely to return home to their countries of origin, and more clarity around the circular mobility nature of this scheme was required.[3] As a result, the program shifted to focusing on skills development with no requirement to return. As of the start of 2021, over 2,000 nurses are working in NHS through the scheme, and approximately 1,500 due to start during 2021/22.

The program is winding down over 2021/22 with HEE's successor programs focusing on managed educational partnerships with low- and middle-income countries. These small bilateral programs, such as the partnership with Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, will focus on staff exchange and capacity building.

Source: NHS Health Education England. "Global Learners Programme." https://glp.hee.nhs.uk/; and interviews with Health Education England staff.

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1. NHS Health Education England. "Global engagement." https://www.hee.nhs.uk/our-work/global-engagement
2. NHS Health Education England. "Global Learners Programme." https://glp.hee.nhs.uk/
3. Graeme Chisholm. 2019. "Forthcoming Tropical Health and Education Trust (THET) Report: Migration and Mobility." Submitted to the 2nd Review of Relevance and Effectiveness of the WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel. Draft Evidence Brief No. 3. June 14, 2019. https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/health-workforce/eag2/2nd-review-of-code-relevance-and-effectiveness-evidence-brief-3-thet.pdf?sfvrsn=541bdee3_2

educated at British-designed institutions, which will have provided them with relatively transferable skills and a high level of interest. It also opens up opportunities for health care assistants to enter the UK and work within the system. If nurses are not able to pass their OSCE exam within eight months, they are able to downgrade to the position of health care assistant and continue to work, rather than losing their immigration status (as was the case before). The visa is new, and take-up is yet to be seen (due to COVID-19) and extensively evaluated.

Yet there are three main barriers to relying on the new Health and Care Visa to meet the overall shortage of health workers in the UK. The first is the promotion of the Health and Care Visa abroad—if countries (and individual potential migrants) are unaware of the new visa, it is unlikely that they will know to apply or to augment their education and skill investment decisions to take advantage of this new pathway. The second is the potential sending countries. If the UK wants to actively facilitate migration from countries on the WHO Support and Safeguards List (including Nigeria), it will need to do so through a comprehensive bilateral migration agreement. And the third is rising concerns that the UK should be "compensating" countries who are sending large numbers of health workers to the UK. For example, in late 2020, Conservative MP Andrew Mitchell introduced the Doctors and Nurses (Developing Countries) Bill.[175] The Bill recognizes the impact that increased labor migration can have on the health workforce of countries of origin, and requires "the Secretary of State to report on the merits of a scheme for the United Kingdom to pay to train two doctors or nurses in developing countries for each doctor or nurse recruited to the National Health Service from those countries." The Global Skill Partnership model mirrors this approach, while also overcoming the other two barriers mentioned above.

Implementing a Global Skill Partnership

As described above, the UK is experiencing large and persistent skill shortages, particularly within the nursing profession. Its NHS has long relied on migrant staff, and local Trusts (particularly those in urban and peri-urban areas) have much experience with recruiting and integrating foreign-trained workers. Yet the countries of origin that the NHS has long relied upon, including India and the Philippines, are rapidly developing, creating concern that they may not be viable sending markets in the long-term. As a result, the UK is turning to new potential partner countries, particularly former British colonies in South East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. Many of these countries are on the WHO's Support and Safeguards List, requiring the development of meaningful bilateral agreements that promote development on both sides.

As mentioned earlier, Nigeria suffers from a lack of qualified health workers, particularly nurses, and particularly within the Northern areas of the country. It also lacks substantial local and international investment in the development of its training and health management infrastructure; a gap that targeted overseas development assistance could fill. A health partnership between the UK and Nigeria could therefore deliver benefits to both countries, increasing the stock of skilled health professionals and improving health systems for all.

One way to do this is through the Global Skill Partnership model. A Global Skill Partnership is a bilateral labor migration agreement between a country of origin and a country of destination. The country of origin agrees to train people in skills specifically and immediately needed in both the country of origin and destination. Some of those trainees choose to stay and

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175. Doctors and Nurses (Developing Countries) Bill. Last updated January 14, 2021. https://bills.parliament.uk/bills/2804

Box 12. Tropical Health Education Trust (THET)

The Tropical Health Education Trust (THET) was formed in 1988 as a UK charity. It trains and educates health workers in Africa and Asia, by partnering UK-based NHS Trusts, Royal Colleges, and academic institutions with those in the region. These partnerships deliver health worker training programs based on the needs of the partner institutions. Much of this is delivered by UK volunteers and almost 100,000 have volunteered their time over the past 30 years.

THET has long advocated for greater investment by the UK in the training and education of overseas health care professionals, as well as health systems strengthening. Its flagship UK Partnerships for Health Systems (UKPHS) program aimed to help low- and lower middle-income countries build stronger, more resilient health systems, with the ultimate aim of achieving universal health coverage and better servicing poor and vulnerable populations.[1] Unfortunately, this project was recently cut due to the reduction in UK aid spending.

In 2019, THET submitted a brief to the 2nd review of the WHO Code of Conduct in which it recommended the UK establish a "unified health workforce strategy at the national level which maximizes the synergies between UK Official Development Assistance (ODA) funding and NHS investments in workforce allowing for the meaningful circulation of health workers." This brief was then translated into a more comprehensive policy paper.[2] In this policy paper, THET called on ODA to be used for health systems strengthening in low- and middle-income countries, and for the NHS to focus on foreign-trained health worker integration in the UK.[3] In addition, this report also calls on the UK government to "scale-up publicly funded Skills Mobility Partnerships." It reviews a number of different forms of skill partnerships, noting that circularity should be encouraged and built into the structure of the program. It also calls for any partnerships to adhere to both THET's "principles of partnership" and the WHO's Twinning Partnerships for Improvement.

Source: NHS Health Education England. "Global Learners Programme." https://glp.hee.nhs.uk/; and interviews with THET staff

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1. Tropical Health and Education Trust (THET) "UK Partnerships for Health Systems (UKPHS)." https://www.thet.org/ukphs/
2. Graeme Chisholm. 2019. "From Competition to Collaboration: Ethical leadership in an era of health worker mobility." London: Tropical Health Education Trust (THET). https://www.thet.org/our-work/policy-work/from-competition-to-collaboration/
3. Graeme Chisholm. 2019. "Forthcoming Tropical Health and Education Trust (THET) Report: Migration and Mobility." Submitted to the 2nd Review of Relevance and Effectiveness of the WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel. Draft Evidence Brief No. 3. June 14, 2019. https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/health-workforce/eag2/2nd-review-of-code-relevance-and-effectiveness-evidence-brief-3-thet.pdf?sfvrsn=541bdee3_2

increase human capital in the country of origin (the "home" track); others migrate to the country of destination (the "away" track). The country of destination provides technology and finance for the training and receives migrants with the skills to contribute to the maximum extent and integrate quickly.

The following sections outline how such a Global Skill Partnership in nursing could be developed between the UK and Nigeria, including aspects of its design, risks and mitigation measures, and potential funding sources. The points listed below are not exhaustive. Undoubtedly, further points will be raised through

the required extensive consultations between parties on both sides, and opportunities for testing new approaches should be pursued.

Design

Below we have outlined the various stages required when designing a Global Skill Partnership, namely:

1. Signing government-to-government agreement;
2. Consulting relevant stakeholders;
3. Signing on interested employers;
4. Developing curricula and training materials;
5. Designing contributions to broader systems;
6. Facilitating mobility; and
7. Evaluating the scheme (and potentially scaling).

Signing a government-to-government agreement

The first stage required within the formulation of a health care Global Skill Partnership is the signing of an MoU or a BLA. Nigeria is on the WHO's Support and Safeguards List, and therefore is governed by both the WHO and the UK's Code of Conduct. As a result, the UK is barred from recruiting Nigerian health professionals through direct recruitment and must facilitate any mobility through formal government-to-government agreements. These agreements should be negotiated directly by the Ministry of Health in Nigeria and DHSC in the UK and take into account the needs of the labor force on both sides. The WHO has developed a sample MoU which could be developed for this case.[176] The document could borrow elements from the MoU between the UK and the Philippines as a model (see Box 13) while including more specific language about increasing the supply of workers in Nigeria and facilitating health systems strengthening.

Consulting relevant stakeholders

The second phase will be to ensure that all relevant stakeholders have been consulted and had the opportunity to engage with the design of the Global Skill Partnership—the relevant stakeholders are listed in Table 6. While not all of these stakeholders need to be formally engaged in the implementation of the project, it is crucial that all are regularly consulted throughout the length of the project and given the opportunity to provide feedback on required course corrections. This will ensure that all stakeholders provide a positive rhetoric about the impact of the project which will be necessary given inevitable criticism from both within and outside government.

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176. Ibadat S. Dhillon, Margaret E. Clark, and Robert H. Kapp. 2010. "Innovations in Cooperation: A Guidebook on Bilateral Agreements to Address Health Worker Migration." Washington, DC: The Aspen Institute. https://www.who.int/workforcealliance/bilateral01.pdf?ua=1

Box 13. Memorandum of Understanding between the UK and the Philippines

In the early 2000s, the UK signed two agreements with the Philippines. The first, a recruitment agreement, was signed in 2002 and was to be valid for three years. It detailed the organization of the recruitment process and included elements of ethical recruitment and protection. The second, MoU, was signed in 2003 and ratified in 2004. This document was more encompassing and included three main aims: to facilitate the recruitment of Filipino health care professionals by the UK; to intensify bilateral exchanges of policy thinking with regard to nursing workforce development and best practice; and to involve professional staff and health care managers with a view to developing mutual recognition agreements.[1]

The MoU was never implemented, and the recruitment agreement was terminated in 2006. Ostensibly, this was because the NHS had fewer vacancies and as such a reduced demand for foreign workers.

In total, between 2002 and 2006, 175 nurses were recruited within the government-to-government agreement while many thousands more migrated outside this agreement. Makulec (2014) notes that the limited significance of the MoU could be due to the limited scope of the agreement as well as bureaucracy and costs linked to its implementation.[2]

Despite these setbacks, health worker migration between the Philippines and the UK is still active. Between March 2016 and March 2019, 4,000 Filipinos came to work in the NHS, becoming the second largest migrant group after Indians.[3] There are three unions that exist to support Filipino nurses with their personal and professional development while providing a support and advocacy network: the (official) Philippine Nurses Association[4] (which serves Filipino nurses worldwide) and two that serve UK-based nurses, the Filipino Nurses Association[5] and Filipino UK Nurses Community.[6]

Source: Agnieszka Makulec. 2014. Philippines' Bilateral Labour Arrangements on Health-care Professional Migration: In Search of Meaning. Report prepared for the EU-ILO project on "Decent Work Across Borders: A Pilot Project for Migrant Health Professionals and Skilled Workers". Makati City: International Labour Organization (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-manila/documents/publication/wcms_320609.pdf

1. James Buchan, Susanna Baldwin, and Miranda Munro. 2008. "Migration of Health Workers: The UK Perspective to 2006." OECD Health Working Papers No. 38. Paris: OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/228550573624
2. Agnieszka Makulec. 2014. Philippines' Bilateral Labour Arrangements on Health-care Professional Migration: In Search of Meaning. Report prepared for the EU-ILO project on "Decent Work Across Borders: A Pilot Project for Migrant Health Professionals and Skilled Workers". Makati City: International Labour Organization (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-manila/documents/publication/wcms_320609.pdf
3. Rivkah Brown. 2020. "More Filipino Healthcare Workers Have Died of Covid-19 in the UK Than the Philippines. Why?" *Novara Media*. December 16, 2020. https://novaramedia.com/2020/12/16/more-filipino-healthcare-workers-have-died-of-covid-19-in-the-uk-than-the-philippines-why/
4. Philippine Nurses Association, Inc. http://www.pna-ph.org/
5. Filipino Nurses Association United Kingdom. https://fnauk.org.uk/
6. Filipino UK Nurses Community. https://www.filipinouknurse.com/new-about-us

Table 6. Required stakeholders for a UK-Nigeria nursing Global Skill Partnership

	Nigeria	Role	UK	Role
Government	Federal Ministry of Health, Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMCN), Federal Ministry of Labor and Employment	Sign MOU, manage project	Department of Health and Social Care (DHSC)	Sign MOU, manage project
	Nigerian in Diaspora Commission	Ensure protection of "away" track nurses when they move abroad and liaise with all parties to harness the project for national development	Foreign, Commonwealth, and Development Office (FCDO)	Provide ODA, ensure development impact of project
Nongovernmental bodies	Nursing World Nigeria	Help with pre-selection processes and orientation using their existing platform; support Migrants Resource Center (MRC) with pre-departure counselling and orientation leveraging experience working with nurses	NHS Professionals, NHS Trusts, and other registered recruitment agents	Help design pre- and post-departure training (soft skills, language), support integration and further training of health workers once they arrive in the UK
	Nigerian Labor Congress	Ensure that both local and international labor standards are maintained for the protection of trainees and employees under the project	Tropical Health Education Trust (THET)	Design curriculum, bring qualified NHS trainers to support trainers in Nigeria, provide recommendations on origin country health systems strengthening
International bodies	World Health Organization (WHO), Nigeria	Support Federal Ministry of health to ensure that project design is compliant with WHO code for human resources recruitment.	World Health Organization (WHO), Global	Ensure design is WHO Code compliant, share best practice
	International Organization for Migration (IOM), Nigeria	Support Migrants Resource Center (MRC) with pre-departure counselling and training	International Organization for Migration (IOM), Global	Support implementation of pre- and post-departure training, share best practice, (possibly) provide funding
	International Labour Organization (ILO), Nigeria	Support Nigerian Labour Congress to ensure that labor standards are maintained in accordance with ILO Conventions relating to the protection of migrants' rights	International Labour Organization (ILO), Global	Provide oversight of labor standards, protect migrant rights
Professional bodies	Nursing and Midwifery Council of Nigeria (NMCN)	Verify that nurses are accredited and provide Letters of Good Standing where necessary, supporting the integration and qualification recognition of returnees	Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC)	Provide accreditation to curriculum, register Nigerian nurses

	Nigeria	Role	UK	Role
Employers	Federal Ministry of Health, State Ministries of Health, National Primary Healthcare Development Agency, Private Hospital owners	Recruit "home" track trainees post training, supporting the integration and qualification recognition of returnees	NHS Employers, NHS England and Ireland, and NHS Trusts willing to engage with the project	Recruit nurses in "away" track, facilitate OSCE completion, integration and further skills training
Trade unions	National Association of Nigerian Nurses and Midwives, Nigeria Labor Congress	Collaborate with relevant bodies to ensure protection of the labor rights of nurses selected for the project	Royal College of Nursing (RCN), UNISON, and Unite	Provide oversight of labor standards, protect migrant rights, ensure program is not used as a substitute for improvements in wages and working conditions
Diaspora organizations	Nigerians in Diaspora Commission	Support integration of Nigerians in "away" track through collaboration with UK diaspora groups, support reintegration of GSP returnees	AFFORD, Nigerian Nurses Charitable Association UK	Support integration of Nigerians in "away" track, facilitate remittance and skill transfer

Signing on interested employers

The third phase is to select employers to partner with in both Nigeria and the UK. In the former, employers of nurses and midwives are the ministries of health at both the federal and state levels, the National Primary Health Care Development Agency (NPHCDA) and operators of private hospitals. The NPHCDA oversees the training of health workers at the community level and is rightly placed to know where shortages exist and what specialties are most required to target those going through the "home" track. And while states with good existing training institutions could be useful, it will also make sense to work with states with a shortage of health workers so that trainees can be easily absorbed. It would be practical to cultivate partnerships that produce trainees for the North of Nigeria, as well as for rural areas. In the UK, it makes sense to pick NHS Trusts which are suffering from significant skill shortages but which are also situated in cities with large African diaspora. As described above, London is suffering from the most acute worker shortages. Within London, the borough of Southwark has the greatest number of citizens identifying as having an

African heritage, followed by Lambeth and Lewisham. Hence potential partners could be the three main NHS Trusts in these boroughs: Guys and St Thomas's NHS Foundation Trust, King's College Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, and Lewisham and Greenwich NHS Trust (respectively).

Developing curricula and training materials

The fourth phase is to consult with the NHS Trusts willing to engage with the project and the Ministry of Health in Nigeria to design the curriculum for the training of Nigerian nurses. The most difficult part of the design will be ensuring that the training course delivers in both the "home" and "away" track and conforms to the needs of the labor markets on both sides. Ideally, the program would deliver one curriculum that serves the needs of both countries. To create this, it will be necessary to conduct in-depth reviews of labor needs (both now and in the future) in both countries by conducting desk research and engaging with senior federations, chambers of commerce, employment agencies, and investment agencies. Such skills needs should be developed in line with national

employment strategies and contribute to the economic development goals of both countries. These analyses will also be useful far beyond the health sector, helping to identify skill needs across a range of sectors to support a range of potential partnerships.

In conducting research and analysis for this report, we suggest that the "home" track focuses on producing nurses who are specialized in the shortage occupations listed above. The "away" track should focus on preparing Nigerians to become primary care nurses in the UK. While existing consultations and desk research did not allow for the assessment of shortages in the categories of primary care nurses or community health workers in Nigeria, it did show significant degree of heterogeneity among the presence of training institutions by different regions. Design of both the "home" and "away" track should account for these regional variations in ensuring that those trained in the "home" track are equipped to fill shortages in lagging regions and those trained for the "away" track do not deplete much needed human resources away from lagging regions, particularly in the North.

Given the requirement within the NMC for both theoretical and practical training over a three-year period, the "away" track will need to facilitate both. The theoretical training should be developed with the NMC to ensure it adheres to the curriculum requirements of NMC's professional standards. The practical training could be encouraged through regular periods of exchange or by delivering two years of theoretical training in Nigeria and the last year of practical training in the UK. Such an approach requires long-term embedded engagement and may not be possible within the timeframe dictated by the UK government's campaign pledges. Therefore, in the first stage of the pilot, training could be focused those who have already graduated as nurses, midwives, or community health workers within Nigeria, providing them with one year of "top up" training within Nigeria to prepare them for the UK market. Concurrently, the UK could invest in broader health systems strengthening for those trainees preparing to be nurses within the Nigerian market.

Whichever route is chosen, those on the "away" track will also need language training. Nigeria is not included on the list of "majority English-speaking countries" that the NHS holds, and therefore Nigerians need to pass the IELTS or OET and obtain B1 or 7.0 and above. This training should be delivered by professional English language trainers, whether in person within Nigeria or remotely from the UK or other locations. It must also include an integration component which should provide information about entry into the UK economy and society. This could be delivered by IOM or other nongovernmental organizations such as diaspora groups who, perhaps, facilitate the cultural integration of refugees and asylum-seekers now. Both tracks will need to include some form of soft skills training too, in transfer thinking, problem-solving, and independent learning.

Designing contributions to broader systems

The training and mobility aspects of the project should be accompanied by ODA investments to improve the health system of Nigeria as a whole. Nigeria, as a signatory to the Abuja Declaration should be spending 15 percent of its annual budget on health; in 2018, it was just 3.89 percent.[177] As a result, the international community needs to support Nigeria to increase the amount of money it spends on health infrastructure and outcomes, while also directly supporting the improvement of both. There are two types of contributions that should be assessed as part of the project. The first contribution should support the Ministry of Health and its associated public health infrastructure to better train, recruit, and retain workers. A key challenge here is working with the Ministry of Health

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177. World Bank. "Current health expenditure (% of GDP) – Nigeria." https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.XPD.CHEX.GD.ZS?locations=NG

to support them in completing the WHO's National Health Workforce Accounts[178] and a health workforce migration management strategy. Second, the Ministry of Health needs to be supported to better spend and distribute the money it gets from the central treasury. This money should go into building and expanding educational facilities in areas with shortages, particularly for skills at either end of the spectrum: including increasing the stock of health care workers in lagging regions and those with advanced specialisms. Such moves will lead to the increased production of health workers within shortage occupations.

On recruitment and retention, there is much evidence that shows that the wages and working conditions of public health professionals need to be increased but that national budgets often do not allow for this. Instead, creative solutions could be found such as providing basic housing or a housing allowance, improving the quality of facilities, equipment, drugs, and medical supplies, and ensuring facilities are located where there is both demand but also access to good schools and other services. Such investments will also allow staff present within these facilities to add the value required (with ensuant benefits for patient outcomes). These latter interventions are especially needed for rural areas. Okoroafor et al (2018) have found a large shortage of workers in rural areas due to lower salaries, housing/living conditions, children's education, and opportunities for career advancement. Addressing these concerns should be done in line with the WHO's recommendations for rural retention, and bundles of interventions should be tested and evaluated.[179]

Such interventions should reflect the Government of Nigeria's priorities for the development of its health system. A scoping exercise should identify where support should be provided, along with indicators of success for such efforts—for example the completion of certain documents such as a health workforce strategy, or the expansion of essential services to a larger number of vulnerable people by a certain date. Strengthening such health systems should have "important multiplier effects towards fostering inclusive societies, including through creation of decent and productive jobs."[180]

Facilitating mobility

The sixth phase is to design the mobility component of the "away" track. Given the substantial shortages within the UK, and the additional benefits that will flow through the BLA, a permanent pathway is recommended with no active facilitation of return. Trainees should be brought in under the new Health and Care Visa and granted a three-year visa which can be extended if both the employer and employee are satisfied. As a result of this visa category, no support for return and reintegration should be needed, though some financing should be set aside should participants choose to return for any reason. They should be able to bring their dependents who should also have access to work visas. IOM could support with pre- and post-departure training, while NMC should help facilitate registration and post-arrival training. Those in the "away" track should also be connected to diaspora groups such as AFFORD when they arrive, to help facilitate their integration. Labor standards must be upheld

178. The National Health Workforce Accounts is a system by which countries progressively improve the availability, quality, and use of data on health workforce through monitoring of a set of indicators to support achievement of UHC, SDGs, and other health objectives. See https://www.who.int/hrh/statistics/nhwa/en/

179. Sunny Okoroafor, Daniel Salihu, Bello Innwa, Moses Ongom, Adam Akmat, Wondimagegnehu Alemu, Chukwuemeka Nwachukwu, and Joseph Bassey. 2018. "Retention of Frontline Health Workers in Remote and Rural Areas in Cross River State: A Discrete Choice Experiment." Abuja: World Health Organization (WHO).

180. World Health Organization (WHO). 2010. "Increasing access to health workers in remote and rural areas through improved retention: Global policy recommendations." Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO). https://www.who.int/hrh/retention/guidelines/en/

throughout; in particular governments should adhere to the Nursing Personnel Convention 1977 (No 149) and its recommendation 1977 (No 157) which outline key minimum standards.[181]

Evaluating the scheme (and potentially scaling)

As described in Section 2, the potential benefits from Global Skill Partnerships are vast and must be evaluated. This evaluation should be conducted at the beginning, middle, and end of the project, as well as some time after to ascertain the long-term impacts of the program. It is not enough to facilitate the mobility of such workers and then assume, due to the design of the training, that integration will be automatic. Negative experiences are likely to create a negative feedback loop, deterring future participants in the scheme from choosing the "away" track. Hence close attention should be paid to the integration prospects of such trainees.

Such activities could be conducted in-house (perhaps by the Research and Evidence Division of the Foreign, Commonwealth, and Development Office (FCDO)) or contracted externally. Crucially, such evaluations should use control groups for both employees and employers to understand the impact of the program in all countries and for all sets of people. Reiterating the above, understanding the impact of the project to employers is vital to being able to prove the importance to other employers and other governments.

It is likely that the FCDO will be required to test the impact of the approach on irregular migration from Nigeria. As noted above, there is little evidence showing the impact of opening new legal pathways on irregular migration flows.[182] The evidence that does exist shows that only by coupling legal pathways (at all skill levels, for all types of migration) with robust border enforcement can irregular migration be reduced. It is therefore unlikely that a pilot of say, 100 nurses, will reduce irregular migration. That being said, the implementation of a Global Skill Partnership could be used to test this link, by measuring the emigration intentions and actual emigration rates of both the control group and those on the "home" track.

Based on the evidence gathered, the main actors will need to decide whether and how to scale the pilot scheme. The Global Skill Partnership model is best implemented at a small scale in the early phases—perhaps bringing over 100 nurses in the first cohort. In this way, the assumptions inherent in the design can be tested and adapted. In the long run, given strong demand, there is potential to scale the project to thousands of nurses per year, perhaps also expanding opportunities to countries such as Ghana and Kenya. Over time, the unit cost of the project should decrease. Close attention should be paid to the project, and multiple evaluations conducted, to ensure the project is still having the desired impact. If the needs of employers change or diminish, the project must be ready to adapt to this new reality.

Risks and Mitigation Measures

Section 2 outlines a number of risks and potential mitigation measures that are inherent in all Global Skill Partnerships. In addition to this list, there are three specific risks which are likely to occur in the development of such a partnership in health care between the UK and Nigeria.

Those trained within the "home" track are not able to find meaningful work. Many countries of origin have sought out such partnerships as they are overproducing

181. International Labour Organization (ILO). 2020. "Guidelines for skills modules in bilateral labour migration agreements." Geneva: *International Labour Organization (ILO)*. https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/labour-migration/publications/WCMS_748723/lang--en/index.htm
182. Rachel Cooper. 2019. "Legal Pathways' Effects on Irregular Migration." *GSDRC Helpdesk Report*. August 2019. https://gsdrc.org/publications/legal-pathways-effects-on-irregular-migration/

health workers that they are unable to recruit within the local public systems.[183] Such surpluses should not be taken advantage of by countries of destination. Instead, the UK should work with Nigeria to invest in health systems strengthening and improve the capacity of the health sector in Nigeria to absorb new recruits. Two other elements should help mitigate this risk: one, carefully design the curriculum so graduates within the "home" track have the precise skills needed by local institutions and two, involve local institutions early in the process so that they can ensure the skills and qualifications of those in the "home" track meet the needs of such employers.

Those trained for the "home" track could use the new Health and Care Visa route to access UK employers. As mentioned above, the design of the new Health and Care Visa allows appropriately qualified workers to apply for roles in the NHS. If the Global Skill Partnership facilitated a certain level of training for Nigerians within the "home" track, they could use this training to apply for roles in the UK, thereby undermining the purpose of the "home" track. To overcome this, it may be necessary to ensure that those who are trained in the "home" track graduate with skills that fit the immediate needs of Nigeria. This is opposed to those who go through the "away" track, and graduate with skills needed in the UK. For example, by training those in the "home" track in demonstrated nursing categories with shortages, it is unlikely that those who go through this training will be able to access the Health and Care Visa without further training. The other option would be to require the UK to only recruit nurses who have gone through the "away" track, as part of a condition of the BLA.

No-one will be interested in choosing the "home" track, given the attractiveness of the UK market. The percentage of the world who migrate has, and remains,

small despite the large self-reported desire to move. Similarly, emigration from Nigeria remains extremely small. We can expect that not everyone wants to leave their home country due to family and other commitments, cultural preferences, and a desire to contribute to the societies and economies of their own country. These workers deserve the ability to do so, with increased skills and broader human capacity. Yet the earning potential within the "away" track is likely to be a strong lure, and the project should consider ways in which to even out the incentive structures. For example, the project could include a bonded scheme whereby those on the "away" track need to contribute to rural clinics for a year before they leave.

Funding

While Global Skill Partnerships can be financed in a number of ways, one of the guiding principles is that little to none of the financial burden should rest on the country of origin. This means that costs need to be borne by the country of destination itself, employers within the country of destination, and potentially also the trainees. Such a budget depends on the size of the Global Skill Partnership. As discussed above, it is generally recommended to start with a pilot, to test assumptions inherent within the model and address any misaligned incentive structures before scale. There is no firm guidance as to the size of such a pilot but an initial intake of approximately 100 nurses undergoing training would be a useful place to start.

The most obvious source of funding for a pilot program is the UK's ODA budget. The UK's Department for International Development (DFID) (now part of the new Foreign, Commonwealth, and Development Office (FCDO)) has long supported health systems strengthening in low- and middle-income countries.[184]

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183. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH. 2021. "Sustainable recruitment of nurses (Triple Win)" Last updated January 2021. https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/41533.html

184. Graeme Chisholm. 2019. "From Competition to Collaboration: Ethical leadership in an era of health worker mobility." London: *Tropical Health Education Trust (THET)*. https://www.thet.org/our-work/policy-work/from-competition-to-collaboration/

The UK signed the IHP+ Global Compact, committing to improving the training and infrastructure for health workers. As described above, DFID has funded programs run by organizations like THET to train health workers and support linkages between health institutions in the UK and abroad. Today, the FCDO is collaborating closely with DHSC, the Home Office, and other relevant departments to explore joint partnerships. Hence there should be enough political support cross-government to invest in such partnerships.

In late 2020, the UK government announced that it would no longer be spending 0.7 percent of GNI on ODA, but instead reducing this contribution to 0.5 percent. This will undoubtedly make it difficult for UK departments to argue for ODA to be spent on a project such as a Global Skill Partnership. That being said, the UK's aid strategy attempts to align development resources to the UK's national interest—addressing the socio-economic development of people in low- and middle-income countries while also ensuring such investments benefit the UK. Here, the Global Skill Partnership is a clear example of how ODA could be used to support socio-economic development in Nigeria (by increasing the number of health workers available and strengthening health systems) and support employers within the UK (by plugging skills gaps and thereby improving the productivity and effectiveness of the NHS).

It is important that any Global Skill Partnership adds to and complements the aid budget, rather than displacing other aid investments. As a result, it may be necessary to "top up" the UK's ODA spend with other sources of financing. This financing could come from other UK" track could be required to pay for their own migration related costs (such as visa fees, airfare, and initial set-up) which would then be recouped from their NHS salary. This could be something facilitated by their new employers, the respective NHS Trusts. Finally, there may be other sources of financing, such as private philanthropy, to explore.

Section 4:
Case Study.
A Global Skill Partnership in Construction between Nigeria and Germany

The demand for construction projects, particularly within middle-income countries, is rapidly increasing. By 2030, the global construction market is forecast to be worth $17.5 trillion, up by $8 trillion from today. This growth is creating huge skill shortages, both within Nigeria and Germany, which is slowing the productivity and competitiveness of construction firms. The following section outlines a Global Skill Partnership between Nigeria and Germany within construction, including an overview of the training and migration landscape in both countries, the specific design of such a partnership, and risks and mitigation measures. It focuses on building skills to satisfy labor market demands in both countries, notably general skills for the housing sector in Nigeria, and, in addition, supervisory and specialized skills for the German market.

Developing a Construction Migration Partnership

In 2015, Global Construction Perspectives and Oxford Economics found that by 2030, the global construction market is forecast to be worth $17.5 trillion, up by $8 trillion from today. Seventy percent of this growth is expected to occur in just eight countries: China, the United States, India, Indonesia, the United Kingdom, Mexico, Canada, and Nigeria.[185] This is the first time that Nigeria has appeared within their rankings and showcases the power of Lagos which is on track to become Africa's biggest city. Despite COVID-19, spending on

construction activity has increased in recent years, and the sector is on track to grow by 35 percent by 2030.[186]

The construction market is difficult to define. In 2003, the Pearce Report provided two definitions, one narrowly focusing on on-site construction activity, and one broader, "also encompassing the quarrying of construction materials, the manufacture of building materials, the sale of the final products and associated professional services such as facilities management."[187] In this report, we are going to primarily concern ourselves with the narrow definition, and the skills required by construction professionals on building sites.

Within this narrow definition, three main forms of construction arise: civil construction (e.g. roads, highways, bridges), industrial construction (e.g. oil and gas platforms, mining infrastructure), and residential and commercial construction (e.g. single-family dwellings and office buildings). All three of these forms are labor intensive and it has been noted that they tend to generate more jobs (direct, indirect, and induced) than other sectors.[188] However they are also often closely linked to the economic performance of a country overall which can lead to volatile swings in skill shortages and demand as economies shift.[189]

Worldwide, the construction industry employs approximately 7 percent of the workforce. It is a major source of employment in countries of origin, with around 70 million people working in construction in traditional aid recipient countries.[190] Even in the EU-28 countries

185. Global Construction Perspectives and Oxford Economics. 2015. "Global construction 2030: A global forecast for the construction industry to 2030." *London: Global Construction Perspectives and Oxford Economics.* https://www.ciob.org/industry/policy-research/resources/global-construction-CIOB-executive-summary

186. Morgan Condon. 2020. "Global construction sector to grow 35% to 2030 on urbanisation, softer pandemic impact." *Independent Commodity Intelligence Services.* September 11, 2020. https://www.icis.com/explore/resources/news/2020/09/11/10551509/global-construction-sector-to-grow-35-to-2030-on-urbanisation-softer-pandemic-impact

187. Andrew Foulkes and Les Ruddock. "Defining the scope of the construction sector." https://www.irbnet.de/daten/iconda/CIB16522.pdf

188. Andrés Mella and Matthew Savage. 2018. "Construction Sector Employment in Low Income Countries." London: *Infrastructure & Cities for Economic Development.* http://icedfacility.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/Report_Construction-Sector-Employment-in-LICs_Final.pdf

189. Michelle Buckley, Adam Zendel, Jeff Biggar, Lia Fredericksen, and Jill Wells. 2016. "Migrant work and employment in the construction sector." Geneva: *International Labour Organization* (ILO). http://engineersagainstpoverty.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/06/ILO-Migrant-Work-and-Employment-in-the-Construction-Sector.pdf

190. Andrés Mella and Matthew Savage. 2018. "Construction Sector Employment in Low Income Countries." London: *Infrastructure & Cities for Economic Development.* http://icedfacility.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/Report_Construction-Sector-Employment-in-LICs_Final.pdf

it is estimated that 9.5 percent of the workforce operate within construction activities. Most are employed within a large number of quite small enterprises and a relatively few large ones.[191] Many roles within the construction sector are low-paid, low-status, temporary, informal, and suffer from poor working conditions (Figure 25).[192] This is due to certain characteristics of the construction industry as a whole, including its competitiveness, reliance on sub-contractors, small margins, and under-regulation by national governments.[193] These characteristics may lead to a lack of interest among local workers in countries of destination in investing in construction training, while increasing reliance on migrant workers.

Construction Worker Migration

Migrants, both temporary and permanent, have long been the cornerstone of construction markets. As

Figure 25. Roles within the construction supply chain
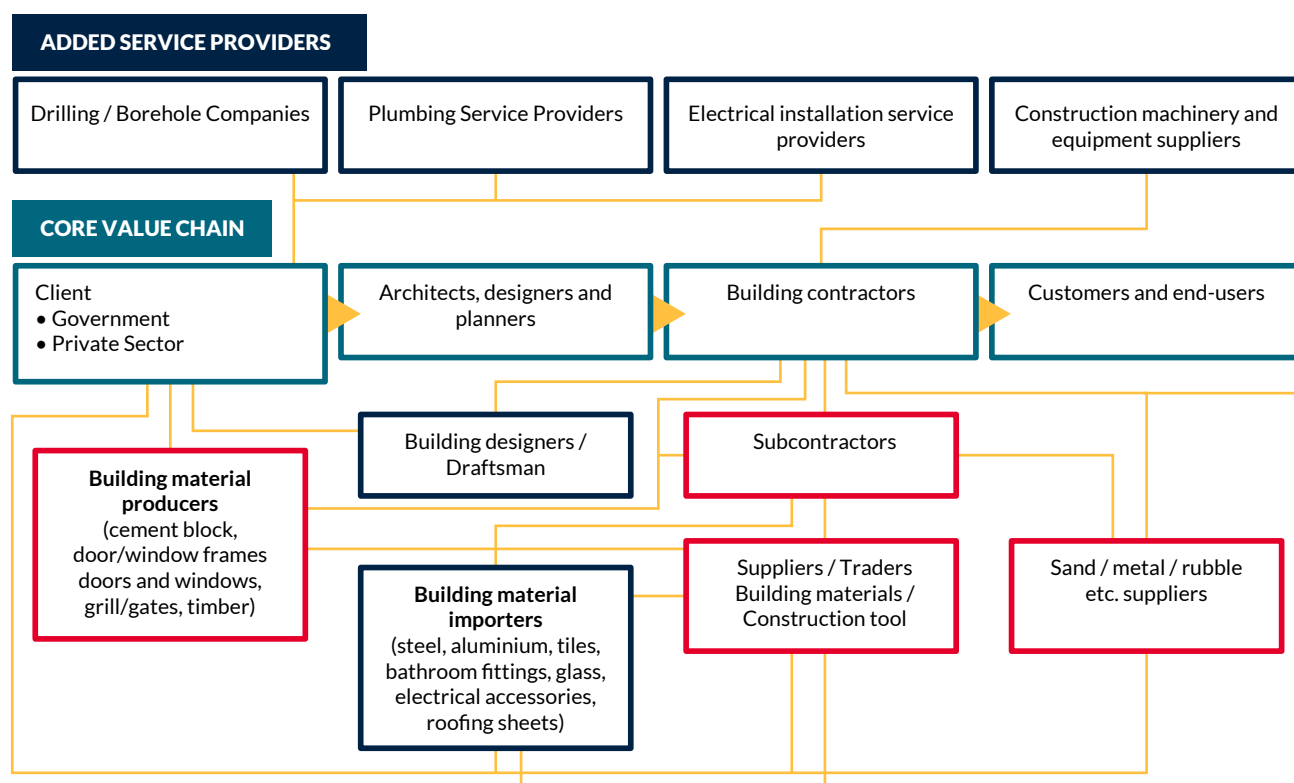
Source: International Labour Organization (ILO) 2004. "Good working conditions, good business? : An analysis of Zambia's building construction market system." Geneva: International Labour Organization (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_ent/---ifp_seed/documents/briefingnote/wcms_364076.pdf#

Note: Red boxes indicate poor working conditions in value chain actors.

191. Eurostat. 2015. "Construction statistics – NACE Rev.2." Data from October 2015. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/pdfscache/10089.pdf

192. Jill Wells. 2004. "Informality in the construction sector in developing countries." Construction Management and Economics 25(1) 87-93. https://doi.org/10.1080/01446190600601339

193. Roel Nieuwenkamp. 2016. "The Global Construction Sector Needs a Big Push on Corporate Responsibility." *Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development* (OECD). August 22, 2016. http://oecdinsights.org/2016/08/22/global-construction-sector-corporate-responsibility/

outlined above, a variety of reasons including the labor- and skill-intensive nature of the industry and its necessary flexibility, means that relying on imported labor is key to its success. The ILO has identified three reasons why construction employers may look abroad for workers: (i) the lack of a skilled workforce at home (due to a lower absolute number of people and the skills they possess); (ii) the rapid growth in the number of projects outstripping the ability of the education system to keep pace; and (iii) the increase in the size and complexity of projects, which requires a specific skill set to execute.[194]

These three reasons neatly highlight the reasons for the significant skill shortages seen in the construction sectors in both countries of migrant origin and destination. Countries of origin, such as Nigeria, are experiencing rapid growth in the number of building projects within their countries. As will be explored below, this is requiring an increase in the absolute number of skilled workers available for employers within the local economy. In addition, multinational companies are increasingly recognizing the investment potential of markets such as Nigeria and are therefore requiring skilled professionals to facilitate their expansion.

Box 14. Construction worker migration to the UK

The construction sector in the UK employs 2.2 million people, 10 percent of whom are migrants (7 percent from EU27 and 3 percent from non-EU countries). Most migrant workers were attracted to the UK due to the availability of work, a lack of opportunities in their country of origin, and more career development opportunities. Those in traditional roles tend to come from Eastern Europe, countries such as Poland, Romania, and the Ukraine, while those in professional roles come from Western Europe, countries such as Italy, France, Spain, and Germany.[1]

Between 2013 and 2017, the housing supply in the UK grew by 74 percent and is expected to grow even further. It is estimated that a further 168,500 jobs will be created by 2023. Yet with the UK's exit from the EU, many construction employers are becoming concerned about the availability of labor.[2] A survey of firms done in 2018 found that almost half felt it would become harder to recruit skilled staff. There have been calls to do more to dispel myths about and improve wages within the construction sector to ensure it is more attractive to UK citizens.[3] In the short-term, the sector will continue to rely on migrants and, perhaps, increasingly informality.[4]

Source: Merve Sancak. 2020. "Restrictions to immigration and work in the UK construction industry." *SPERI*. February 19, 2020. http://speri.dept.shef. ac.uk/2020/02/19/restrictions-to-immigration-and-work-in-the-uk-construction-industry/

1. Adam Evans, Mark Winterbotham, Catherine O'Driscoll, Naomi Morrice, Anne Green, Catherine Harris, and David Owen. 2018. "Migration in the UK Construction and Built Environment Sector." London: *Construction Industry Training Board* (CICTB). https://www.citb.co.uk/documents/research/citb_migration_green_paper_july_2018.pdf
2. Merve Sancak. 2020. "Restrictions to immigration and work in the UK construction industry." *SPERI*. February 19, 2020. http://speri.dept.shef. ac.uk/2020/02/19/restrictions-to-immigration-and-work-in-the-uk-construction-industry/
3. Brian Green. 2015. "Analysis on Migration in the Construction Sector." *Chartered Institute of Building* (CIOB). Last updated March 3, 2015. https://www.ciob.org/industry/research/Analysis-Migration-Construction-Sector
4. Merve Sancak. 2020. "Restrictions to immigration and work in the UK construction industry." *SPERI*. February 19, 2020. http://speri.dept.shef. ac.uk/2020/02/19/restrictions-to-immigration-and-work-in-the-uk-construction-industry/

194. Michelle Buckley, Adam Zendel, Jeff Biggar, Lia Fredericksen, and Jill Wells. 2016. "Migrant work and employment in the construction sector." Geneva: *International Labour Organization* (ILO). http://engineersagainstpoverty.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/06/ILO-Migrant-Work-and-Employment-in-the-Construction-Sector.pdf

Both of these markets therefore require a significant expansion of, and investment in, the formal training architecture.

Countries of destination, on the other hand, fall within reason one: an absolute lack of workers available to work within the sector. Partly, this can be attributed to the aging demographics highlighted earlier, but it can also partly be attributed to the image of the sector within high-income countries as low-paid and low-skill, which reduces demand for training. This has led to significant skill shortages within the construction sector. Forty percent of European construction employers have reported experiencing bottlenecks in recruiting workers, with the greatest demand within the "skilled" bracket of role.[195] As a result, some European countries have attempted to attract labor from abroad.

Promoting a Genuine Development Benefit

Despite the strong need for construction workers in both countries of origin and destination, there has been little discussion of the role that migration (and skill partnerships) could play in facilitating economic development. The importance of this debate has been renewed by the expansion of low-carbon technologies and the push towards "Green New Deal" style infrastructure. Such investments will require new, skilled, workers in all countries and migration provides a

unique opportunity to build these skills.[196] In spite of COVID-19, demand within the sector remains strong and is likely to rise. This is, therefore, an excellent time to explore skill partnerships within the sector to meet skills needs on both sides.

Construction in Nigeria

Nigeria needs to invest $3 trillion in the next 30 years—or around $100 billion every year between now and 2045—to close existing deficits in infrastructure.[197] The country's basic physical infrastructure deficit severely hampers prospects for economic growth and development. For example, only 16 percent of Nigeria's roads are paved, compared on average to half the roads in the world's lower middle-income countries.[198] Similarly, with a population growth rate of 2.6 percent a year, demand for affordable housing in Nigeria is increasing, resulting in a housing gap of an estimated 17 million units. An annual production of 850,000 housing units will be needed to close this gap over the next 20 years.[199]

For Nigeria to bring up the level of investments in infrastructure to the target of 70 percent of the GDP by 2043, the construction sector will have to play a key role.[200] Despite Nigeria's worst economic recession in four decades in 2020, the construction sector contributed to 8.4 percent of Nigeria's nominal GDP in the

195. Cedefop. 2015. "Skill shortages and gaps in European enterprises: striking a balance between vocational education and training and the labour market." Cedefop reference series; No 102. Luxembourg: Publications Office. http://dx.doi.org/10.2801/042499

196. Ipek Genscu, Avery Parsons Grayson, and Nathaniel Mason with Marta Foresti. 2020. "Migration and skills for the low-carbon transition." Overseas Development Institute (ODI) Working paper 584. London: *Overseas Development Institute* (ODI). https://www.odi.org/publications/17199-migration-and-skills-low-carbon-transition

197. International Finance Corporation (IFC). 2020. "Creating Markets in Nigeria. Crowding in the Private Sector: Nigeria's Path to Faster Job Creation and Structural Transformation." Washington, DC: *World Bank*. https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/673c0e3f-3e77-4ddc-923b-903c5db6af15/CPSD-Nigeria.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=nkzEpgy

198. Julia Bello-Schünemann and Alex Porter. 2017. "Building the future: Infrastructure in Nigeria until 2040." Institute for Security Studies (ISS) West Africa Report 21, November 2017. Pretoria: *Institute for Security Studies* (ISS). https://issafrica.s3.amazonaws.com/site/uploads/war-21.pdf

199. International Finance Corporation (IFC). 2020. "Creating Markets in Nigeria. Crowding in the Private Sector: Nigeria's Path to Faster Job Creation and Structural Transformation." Washington, DC: *World Bank*. https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/673c0e3f-3e77-4ddc-923b-903c5db6af15/CPSD-Nigeria.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=nkzEpgy

200. Oxford Business Group. 2019. "Nigerian government to align national development and infrastructure." Chapter in "The Report: Nigeria 2019." Oxford: *Oxford Business Group*. https://oxfordbusinessgroup.com/overview/strengthening-links-government-plans-aim-align-national-economic-development-and-infrastructure

fourth quarter, and 2 percentage points higher than it did a year ago.[201]

Nigeria's Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP), 2017-2020, earmarks the construction sector as one of the sectors with the potential to generate employment for the growing number of youths in the country. The construction sector was also listed as one of the six priority sectors to ensure sustainable economic growth and development in Nigeria, with a specific policy objective to "invest in technical and vocational training for craftsmen (electricians, masons, carpenters, etc.) needed by the local industry".[202] Within the construction sector, the EGRP also strives to construct 2,700 affordable housing units in the short term to create 105,000 direct jobs a year.

The Workforce

According to the 2018-19 NLSS, around 3 percent of the active working-age population between the ages of 15 and 64 in Nigeria were employed in the construction sector. Thirty-nine percent of those working in the construction sector were employed in urban areas whereas 61 percent were employed in rural areas. Less than 16 percent of Nigerians working in the construction sector have completed tertiary education, 57 percent have completed secondary education, and 19 percent have completed primary education. Eighty-four percent of those working in the construction sector were between the ages of 25 and 64 and an overwhelming 96 percent were men.

In a 2016 Skills Gap Assessment of 1,707 business establishments within six priority sectors conducted by the government, housing was enlisted as one of the priority sectors. The housing sector had the highest number of open vacancies among the six sectors analyzed with 32 percent open vacancies at the time of the survey. The housing sector was also the sector identified with the most hard-to-fill vacancies identified by the business establishments with 20 percent of the vacancies identified as hard-to-fill.[203] Citing Nigeria's Industrial Revolution Plan (2014), the report mentions "Nigeria has a shortfall of requisite skills in local artisans involved within the Nigerian building industry. Large housing projects today depend on migrant construction workers from other West African countries to fill the skills gap."

Construction Management and Training

The lead regulator for Nigeria's construction industry is the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing (FMWH). FMWH oversees civil engineering projects and housing, with the Federal Housing Authority (FHA) co-managing the housing sector. The FMWH also oversees the Federal Road Maintenance Agency (FERMA) and the sector councils including the Council for the Regulation of Engineering in Nigeria (COREN), the Surveyors Registration Council of Nigeria (SRCN), and the Council of Registered Builders of Nigeria (CORBON).

CORBON leads the industry's skills training ecosystem and has the mandate of Sector Skills Council under the National Skills Qualification Framework (NSQF). The National Occupational Standards (NOS) has been established and validated for seven construction trades: Carpentry and Joinery, Electrical Installation, Masonry Work, Painting and Decoration, Plumbing in Construction, Tiling, and Decorative Stonework. The NOS is approved by the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) as a prerequisite for curriculum development and content delivery, assessment,

201. Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics. https://www.nigerianstat.gov.ng/
202. Nigerian Ministry of Budget and National Planning. 2017. "Economic Recovery & Growth Plan, 2017-2020." Abuja: Nigerian Ministry of Budget and National Planning. https://nigeriaembassygermany.org/mosaic/_M_userfiles/Economic-Recovery-Growth-Plan-2017-2020.pdf
203. United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO). 2017. "Skills Gap Assessment in Six Priority Sectors of Nigeria Economy." October 2016. Vienna: *UNIDO*. https://open.unido.org/api/documents/6055563/download/Skills%20Gap%20Assessment%20in%20Nigeria%20-%20Final%20Report.pdf

certification and licensing, as well as for remunerations of construction artisans.[204]

There are two major unions in the industry. The Construction and Civil Engineering Senior Staff Association (CCESSA) which is affiliated to the Trade Union Congress (TUC) works to protect the labor interests of senior staff in the industry.[205] The National Union of Civil Engineering, Construction, Furniture and Wood Workers (NUSECFWW) represents the interest of workers in the sector generally and is affiliated to the Nigerian Labor Congress (NLC).[206]

The construction industry suffers from an inexhaustive shortage of equipment operators, glaziers, insulating specialist, asphalt/tar sprayers, fabricators, scaffolding specialists, suspended ceiling specialists, plumbers, electricians, roofers, tilers, safety officers, masons, bricklayers, carpenters, and painters.[207] This shortage stems from the limited availability of an adequately trained, skilled, and productive workforce. This is caused by lack of training and retraining, aging workforce, and an industry that no longer appeals to young and potentially qualified manpower. There is also poor funding and ineffective TVET training, and a poor image of construction labor as work done by less intelligent people. In addition, the development and introduction of new technologies and materials requiring higher skills means that many construction workers need upskilling.[208]

Training is provided under formal and informal settings. Universities, polytechnics, and other academic institutions provide formal training. Aimed at addressing the manpower needs in the industry, in 2014 the federal government established the National Institute of Construction Technology and Management (NICTM) in Uromi in Edo State to offer Certificate courses in areas such as Carpentry and Joinery, Concreting and Masonry, Electrical Installation Works, Plumbing and Pipe Fitting, POP Works in Building, Welding and Fabrication, among others; and Diploma courses in Architectural Technology, Building Technology, Electrical & Electronics Engineering Technology, Quantity Surveying, among others.[209] In 2019, the N-Power Build program commenced skills training, targeting 75,000 unemployed youth (18-35 years). The 3-month training focuses on Furniture Making and Design, Electrical Maintenance and Repairs, Building and Construction services, Plumbing, and Welding.[210] The implementation team collaborates with CORBON and has impacted 30,000 participants.[211]

Informal training is provided by training platforms such as Builders Hub Vocational Academy (BHVA), which provides in-person technical training on Plumbing, Electrical Works, Painting, Carpentry, Interior Design, and Masonry.[212] Many artisans also learn from "masters" who agree to teach them on the job while the trainees work without pay. Such trainees eventually often become formally employed within the industry.

204. Council of Registered Builders of Nigeria (CORBON). http://corbon.gov.ng/
205. Construction & Civil Engineering Senior Staff Association (CCESSA). http://www.ccessa.org.ng/ccessa
206. National Union of Civil Engineering, Construction, Furniture & Wood Workers (NUSECFWW). https://www.facebook.com/National-union-of-civil-engineering-construction-furniture-woodworkers-160751081092357/
207. Mohammed Isah Leje, Bandi Shamsulhadi, and Abdullah Fadhli. 2019. "Supply Of Skilled Workers Towards Performance Of Construction Organisations In Nigeria." *International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research* 8(12): 609-616. http://www.ijstr.org/final-print/dec2019/Supply-Of-Skilled-Workers-Towards-Performance-Of-Construction-Organisations-In-Nigeria.pdf; Fortune Aigbe, Ochei Ailemen Ikpefan, and C.C. Egolum. 2019. "Technical and Skilled Manpower as Prerequisite for Enhanced Productivity in the Construction Industry." *International Journal of Civil Engineering and Technology* 10(3): 726-742. March 2019. http://www.iaeme.com/MasterAdmin/UploadFolder/IJCIET_10_03_070-2/IJCIET_10_03_070-2.pdf; and E.M. Awe, P. Stephenson, and A. Griffith. 2010. "Impact of Vocational Training on Skilled Labour shortage within the Nigerian Construction Sector." https://www.irbnet.de/daten/iconda/CIB_DC24215.pdf
208. Ade Abdulquadri Bilau, Musibau Akintunde Ajagbe, and Habila H. Kigbu. 2015. "Review of Shortage of Skilled Craftsmen in Small and Medium Construction Firms in Nigeria." *Journal of Environment and Earth Science* 5(15): 98-110. https://core.ac.uk/reader/32226550
209. National Institute of Construction Technology and Management (NICTM). http://www.nict.edu.ng/
210. N-Power Build. https://www.npower.gov.ng/n-build.html
211. Council of Registered Builders of Nigeria (CORBON). "N-Power Build Programme." http://corbon.gov.ng/npower-build
212. Builders Hub Vocational Academy (BHVA). https://bhubcollege.com/

The private sector represented by the Federation of Construction Industry (FOCI) recently established a Skills Academy, commencing with the enrolment of masonry trainees in Abuja in Q1 2021, and plans to expand to Lagos and Port Harcourt in July 2021.[213] FOCI is the umbrella association of over 125 local construction firms with a combined asset of more than $10 billion as of 2013.[214] In addition, Lafarge Africa PLC in partnership with Industrial Training Fund (ITF) and the Nigeria Employers Consultative Association (NECA) recently commenced a three-year technical skills development training program.[215] The program is targeted at youth, especially those of the company's host communities, between the ages of 18 and 24 years, who must have obtained at least 3 credit passes in Physics, Mathematics and any other subject in the West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) or the National Examination Council (NECO) examinations and at least a pass in English language. The program aims to train youth to become self-employed or employable in vocational areas including Mechanical Maintenance, Electrical Maintenance, Instrumentation and Automation, Automobile Maintenance, and Welding and Fabrication; as well as to promote a public-private sector model in vocational and technical skills training.[216]

Migration

Unfortunately, there is no good data regarding the presence of Nigerian construction professionals abroad. Certainly, key countries of destination for Nigerian migrants see large numbers of foreign personnel working within their construction sectors.

For example, in the US, immigrant workers comprise nearly 25 percent of the overall construction workforce and account for an average of 30 percent in the construction trades.[217] There are over 10 million

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213. Nigerian Engineer. 2020. "FOCI Unveils Academy to Tackle Unemployment." Posted December 9, 2020. http://www.nigerianengineer.com/2020/12/foci-unveils-academy-to-tackle-unemployment

214. Oxford Business Group. 2019. "Increased demand and investment have driven rapid expansion in Nigeria's construction sector." Chapter in "The Report: Nigeria 2019." Oxford: *Oxford Business Group*. https://oxfordbusinessgroup.com/overview/increased-demand-and-investment-have-driven-rapid-expansion-nigerias-construction-sector

215. Lafarge Africa PLC. 2021. Advert for A 3-Year Technical Skills Development Training Programme." https://www.lafarge.com.ng/sites/nigeria/files/atoms/files/advert-for-apprenticeship-program-january-2021_1.pdf

216. The training takes place at Lafarge Africa Training Centres located in Ashaka (Delta State), Ewekoro (Ogun State) and Mfamosing (Cross River State).

217. Kim Slowey. 2018. "Percentage of immigrant construction workers on the rise." *Construction Dive*. January 26, 2018. https://www.constructiondive.com/news/percentage-of-immigrant-construction-workers-on-the-rise/515657/

construction workers from South Asia in the Gulf countries, which have a large share of nonnationals.[218] The relevant skills gap highlighted in the construction sector as well as the growing demand for construction workers in destination countries, makes the sector suitable for implementing labor mobility schemes that cater to the shortages in Nigeria and abroad.
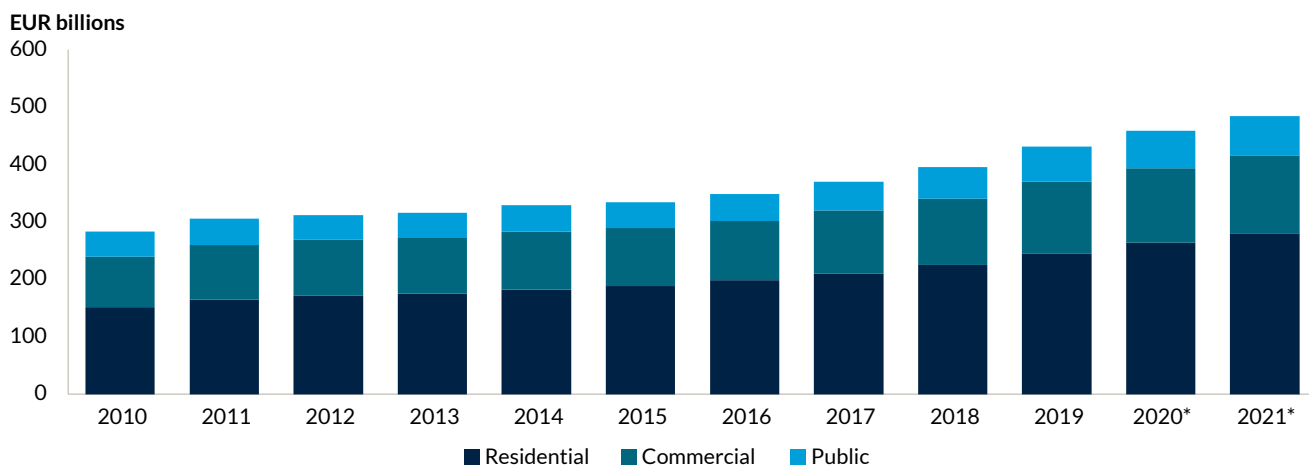
Construction in Germany

Germany is Europe's leading construction market and home to the continent's largest building stock. Population growth, demographic changes, and a favorable economic environment are all driving high demand for residential and commercial buildings, with a recent boom in green infrastructure and investment.[219] Prior to COVID-19 it was estimated that the residential construction industry was to reach €499.4 billion by 2024, a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 7.6 percent, and commercial infrastructure to record 7.3 percent growth.[220] COVID-19 has hit the industry, with successive market contractions throughout 2020.[221] Yet housing activity continued to grow regardless (Figure 26), and some foresee a robust recovery.[222]

The Workforce

In 2016, the European Construction Sector Observatory noted that the number of people employed in the German construction sector has grown rapidly with the total figure now around 2.4 million people.[223] The majority of people work in Western Germany despite

Figure 26. The growth of the construction sector in Germany

Source: GTAI. "Building Industry Landscape." https://www.gtai.de/gtai-en/invest/industries/building-industry#77214

Note: Construction volume in Germany. Total by type, in EUR billion (in prices at the time). 2020 and 2021 are projected.

218.   In the United Arab Emirates (UAE), 88 percent of residents are non-citizens, and foreign nationals represent 75 percent and 74 percent of Qatar's and Kuwait's resident populations, respectively.

219.   GTAI. "Building Industry Landscape." https://www.gtai.de/gtai-en/invest/industries/building-industry#77214

220.   Research and Markets. 2020. "German Construction Industry Worth ~$500 Billion by 2024 (COVID-19 Revised) - Market Insights, Trends and Opportunity Assessment." Posted September 2, 2020. https://www.globenewswire.com/news-release/2020/09/02/2087588/0/en/German-Construction-Industry-Worth-500-Billion-by-2024-COVID-19-Revised-Market-Insights-Trends-and-Opportunity-Assessment.html

221.   Global Construction Review (GCR). 2020. "German construction sector suffers the effects of long Covid." November 9, 2020. https://www.globalconstructionreview.com/news/german-construction-sector-suffers-effects-long-co/

222.   Global Data. 2020. "Construction is fastest growing sector in Germany." June 2, 2020. https://www.globaldata.com/construction-is-fastest-growing-sector-in-germany/
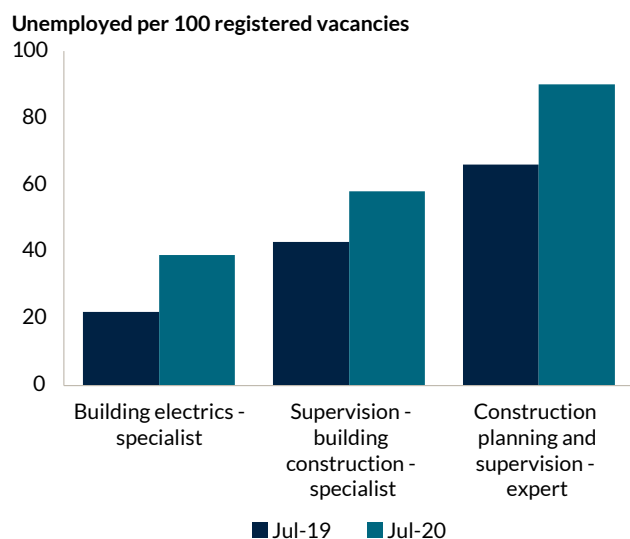
223.   European Commission. 2018. "European Construction Sector Observatory: Country profile Germany." Ref. Ares(2018)3474102 - 29/06/2018. https://ec.europa.eu/docsroom/documents/23744/attachments/1/translations/en/renditions/pdf

attempts to foster economic development in the Eastern regions.[224] At this same time, between 2011 and 2015, the number of job vacancies increased by 18.8 percent and the number of people undertaking training in the sector decreased by one percent.[225] This, coupled with the aging nature of staff in the sector, is leaving unfilled vacancies. Bruncker Juricic et al (2021) estimated that there were 147,208 job vacancies in the sector in Q4 of 2019, and this has only dropped slightly to 116,882 during the pandemic (Q2 2020), the highest rate in the EU.[226] A survey by Bauberufe in July 2020 found that there were only 39 suitably qualified people for every 100 registered jobs.[227] These vacancies exist within companies of all sizes, and within a wide variety of roles, but are most pronounced among those who have completed vocational training. This lack of skilled labor not only threatens the productivity of the construction sector but also its green transition.[228]

Tackling these shortages takes three broad approaches: (1) Make the construction industry more attractive to young people—for example, the regional construction federations of BadenWürttemberg and Nordrhein-Westfalen have launched a common campaign to improve the negative image of the industry; (2) focus on training activities within the industry under the banner of the registered association "Deutschland baut! e.V";[229] and (3) loosen immigration restrictions to attract EU and third country construction workers.

Figure 27. Bottleneck vacancies

Unemployed per 100 registered vacancies

Legend: ■ Jul-19 ■ Jul-20

Categories: Building electrics - specialist; Supervision - building construction - specialist; Construction planning and supervision - expert

Source: KOFA. 2020. "KOFA-Kompakt: Bauberufe im Juli 2020 – Corona-Spezial." Berlin: KOFA. https://www.kofa.de/service/publikationen/detailseite/news/kofa-kompakt-bauberufe-im-juli-2020-corona-spezial

Note: KOFA calculations based on data from the Federal Employment Agency, 2020.

Construction Management and Training

The German education system is structured differently from Anglo-Saxon or Scandinavian models. A strict distinction exists between vocational education and university courses. Students need to choose their route at age 10 and it can be difficult to switch between the two routes. Vocational education policy is coordinated at the federal level with a framework curricula which is set for 328 occupations.[230] These curricula are developed in collaboration with employers, employees, educators, and union representatives. It ensures that everyone going through a construction training program is learning the same skills at roughly the same time.

224. Statistisches Bundesamt. 2020. "In construction industry, number of persons in employment residing in Germany down 300,000 on 1991." Press release #061. September 25, 2020. https://www.destatis.de/EN/Press/2020/09/PE20_N061_44.html

225. European Commission. 2018. "European Construction Sector Observatory: Country profile Germany." Ref. Ares(2018)3474102 - 29/06/2018. https://ec.europa.eu/docsroom/documents/23744/attachments/1/translations/en/renditions/pdf

226. Belinda Brucker Juricic, Mario Galic, and Sasa Marenjak. 2021. "Review of the Construction Labour Demand and Shortages in the EU." Buildings 11(17). https://www.mdpi.com/2075-5309/11/1/17

227. KOFA. 2020. "KOFA-Kompakt: Bauberufe im Juli 2020 – Corona-Spezial." Berlin: *KOFA*. https://www.kofa.de/service/publikationen/detailseite/news/kofa-kompakt-bauberufe-im-juli-2020-corona-spezial

228. Claire Stam. 2019. "Skilled workers shortage could stall Germany's progress on climate targets." *Euractiv*. December 10, 2019. https://www.euractiv.com/section/energy/news/skilled-workers-shortage-could-stall-germanys-progress-on-climate-targets/

229. European Commssion. "European Construction Sector Observatory." https://ec.europa.eu/growth/sectors/construction/observatory_en

230. Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung. 2015. "Bekanntmachung des Verzeichnisses der anerkannten Ausbildungsberufe und des Verzeichnisses der zuständigen Stellen." Published June 19, 2015. https://www.bibb.de/dokumente/pdf/Verzeichnis_anerk_AB_2015.pdf

The majority of vocational education takes place in a "dual system" consisting of "work-based learning in the form of apprenticeships within a company supported by school-based learning in vocational schools run by the federal states."[231] This system offers training in three basic areas of construction: civil engineering (underground), civil engineering (above ground), and interiors and finishings.[232] Most qualifications within this field take three years, with the learning becoming more and more work-based. Companies enter into apprenticeship contracts with their employees and pay them an allowance while supporting in-company training.[233] Exams are held in the middle and at the end of the apprenticeship, to ensure on-the-job learning. About two-thirds of apprentices are hired by the company in which they worked during their training.[234]

Once someone finishes their qualification, they are given a license to operate by their local Chamber of Crafts. In Germany, these Chambers of Crafts, along with the Chambers of Industry and Commerce (IHKs), act as industry lobby groups while also organizing vocational training and providing legal support to companies in the sector.[235] Each area of Germany has its own Chamber of Crafts and they each make decisions on licensing fairly independently. Trade unions in Germany are organized under the umbrella of the German Trade Union Confederation (DGB). Of the eight affiliates, IG Bauen-Agrar-Umwelt (IG BAU)[236],

looks after workers within the construction, engineering, agriculture, and environment sectors.

Migration

Germany has been recruiting foreign workers for its construction industry since the mid-1950s.[237] In 2019, 15.4 percent of construction employees were foreigners, higher than the occupation average of 9.3 percent.[238] The majority are qualified in civil engineering and come from Eastern Europe and other European countries. Yet, in keeping with broader trends, Germany is being forced to look elsewhere. The German Research Institute of the Federal Employment Agency (IAB) and Coburg University have estimated that there will need to be 146,000 more third country migrants coming to Germany every year to meet demand, and the Association of German Chambers of Commerce and Industry (DIHK) thinks this figure is conservative.[239]

Despite this need, it was difficult for third country workers with mid-skill qualifications to access the German market. As a result, in March 2020, Germany enacted a new Skilled Immigration Act.[240] The new law allows anyone with a vocational qualification, in any subject, to move to Germany and obtain a work visa as long as they satisfy two conditions: (1) The qualification must be recognized in Germany, and (2) they

231. Qualifications Wales. 2018. "An international comparison study: A supplementary report to accompany the Sector Review of Qualifications and the Qualifications System in Construction and the Built Environment." Newport: *Qualifications Wales*. https://www.qualificationswales.org/media/3149/construction-international-comparison.pdf

232. SusBuild. "Dual vocational training in Germany." https://www.susbuild.eu/good-practice/dual-vocational-training-in-germany-en/

233. Apprenticeship Toolbox. "Funding Arrangements in Germany." https://www.apprenticeship-toolbox.eu/financing/funding-arrangements/47-funding-arrangements-in-germany

234. SusBuild. "Dual vocational training in Germany." https://www.susbuild.eu/good-practice/dual-vocational-training-in-germany-en/

235. GTAI. "Chambers of Industry and Commerce (IHKs) and Chambers of Crafts." https://www.gtai.de/gtai-en/invest/investment-guide/establishing-a-company/chambers-of-industry-and-commerce-ihks-and-chambers-of-crafts-73408

236. Industriegewerkschaft Bauen-Agrar-Umwelt. https://igbau.de/

237. Andreas Goldberg, Dora Mourinho, and Ursula Kulke. 1995. "Labour market discrimination against foreign workers in Germany." International Migration Papers 7. Geneva: *International Labour Organization* (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---migrant/documents/publication/wcms_201039.pdf

238. KOFA. 2020. "KOFA-Kompakt: Bauberufe im Juli 2020 – Corona-Spezial." Berlin: *KOFA*. https://www.kofa.de/service/publikationen/detailseite/news/kofa-kompakt-bauberufe-im-juli-2020-corona-spezial

239. Florence Schulz. 2019. "Germany needs a quarter of a million migrant workers a year." *Euractiv*. February 22, 2019. https://www.euractiv.com/section/economy-jobs/news/germany-needs-a-quarter-of-a-million-migrant-workers-a-year/

240. Make It In Germany. 2020. "Information on the Skilled Immigration Act." https://www.make-it-in-germany.com/en/visa/skilled-immigration-act

must have a job offer. While a good knowledge of the German language (e.g. up to level B1) is not formally required to obtain a visa, in practice, employers still expect this to be proven before a job offer is granted. A recognition notice must be issued by the German Chamber of Crafts, recognizing the foreign qualification's equivalence. In addition, the law allows people from third countries to come to Germany for training provided they have been offered a training place in a German company, can speak German up to level B1, and can financially support themselves for the duration of their stay.[241] On the latter, a person would need around €950 per month, which can be out of range for some trainees within the construction sector.

There are many pros and cons inherent in the new law. It has removed the need to conduct labor market tests for hiring foreign workers (though it still exists for trainees), as it is assumed any company hiring through the new law has enough demand to warrant international recruitment. There is no cap on the number of workers who can come in through the law, nor is there bias in terms of specific countries of origin. And most important, there are no restrictions on the type of vocational skills required, though they have deemed some professions as lacking in workers (including construction).[242] However, there remains issues with its implementation in practice. The current dual system of training is rigid, which makes recognition of foreign professional qualifications difficult. Qualifications obtained in countries of origin need to be from recognized and pre-approved schools. Different rules apply for employment and traineeships, making it difficult for employers to navigate. It is not clear how easy it will be to facilitate visas, and the system has not yet been tested (having been enacted just before the COVID-19 pandemic).[243] And finally it requires German language skills at a high level, which may be difficult to accomplish for people from countries like Nigeria.

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Box 16. Creating perspectives for youth in Kosovo

Since 2017, Germany has been conducting youth training and employment schemes in Kosovo, a country with a youth unemployment rate of over 50 percent. The project 'Creating perspective for youth in Kosovo', aimed to bridge the gap between job seeker skills and labor market demands. It also aimed to improve the quality of vocational training in Kosovo, while strengthening the systems and capacity of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) and Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MLSW) and their agencies.

One aspect of this project was implementing a Global Skill Partnership in the construction sector. It was conducted in cooperation with the German Information Centre for Migration, Training and Career (DIMAK), the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, the Munich Chamber of Crafts, and the private sector. It aimed to split the three-year construction qualification, by providing a two-year "expert certificate" to trainees in Kosovo within a private training school in Pristina. Half would stay in Kosovo and the other half would move to

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241. Michaelle Nintcheu and Alexandra Köbler. 2021. "How can I recruit a qualified professional from abroad? What employers need to know." Berlin: *Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Energy*. https://www.make-it-in-germany.com/fileadmin/MiiG_Unternehmen/PDFs/Unternehmen/Unterstuetzung_finden/BMWi_Leitfaden-fuer_Arbeitgeber_EN_02.2021.pdf

242. Tanja Zech. 2020. "Skilled personnel welcome." *Deutschland.de*. January 27, 2020. https://www.deutschland.de/en/topic/business/the-skilled-labour-immigration-act-working-in-germany

243. Tobias Buck. 2019. "Germany steps up hunt for migrant workers amid fears for economy." *Financial Times* [paywall]. December 16, 2019. https://www.ft.com/content/e59457d4-2002-11ea-b8a1-584213ee7b2b

Germany to undertake the third year as part of a local apprenticeship. The plan was to ensure trainees in the first two years would have the opportunity to spend summers in Germany working with employers, thereby building trust within companies who would, hopefully, employ them at the end of the training program.

In the end, the project was never implemented for four reasons. First, it was hard to translate the German curriculum to the Kosovar context. Construction trainees in Kosovo require general subjects and once the specialist German ones were added, the curriculum was too large. Second, German partners weren't cognizant or sympathetic to these requirements. Third, construction has a poor reputation in Kosovo, which made it hard to find people willing to invest the effort and cost needed. Fourth, qualification recognition was to take too long. The organizing committee tried to negotiate an automatic approval for degrees from the Kosovar school, but this was deemed too difficult. And finally, any migrants into Germany needed to prove they could financially support themselves, and the wage offered was lower than this threshold. At the time, German companies did not want to pay more to get over this threshold.

Since that time, the organizing committee has been working hard on the next phase of the project. The Skilled Worker Immigration Law has facilitated more intensive discussion surrounding qualification recognition, leading to the development of a curriculum which includes two years of the general subjects required by Kosovar authorities (which will be delivered in Kosovo) and one year of specialist subjects required by the German chambers (which will be delivered in Germany). It was developed in conjunction with the leading German chamber responsible for Kosovo, and will be piloted by a public construction training school in Kosovo. Before COVID-19, the plan was to train 15 students in September for migration. There are two remaining issues. The first is the wage paid by German employers and whether it would be sufficient to meet the existing income threshold. The second is finding willing trainees and ensuring those on the "home" track stay in Kosovo. Given that Kosovo is part of Europe, there are other avenues through which they could move. As a result, the project is also working to develop the construction sector in Kosovo through improving training, wages, and working conditions.

Source: Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH. "Creating perspectives for youth in Kosovo." https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/66634.html, and interviews with relevant stakeholders

Even in the absence of this law, various agencies within the German government, particularly the German Development Agency GIZ, have long been working to expand legal migration opportunities for people from third countries. To date they have more than 15 pilots, which is more than any country in Europe.[244] Yet many of these pilots remain at small scale, and there is little coordination between different government departments. There is broad ambition to scale and link up these efforts, while also investing in training and development in countries of origin. The construction Global Skill Partnership proposed below is one way in which to do this.

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244. See https://www.cgdev.org/gsp

Implementing a Global Skill Partnership

As described above, Germany is experiencing large and persistent skill shortages, particularly within the construction sector. The percentage of foreign-born workers within the German construction industry continues to rise and is far larger than in other comparable sectors. As a result of this demand, the new Skilled Worker Immigration Law seeks to facilitate easier access into the German labor market for both vocationally trained foreign-born workers, as well as new trainees. While there are implementation issues with this law, the broad strokes provide an opportunity to invest in the training of foreign workers within needed construction skills, facilitating the movement of some to plug skills shortages within the German labor market.

Nigeria is a country on the rise, with the infrastructure deficit requiring substantial investments in the built environment. Yet the sector is beset with poorly trained and informal operators, insufficient training infrastructure, and a low image of the construction sector overall. Such problems hamper the effectiveness and growth of both Nigerian construction companies but also multinational companies that would like to take advantage of this booming market. A construction partnership between Nigeria and a country of destination like Germany could help increase the stock of well-trained workers within Nigeria, improve the training infrastructure, and provide a useful source of labor for the German market.

One way to do this is through the Global Skill Partnership model. A Global Skill Partnership is a bilateral labor migration agreement between a country of origin and a country of destination. The country of origin agrees to train people in skills specifically and immediately needed in both the country of origin and destination. Some of those trainees choose to stay and increase human capital in the country of origin (the "home" track); others migrate to the country of destination (the "away" track). The country of destination provides technology and finance for the training and receives migrants with the skills to contribute to the maximum extent and integrate quickly.

The following sections outline how such a Global Skill Partnership in construction could be developed between Germany and Nigeria, including aspects of its design, risks and mitigation measures, and potential funding sources. The points listed below are not exhaustive. Undoubtedly, further points will be raised through the required extensive consultations between parties on both sides, and opportunities for testing new approaches should be pursued.

Design

Below we have outlined the various stages required when designing a Global Skill Partnership, namely:

1. Signing government-to-government agreement;
2. Consulting relevant stakeholders;
3. Signing on interested employers;
4. Developing curricula and training materials;
5. Designing contributions to broader systems;
6. Facilitating mobility; and
7. Evaluating the scheme (and potentially scaling).

Signing government-to-government agreement

The first stage required within the formulation of a construction Global Skill Partnership is the signing of a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) or a Bilateral Labor Agreement (BLA). These agreements should be negotiated directly by the GIZ and BMZ in Germany and the Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment in Nigeria and take into account the needs of the labor force on both sides. Such discussions are ongoing (see Box 17) and there are many similar agreements on which to build.

Box 17. Programme on Partnership Approaches for development oriented Vocational Training and Labour Migration (PAM)

In early 2021, the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH submitted a proposal to the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) to establish a new skill partnership in the field of construction with Nigeria. Different approaches regarding training and mobility are also being piloted in other sectors in up to five other countries including Ecuador and Vietnam. The project has been running since July 2019 and is planning to run until June 2023. These new partnerships are aiming to ensure more highly qualified people are available for the labor markets in the countries of origin as well as Germany; in some of the partnerships, this will be achieved by implementing a dual-track approach. The project will be building off earlier work conducted within the 'Creating perspectives for youth in Kosovo' project (see Box 16) and GIZ's other efforts to improve vocational training in countries of origin.

In Nigeria, the aim would be to collaborate with a new construction academy, the Federation of Construction Industry (FOCI) Skills Academy.[1] FOCI, which was founded by eight companies in 1954 as the Federation of Building and Civil Engineering Contractors in Nigeria, has grown to have a membership of over a hundred engineering construction companies.[2] The building of this new artisanal skills development academy broke ground in Abuja in December 2020, with the aim of eventually skilling Nigerians in masonry, plumbing, and carpentry. Julius Berger Nigeria, one of the largest construction companies in the country and a subsidiary of Julius Berger International GmbH (headquartered in Germany), is supporting the facility financially, as is GIZ and other donors. Training is due to begin in Spring 2021.

Source: Interviews with relevant stakeholders

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1. Julius Berger. 2020. "50th Anniversary Commemoration: Julius Berger Builds Artisinal Skill Academy in Abuja, Partners FOCI and GIZ." Press Release. December 5, 2020. https://www.julius-berger.com/press/50th-anniversary-commemoration-julius-berger-builds-artisanal-skill-academy-in-abuja-partners-foci-and-giz

2. Stockswatch. 2019. "Construction Industry will grow to the Next Level – Engr. Nasiru Dantata." *Stockswatch*. July 9, 2020. http://stocksng.com/construction-industry-will-grow-next-level-engr-nasiru-dantata/

Table 7. Required stakeholders for a Germany-Nigeria construction Global Skill Partnership

	Nigeria	Role	Germany	Role
Government	Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Federal Ministry of Works and Housing (FMWH)	Sign MOU and oversee project management	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)	Sign MOU, manage project
	Federal Ministry of Labor and Employment (FMLE)	Sign MOU and manage project	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH	Provide ODA, ensure development impact of project
	Nigerians in Diaspora Commission (NiDCOM)	Ensure protection of rights of Nigerian migrants in Germany and harness the project for national development	German Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (BAMF)	Ensure integration of Nigerians into the German labor market, monitor the implementation of the project
Nongovernmental bodies	Nigerian Labor Congress	Ensure that both local and international labor standards are maintained for the protection of trainees and employees under the project	Goethe Institute	Design language curriculum, deliver language training, certify trainees for visa application
International bodies	International Organization for Migration (IOM), Nigeria	Support Migrants Resource Centers (MRC) with pre-departure counselling and training	International Organization for Migration (IOM), Global	Support implementation of pre- and post-departure training, share best practice, (possibly) provide funding
	International Labour Organization (ILO), Nigeria	Support Nigerian Labour Congress to ensure that labor standards are maintained in accordance with ILO Conventions relating to the protection of migrants' rights	International Labour Organization (ILO), Global	Provide oversight of labor standards, protect migrant rights
Professional bodies	Council of Registered Builders of Nigeria (CORBON)	Provide certification and accreditation of "home" track trainees as the Sector Skills Council of the construction industry	Association of German Chambers of Commerce and Industry (DIHK)	Provide accreditation to Nigerian-trained construction professionals
Employers	Federation of Construction Industry (FOCI) – as the umbrella body for the biggest construction companies operating in Nigeria and beyond	Recruit "home" track trainees post training and facilitate recruitment of 'away' track trainees where possible	Employers willing to engage with the project	Recruit construction professionals in "away" track, facilitate apprenticeship, support trainees in receiving accreditation through the Chamber of Crafts
Trade unions	National Union of Civil Engineering, Construction, Furniture and Wood Workers (NUSECFWW)	Collaborate with relevant bodies to ensure protection of the labor rights of construction workers selected for the project	IG Bauen-Agrar-Umwelt (IG BAU)	Provide oversight of labor standards, protect migrant rights, ensure program is not used as a substitute for improvements in wages and working conditions

Table 7. Required stakeholders for a Germany-Nigeria construction Global Skill Partnership cont.

	Nigeria	Role	Germany	Role
Diaspora organizations			AFFORD, Nigerian in Diaspora Organisation (NIDO) Germany	Support integration of Nigerians in "away" track, facilitate remittance and skill transfer

Consulting relevant stakeholders

The second phase will be to ensure that all relevant stakeholders have been consulted and had the opportunity to engage with the design of the Global Skill Partnership—the relevant stakeholders are listed in Table 7. While not all of these stakeholders need to be formally engaged in the implementation of the project, it is crucial that all are regularly consulted throughout the length of the project and given the opportunity to provide feedback on required course corrections. This will ensure that all stakeholders provide a positive rhetoric about the impact of the project which will be necessary given inevitable criticism from both within and outside government.

Signing on interested employers

The third phase is to select those employers to partner with in both Nigeria and Germany. On the former, it makes sense to partner with Julius Berger Nigeria as it is a lead contributor to the new Federation of Construction Industry (FOCI) Skills Academy and clearly has a need for skilled professionals for its operations in Nigeria. An inexhaustive list of other companies to consider approaching include Setraco, Reynolds Construction Company (RCC), Arab Contractors, Cappa & D'Alberto, C & C, Gilmor, PW, Brunelli, Adold Engineering, Ringardas, and the China Civil Engineering and Construction Company (CCECC).

On the latter, it makes sense to pick German companies which are suffering from significant skill shortages but which are also situated in cities with large African diaspora such as Berlin. The parent company, Julius Berger International, is an obvious place to start.

Other construction companies that may have links with Germany are Dantata & Sawoe, Brastem-Sterr Nig. Ltd., Construction Kaiser, Rock Results Group, Makasa Sun Nig. Ltd., Metalum Ltd, Periform, and Scaffolding Nig. Ltd. All are members of the Nigeria-German Chamber of Commerce.

Developing curricula and training materials

The fourth phase is to consult with employers willing to engage with the project as well as the German Chamber of Crafts and the Nigerian Federal Ministry of Labor and Employment to design the curriculum for the training of Nigerian construction professionals. Ensuring that the training course delivered in both the "home" and "away" track conforms to the needs of the labor markets on both sides will be the most difficult part of the design. It will be necessary to conduct in-depth reviews of labor needs (both now and in the future) in both countries by conducting desk research, and exchanging with senior federations, chambers of commerce, employment, and investment agencies. Such skills need should be developed in line with national employment strategies and contribute to the economic development goals of both countries. These analyses will also be useful far beyond the construction sector, helping identify skill needs across a range of sectors to support a range of potential partnerships.

In conducting research and analysis for this report, we suggest that the "home" track focus on building general construction skills that can be used within the growing housing sector, and the "away track" focus on building both these general skills and more specialized, supervision, skills. To ensure those undertaking the training have the requisite skills for the program,

it is suggested that those with upper secondary school education are targeted.

Given the needs of the German Chamber of Crafts, the structure of the training in Nigeria will be incredibly important. Ideally, the training center would deliver the first two years of the German construction curriculum in Nigeria, with those in the "away" track moving to Germany to undertake the final year of their apprenticeship. Those on the "away" track may seek to undertake on-the-job placements, either in Nigerian companies or during their training breaks in Germany, to get practical experience. It may also be possible to shorten the final year of their apprenticeship over time, perhaps down to six months.

Yet getting to this position will require an increase in the quality of training in Nigeria as well as an increase in trust among employers as to the quality of graduates. Therefore, the project could start by delivering a one-year pre-preparation course in Nigeria. This training would have no formal recognition in Germany but would prepare this cohort for further training in either country. Then, those on the "away" track would move to Germany to undertake the final two years of their training. It would need to be agreed that the one-year training satisfied demand within Nigerian companies and/or that those in the "home" track would have access to further courses that would equip them with these skills.

Crucially, this training will also require a language component. The minimum for entry under the new Skilled Immigration Act is German up to B1. This is a high standard, especially for trainees who have no experience with German, and will require intensive training. It is suggested that those in the "away" track also conduct German language training throughout the length of their one-year training course. Once they complete this course, they could be enrolled in a full-time booster program to ensure they achieve B1 level. This training could be delivered by the Goethe Institute, either in person or online. In addition, some form of language training could be offered to those on the

"home" track also, perhaps up to A1 level, and an intensive program of "training the trainers" could take place to ensure there are trained Nigerian German language teachers to ensure the sustainability of the project.

Finally, careful attention must be paid to integration. Those on the "away" track must be provided with pre- and post-departure training which includes information about entry into German economy and society. This could be delivered by the IOM or other nongovernmental organizations that, perhaps, facilitate the cultural integration of refugees and asylum-seekers now. Both tracks will need to include some form of soft-skills training too, in transfer thinking, problem-solving, and independent learning.

Designing contributions to broader systems

The training and mobility aspects of the project should be accompanied by ODA investments in improving the construction system of Nigeria as a whole. Here,

the biggest investment that such a project could make would be substantial investment in the training and education facilities of Nigeria. As described above, Nigeria has a booming construction sector yet lacks the skilled labor it needs to take advantage of this growth. Aid being channeled into Nigeria through this project could be used to extend the activities conducted as part of the Skills Development for Youth Employment (SKYE) project or the Nigerian College of Practical Skills and Start-Up Centre. Such investments would help formalize training and curricula in a range of subjects and, crucially, support the staffing of smaller enterprises who may not have the resources to engage in a broader Global Skill Partnership.

Facilitating mobility

The sixth phase is to design the mobility component of the "away" track. Trainees should be brought in under the new Skilled Immigration Act and granted a four-year visa which can be extended if both the employer and employee are satisfied. As a result of this visa category, no support for return and reintegration should be needed, though some financing should be set aside should participants chose to return for any reason. They should be able to bring their dependents who should also have access to work visas. IOM could support with pre- and post-departure training, while the German Chamber of Crafts should help facilitate registration and post-arrival training. Those in the "away" track should also be connected to diaspora groups such as AFFORD when they arrive, to help facilitate their integration. Labor standards must be upheld throughout; in particular governments should adhere to International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990), Article 43 which outlines minimum standards.

Evaluating the scheme (and potentially scaling)

As described in Section 2, the potential benefits from Global Skill Partnerships are vast and must be evaluated. This evaluation should be conducted at the

beginning, middle, and end of the project, as well as some time after to ascertain the long-term impacts of the program. It is not enough to facilitate the mobility of such workers and then assume, due to the design of the training, that integration will be automatic. Negative experiences are likely to create a negative feedback loop, deterring future participants in the scheme from choosing the "away" track. Hence close attention should be paid to the integration prospects of such trainees.

Such activities could be conducted in-house (say, GIZ) or contracted externally. Crucially, such evaluations should use control groups for both employees and employers to understand the impact of the program in all countries and for all sets of people. Reiterating the above, understanding the impact of the project to employers is vital to being able to prove its importance to other employers and other governments.

Based on the evidence gathered, the main actors will need to decide whether and how to scale the pilot scheme. The Global Skill Partnership model is best implemented at a small scale in the early phases, perhaps bringing over 100 construction professionals in the first cohort. In this way, the assumptions inherent in the design can be tested and adapted. In the long-run, given strong demand, there is potential to scale the project to thousands of construction professionals per year, perhaps also expanding opportunities across regions and to countries such as Ghana and Senegal. Over time, the unit cost of the project should decrease. Close attention should be paid to the project, and multiple evaluations conducted, to ensure the project is still having the desired impact. If the needs of employers change or diminish, the project must be ready to adapt to this new reality.

Risks and Mitigation Measures

Section 2 attempted to outline a number of risks and potential mitigation measures that are inherent in all Global Skill Partnerships. In addition to this list, there

are three specific risks which are likely to occur in the development of such a partnership in construction between Germany and Nigeria.

The construction remains a sector with a poor reputation, such that people in Nigeria are reluctant to invest in substantial training programs. As described above, Nigeria has a booming construction sector that struggles to recruit workers domestically. This could be due to the perception of construction as a career that is low-skill and low-status. As described in Box 16, similar issues arose within the GIZ project in Kosovo, whereby it was difficult to find youth who were interested in investing the effort and cost required. Any Global Skill Partnership in the construction sector therefore must both understand the issues that make the sector unattractive at a domestic level (such as low pay, poor working conditions, or a lack of financial support for training) and ensure these are tackled in tandem.

Language skills requirement might not be an easy hurdle to cross. The construction industry in Nigeria has a reputation for attracting youth who do not have higher secondary level of education, on average. The German language skills requirement might therefore be a discouraging factor for some aspirants. A longer duration of training could be integrated to support language requirements.

Some risks may arise because of cultural differences. Inability to understand and manage such differences might have both short-term and long-term psychological effect that could impact performance at work, relationships and general personal success as a migrant. This issue can be addressed through in-depth culture training during pre-departure orientation or preferably through integrated social skills training that could be taken along with the hard skills training planned to prepare prospective migrant workers in-country.

Funding

Given the stated interest of GIZ in implementing a Global Skill Partnership in construction with Nigeria (see Box 16), it appears that German ODA can be used to support a scheme. GIZ has a long history of using ODA to expand legal migration opportunities to Germany and improve training and education in countries of origin, hence it should not be a large departure from past investments.

Such funding could be supplemented by the World Bank and the MPF. An application to the latter could be made by GIZ on behalf of partners in Germany and Nigeria. A new round of funding (MPF IV) will be launched in 2021 and is available to support pilot projects on legal migration.[245] Providing the application had adequately considered the labor market needs of both parties and had been designed in collaboration with a wide range of stakeholders, it is likely to be well received by the ICMPD team.

As described in Section 2, it may be difficult to obtain private sector buy-in during the pilot phase of the program which is why this case study recommends using development assistance and international organization financing in the initial stages. However, in the long run, a construction partnership should look to transfer financial responsibility for the training of those on the "away" track to the private sector within Germany. To be able to transition into a more sustainable financing model, the pathway will need to demonstrate the impact of the program to German employers by attempting to ascertain the changes in productivity and investment due to plugged skill shortages. More information about how to build and include such an evaluation is described in Section 2.

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245. International Center for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD). "MPF III: Call for Proposals." https://mobilitypartnershipfacility.eu/calls-for-proposals/mpf-iii-call-for-proposals

Section 5:
Case Study.
A Global Skill Partnership in Information, Communications, and Technology (ICT) between Nigeria and Europe

The digital economy, of which the information, communications, and technology (ICT) industry is a part, is worth 15.5 percent of global GDP. Yet the sector is vast and hard to define, with roles spanning the spectrum of mid- to high-skilled, and present within a variety of industries. Many of these roles are vacant, with skill shortages harming firms in Nigeria as well as countries throughout Europe. The following section outlines a Global Skill Partnership between Nigeria and a number of European countries including Germany, the UK, Belgium, and Lithuania within ICT. It includes an overview of the training and migration landscape in all countries, the specific design of such a partnership, and risks and mitigation measures.

Developing an ICT Migration Partnership

The OECD refers to ICT as the "manufacturing and services industries whose products primarily fulfil or enable the function of information processing and communication by electronic means, including transmission and display."[246] As a result of this definition, the industry includes companies that make and distribute such technology, as well as roles within the companies which use this technology. It therefore encompasses both the creation of ICT assets (e.g. computer hardware, software, infrastructure) and ICT services (e.g. research and development, analysis, programming). Both make up part of the much broader "digital economy", a powerful engine for economic growth and job creation around the world.

The digital economy is huge and growing rapidly. Researchers from Huawei and Oxford Economics found that it is "worth $11.5 trillion globally, equivalent to 15.5 percent of global GDP, and has grown two and a half times faster than global GDP over the past 15 years."[247] The ICT industry stands at the center of this and has been a powerful driver of economic growth in low-, middle-, and high-income countries around the world.[248] Unsurprisingly, the industry has been fairly resilient to the impact of COVID-19 and global lockdowns.[249] The move to digital working and learning has accelerated take-up of ICT services and the skills that come with that. New technologies have been created at rapid speed and the world has become more connected than ever before.[250]

Given the disparate nature of the ICT industry, it is unsurprising that roles within the industry also vary considerably. The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) notes that most roles within Europe's ICT industry are highly skilled—in 2015, 7 out of 10 people held high qualifications, and about one-quarter held medium-level qualifications.[251] In addition to hard skills in programming languages, data analysis, and data security, ICT professionals also need a range of soft skills including problem solving and flexibility. While some within the industry work in roles that are both long-term and permanent, others operate on a contract basis. This is especially the case within emerging economies such as Nigeria, where many firms are small and hire staff on a contract basis.[252]

246. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). "Information and communication technology (ICT)." https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/science-and-technology/information-and-communication-technology-ict/indicator-group/english_04df17c2-en

247. Makada Henry-Nickie, Kwadwo Frimpong, and Hao Sun. 2019. "Trends in the Information Technology Sector." Washington, DC: *Brookings*. https://www.brookings.edu/research/trends-in-the-information-technology-sector

248. Thomas Niebel. 2018. "ICT and economic growth – Comparing developing, emerging and developed countries." *World Development* 104, 197-211. April 2018. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2017.11.024

249. OC&C. 2020. "ICT Services: Financial impacts on a "critical enabler" in a Covid-19 world." https://www.occstrategy.com/media/2678/ict-and-digital-services-covid19-impacts.pdf

250. Parul Oberoi and Neha Singh. 2020. "COVID-19: Consequences and opportunities for the ICT sector." *Fractal*. https://fractal.ai/covid-19-consequences-opportunities-for-ict/

251. Cedefop. 2016. "ICT professionals: skills opportunities and challenges (2016)." https://skillspanorama.cedefop.europa.eu/en/analytical_highlights/ict-professionals-skills-opportunities-and-challenges-2016

252. Vijaya Ramachandran, Jennifer Obado-Joel, Razaq Fatai, Junaid Sadiq Masood, and Blessing Omakwu. 2019. "The New Economy of Africa: Opportunities for Nigeria's Emerging Technology Sector." Washington, DC: *Center for Global Development* (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/reader/new-economy-africa-opportunities-nigerias-emerging-technology-sector

Figure 28. ICT professionals are needed in 24 EU Member States

Shortage

Surplus

Varied for detailed occupations (see analysis)
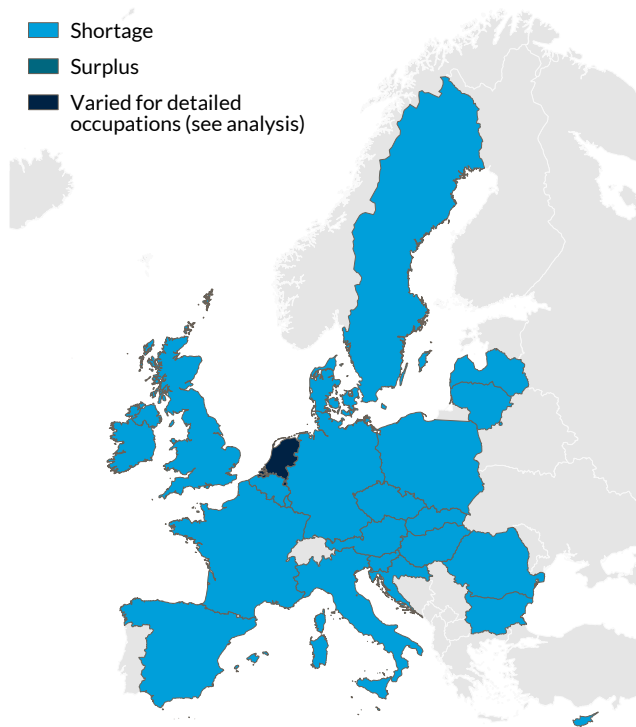
Source: Cedefop. 2016. "ICT professionals: skills opportunities and challenges (2016)." https://skillspanorama.cedefop.europa.eu/en/analytical_highlights/ict-professionals-skills-opportunities-and-challenges-2016

The ICT industry is growing rapidly and so too is the demand for talent. From 2005 to 2015, employment for ICT professionals in the EU grew by one-third, and a further 10 percent growth is expected by 2025.[253] In addition, the current workforce is aging and local training and development is not keeping pace with demand.[254] As a result, the ICT industry is a shortage occupation in 24 EU Member States (Figure 28). Similar trends can be seen across low- and middle-income countries. As will be explored further below, Nigeria is said to be Africa's biggest digital market and the digital economy could add $88 billion and 3 million jobs to the economy by 2027.[255] Yet employers say job readiness among young people is low and the training and education sector has not been able to keep up with the changing demands of employers.[256]

Two potential factors may reduce the demand for ICT workers within both countries of origin and destination. First, automation. The digital economy, by its very nature, is constantly attempting to improve productivity by introducing robots, AI, and other time-saving technologies into the workforce.[257] Whether this will displace the need for manual workers is uncertain. Second, COVID-19. Whether the shock will lead to more offshoring is unclear—will it provide more opportunities within countries of destination,[258] or will companies increasingly look closer to home?[259]

ICT Worker Migration

Given the sizeable skills shortages present within the ICT industry, and the rapidly changing nature of employer demand, countries have long sought to use foreign workers within key roles. For roles that can be done remotely, employers have used both offshoring (relocating or subcontracting work abroad) and outsourcing (expanding company operations into foreign

253. Cedefop. 2016. "ICT professionals: skills opportunities and challenges (2016)." https://skillspanorama.cedefop.europa.eu/en/analytical_highlights/ict-professionals-skills-opportunities-and-challenges-2016

254. Liberty Global. 2014. "What kind of jobs are there in the ICT Industry?" *All Digital*. March 27, 2014. https://all-digital.org/kind-jobs-ict-industry/

255. Jobberman. 2020. "The Digital Sector Skills Gap Report 2020." https://www.jobberman.com/research

256. Vijaya Ramachandran, Jennifer Obado-Joel, Razaq Fatai, Junaid Sadiq Masood, and Blessing Omakwu. 2019. "The New Economy of Africa: Opportunities for Nigeria's Emerging Technology Sector." Washington, DC: *Center for Global Development* (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/reader/new-economy-africa-opportunities-nigerias-emerging-technology-sector

257. Makada Henry-Nickie, Kwadwo Frimpong, and Hao Sun. 2019. "Trends in the Information Technology Sector." Washington, DC: *Brookings*. https://www.brookings.edu/research/trends-in-the-information-technology-sector

258. Dylan Matthews. 2020. "Covid-19 taught companies how to run remote offices. That could transform developing countries." *Vox*. September 21, 2020. https://www.vox.com/future-perfect/21445830/work-from-home-covid-19-offshoring

259. Ryan Carter. 2020. "Is COVID-19 Upending Offshore Outsourcing?" *Traders Magazine*. November 17, 2020. https://www.tradersmagazine.com/am/is-covid-19-upending-offshore-outsourcing/

companies) to make use of foreign labor pools.[260] But even within the digital economy, there are some roles that must be done (or are better done) onsite. To facilitate this, employers have used three main strategies: (i) Recruiting foreign workers from abroad; (ii) recruiting immigrants already in the country of destination;

and (iii) transferring individuals employed by multinational companies between offices.[261]

The skill shortages present within the industry today have seen employers and their countries increasingly attempt to employ the first strategy, by liberalizing visa

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Box 19. IOM Belgium and Luxembourg's, Enhancing Tunisian youth employability through professional internships in Belgian companies

Between March 2018 and August 2019, IOM Belgium and Luxembourg implemented a project in partnership with the Government of Belgium, the Government of Tunisia, and various public and private employment agencies. The project 'Enhancing Tunisian youth employability through professional internships in Belgian companies', aimed to reduce pressure on the Tunisian labor market by offering 31 graduates the opportunity to work in Belgium for six months through apprenticeships and internships across 12 different Belgian companies.[1] Upon return to Tunisia, participants were supported in job-seeking for five months and received additional training to enhance their skills.[2]

Analysis of the impact of the program by the Center for European Policy Studies (CEPS) has found that all participants, except for two who wanted to continue their studies, managed to find a job by the end of the project. Half had already done so during their Belgian internship. Eighty-nine percent of these found roles in Tunisia, 7 percent in Belgium, and 4 percent in Germany. Importantly, 26 percent were hired by the company that hosted their internship, specifically by those organizations' subsidiaries in Tunisia. Both participants and employers were, on average, satisfied with the program, though employers highlighted the delays before participants were able to start work. Before the program, seven of the companies had never hired internationally before. Now, they are interested in collaborating further and even in extending business operations to Tunisia.[3]

Source: Mattia Di Salvo and Nelson Mallè Ndoye. 2020. "Paving the way for future labour migration: A Belgian-Tunisian Skills Mobility Partnership." *Brussels: Center for European Policy Studies* (CEPS). https://www.ceps.eu/ceps-publications/paving-the-way-for-future-labour-migration/

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1. International Organization for Migration (IOM). 2018. "Project Information Sheet: Enhancing Tunisian youth employability through professional internships in Belgian companies." Brussels: *International Organization for Migration* (IOM). https://belgium.iom.int/sites/default/files/Gallery/Factsheet%20Enhancing%20Tunisian%20Youth%20Employability_EN.pdf
2. Mattia Di Salvo and Nelson Mallè Ndoye. 2020. "Paving the way for future labour migration: A Belgian-Tunisian Skills Mobility Partnership." Brussels: *Center for European Policy Studies* (CEPS). https://www.ceps.eu/ceps-publications/paving-the-way-for-future-labour-migration/
3. Ibid.

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260. Philip Schörpf and Ursula Holtgrewe. 2016. "Understanding the impact of outsourcing in the ICT sector to strengthen the capacity of workers' organizations to address labor market changes and to improve social dialogue." Vienna: *FORBA*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/321749121_Understanding_the_impact_of_outsourcing_in_the_ICT_sector_to_strengthen_the_capacity_of_workers'_organisations_to_address_labour_market_changes_and_to_improve_social_dialogue
261. International Labour Organization (ILO). 2020. "Skills shortages and labour migration in the field of information and communication technology in Canada, China, Germany and Singapore." Geneva: *International Labour Organization* (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---sector/documents/publication/wcms_755663.pdf

schemes and implementing pilot projects. To date, these interventions have largely focused on attracting already qualified talent from foreign countries, usually at high-skill levels. For example, the EU's Blue Card Directive aims to attract highly qualified workers from third countries to apply for roles within the EU and in return, receive a work permit of one to four years.[262] Such legal labor immigration pathways have facilitated the movement of foreign workers to the EU to work in the ICT industry, especially those from India.[263]

Promoting a Genuine Development Benefit

Promoting labor migration within the ICT field has pros and cons. As PALIM has found, the ICT sector may be more politically palatable than, say, health care, which comes with a host of greater ethical considerations. The language requirements are usually lower, especially if workers are operating within programming languages or other forms of software development. Companies may be more interested in collaborating due to the booming nature of ICT markets within low- and middle-income countries, especially given the future potential for offshoring and investment. It was expressed during our interviews that the ICT sector is considered by many to be "low-hanging fruit", a way to test the potential of such pathways and prove their impact, before moving on to more challenging sectors like construction and health care. On the other hand, it is a difficult sector to work within for three main reasons.

The changing nature of private sector demand. The specific skillsets required change quickly as the digital economy moves on. What is in demand now, may not be in demand two years from now when workers are trained.[264] Partnerships therefore need to be incredibly flexible to respond to this.

The nature of ICT work itself. Especially in countries of origin, ICT work is often short-term or done on a consultancy basis. Therefore, any training in hard skills may need to go alongside additional support for business investment and/or entrepreneurship. This will help develop the employment prospects of both those who prefer longer-term projects, and those who want to work on a short-term basis.

The nature of training for ICT skills. Even in a country like Nigeria, with its booming ICT sector, the formal training system is essentially nonexistent. While there are ad hoc training programs, many learn online in a fragmented way, and are not necessarily taught the skills that are in need within ICT companies either at home or abroad. Investing in ICT training will therefore likely require starting from the ground up with the concurrent requirements in terms of resource.

ICT in Nigeria

The ICT sector contributed to 15 percent of Nigeria's GDP in 2020, behind only the agriculture sector which contributed 20 percent.[265] It is also one of the fastest growing sectors in Nigeria. Figure 29 shows the pre-COVID-19 (2016-2019) and during COVID-19 (2019-2020) growth rates of different sectors contributing to Nigeria's GDP. The ICT sector grew at 18 percent between 2016 and 2019 and continued to grow at 12 percent during 2020, emerging as one of the sectors that did not suffer as a result of the pandemic.

262. European Parliament. 2015. "The EU Blue Card Directive." https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2015/558766/EPRS_BRI%282015%29558766_EN.pdf

263. Divya Satija and Arpita Mukherjee. 2013. "Movement of ICT Professionals between India and the EU: Issues and the Way Forward." CARIM-India Research Report 2013/14. New Delhi: CARIM-India. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/45683683.pdf

264. Helen Dempster and Michael Clemens. 2020. "The EU Migration Pact: Putting Talent Partnerships into Practice." Center for Global Development (CGD) Blog. November 19, 2020. https://www.cgdev.org/blog/eu-migration-pact-putting-talent-partnerships-practice

265. National Bureau of Statistics. 2020. "Nigeria Gross Domestic Product Report (Q4 and Full Year 2020)." https://nigerianstat.gov.ng/download/1229

Figure 29. The GDP growth in Nigeria's ICT sector continued despite of COVID-19
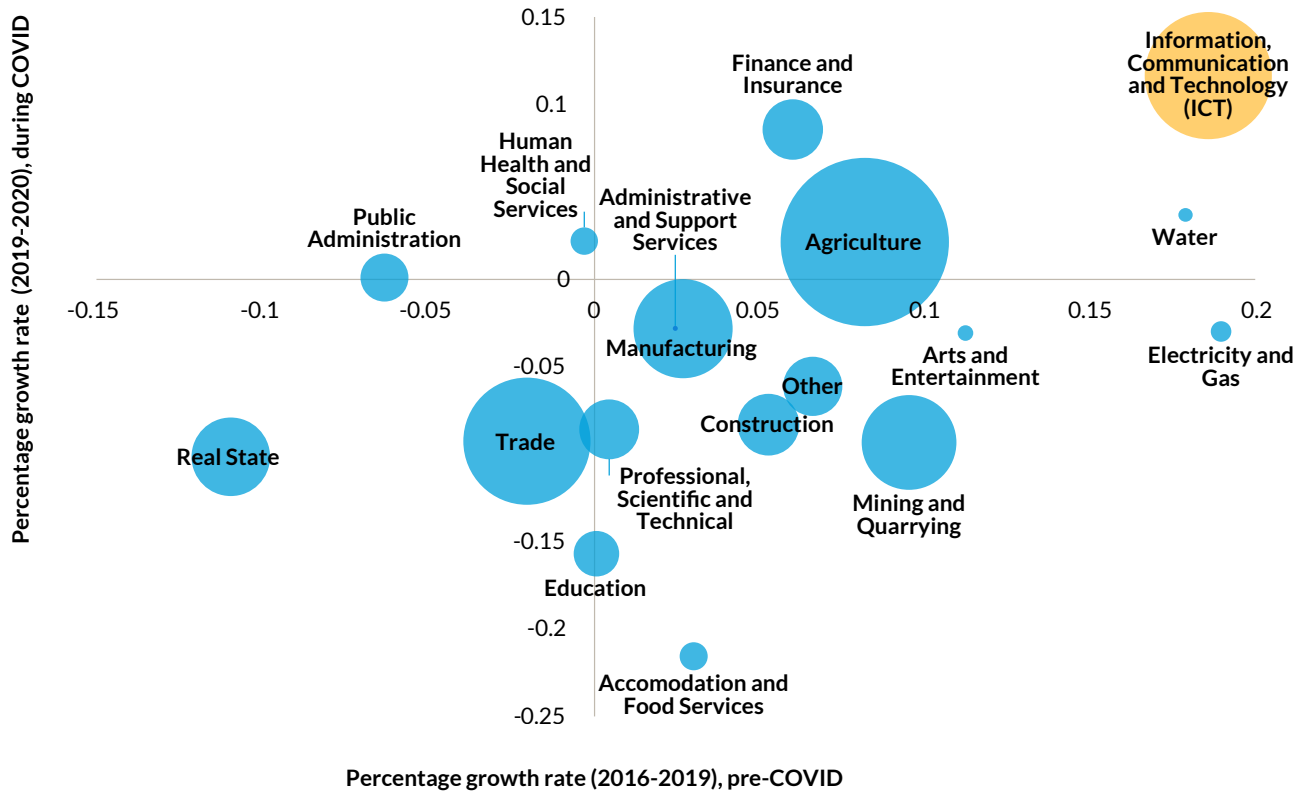
Source: World Bank Calculations using data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS)

The continued growth in Nigeria's ICT sector demonstrates the strides made by Nigeria in establishing essential ICT related infrastructure. Overall, Nigeria has a vibrant ICT sector made up of both large and small firms delivering cross-cutting services in health care, agriculture, finance, e-commerce and retail. The sector has 90 tech hubs which is the most in Africa followed by South Africa's 78 and Egypt's 56.[266] The sector is also the biggest technology market on the continent.[267] As the ICT sector is deeply integrated with other key sectors, it contributed 17.8 percent to Nigeria's GDP during the second quarter of 2020.[268]

In 2019, Nigeria adopted a National Digital Economy Policy and Strategy 2020-30. One of the eight pillars of the strategy focuses on digital literacy and skills with the aim of creating a pool of Nigerians with globally recognized and certified digital skills.[269] In the last few years, however, the ICT sector, like many other sectors, has faced several challenges due to macroeconomic

266. Toby Shapshak. 2019. "Africa Now Has 643 Tech Hubs Which Play "Pivotal" Role For Business." *Forbes*. October 30, 2019. https://www.forbes.com/sites/tobyshapshak/2019/10/30/africa-now-has-643-tech-hubs-which-play-pivotal-role-for-business/?sh=694cceda4e15

267. Vijaya Ramachandran, Jennifer Obado-Joel, Razaq Fatai, Junaid Sadiq Masood, and Blessing Omakwu. 2019. "The New Economy of Africa: Opportunities for Nigeria's Emerging Technology Sector." Washington, DC: *Center for Global Development* (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/reader/new-economy-africa-opportunities-nigerias-emerging-technology-sector

268. National Bureau of Statistics. 2020. "Nigerian Gross Domestic Product Report (Q2 2020)." https://www.nigerianstat.gov.ng/pdfuploads/GDP_Report_Q2_2020.pdf

269. Federal Ministry of Communications and Digital Economy. 2019. "National Digital Economy Policy and Strategy (2020-2030)." Abuja: *Federal Ministry of Communications and Digital Economy*. https://www.ncc.gov.ng/docman-main/industry-statistics/policies-reports/883-national-digital-economy-policy-and-strategy/file

slowdown and currency depreciation as a result of the 2015-16 recession.

The Workforce

The ICT sector has been earmarked as having considerable potential to provide employment and entrepreneurial opportunities for the growing number of youths in the country. Despite this, the ICT sector growth has not translated into jobs. Despite the presence of some of the biggest global tech companies such as IBM, Microsoft, Google, and CISCO, the sector employed only one percent (497,000 persons) of the country's population as of 2017.[270] Unemployed youth find it difficult to benefit from the opportunities in the sector due to technical and soft skills gaps. In terms of digital skills development, Nigeria ranks 122nd out of 140 countries.[271]

Nigeria's ICT sector is regulated by government and nongovernment stakeholders and associations led by the Computer Professionals Registration Council of Nigeria (CPN). The CPN registers all qualified ICT professionals and practitioners and conducts assessment and licensing of private academies. Examples of ICT professionals/ CPN members are graduates of Computer Science/Engineering, Information and Communication Engineering and the like. Additionally, there are 74 broad practice areas mentioned in the CPN's Regulation for ICT Service 2017 including identity management services, maintenance of computer hardware and software, system integration services, internet service provision, network security, web hosting, and so on.[272] Graduates of non-ICT fields can become CPN members by taking CPN's professional examinations.[273] There are other ICT-related professional bodies which are also regulated by CPN.[274] The stakeholders and government agencies collaborate in the regulation and maintenance of the professional content of ICT syllabi.

ICT Management and Training

The training ecosystem consists of both formal and informal providers. Formal training is provided by universities and other higher educational institutions, at workplaces, and through traineeship programs. The curriculum design and accreditation are jointly done by CPN and the National Universities Commission (NUC), the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), and the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) for respective formal training institutions. Training effectiveness is, however, hampered by outdated curriculum, poor infrastructure, mismatch between curriculum and the market needs. And this shows in the quality of graduates most of whom reportedly lack skills in artificial intelligence, machine learning, data science, big data analytics, cloud infrastructure, etc.[275] Some employers offer in-service training to fill the skills gaps but the high turnover in the sector means that many of the trained workers move to employers that offer higher pay, providing little incentive for the employers to sponsor training.

Informal training is accessible via both online and offline platforms including computer repair shops, peer learning groups, and training and certification platforms such as Coursera and edX. The offline

270. United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). 2019. "Digital Economy Report 2019. Value Creation and Capture: Implications for Developing Countries." New York: *United Nations Conference on Trade and Development* (UNCTAD). https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/der2019_en.pdf

271. Klaus Schwab. 2019. "The Global Competitiveness Report 2019." Geneva: *The World Economic Forum* (WEF). http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TheGlobalCompetitivenessReport2019.pdf

272. Nigerian Federal Government. 2017. "Service Constituting Practice of Computing under the Computer Professionals Registration Council of Nigeria Act." May 8, 2017. https://www.cpn.gov.ng/download/NEW_REGULATIONS_ON_ICT_SERVICES.pdf

273. Computer Professionals (Registration Council of) Nigeria (CPN). "Examinations." https://www.cpn.gov.ng/metro/?ref=metro/content&list=cd/3

274. Nigeria Computer Society (NCS); Information Technology Association of Nigeria (ICTAN); The Institute of Software Practitioners of Nigeria (ISPON); and The Nigerian Association of Computer Science Students (NACOSS).

275. Jobberman. 2020. "The Digital Sector Skills Gap Report 2020." https://www.jobberman.com/research

training and certification platforms are noted for their ineffectiveness while learners who engage in peer learning and online personal training are noted to excel at work.[276] Sector stakeholders believe that most Nigerian software developers are self-learners who have taught themselves through online platforms which results in specific skills shortages required in the job market. As a result, some corporate entities have begun to domesticate ICT training in Nigeria. For example, the Microsoft Foundation is training 450 software developers, while Jobberman is collaborating with Mastercard Foundation to train one million youth in soft skills such as emotional intelligence, innovativeness, problem solving, lifelong learning, growth mindset, leadership/courage and intellectual humility.

Migration

Unfortunately, there is no good data regarding the presence of Nigerian ICT professionals abroad. Certainly, key countries of destination for Nigerian migrants see large numbers of foreign personnel working within their ICT sectors. Over the past three decades, the global migration of ICT specialists has been on the rise and began with the migration of Indian ICT specialists to the United States.[277] Globally, migrant ICT professionals contribute substantially to innovation in destination countries. But they can also contribute through technology and skill transfers to countries of origin such as Nigeria. For example, in 2012, two Harvard Business School graduates from Nigeria cofounded Jumia, a Nigerian e-commerce site

and one of the first tech start-ups in the country. Since then tech firms have been established in the fields of energy, agriculture, banking, transportation, logistics, health, and finance.[278]

Sector stakeholders in Nigeria support legal migration, especially for skills enhancement. Temporary migration for purposes such as exchange programs or value-maximizing labor is encouraged. While the narrative persists of net human capital loss in the ICT sector due to skilled youth who migrate to find better job opportunities abroad[279], what is seldom discussed is the role that these youth play to support technology transfers back to Nigeria, or in the human capital accumulation of prospective ICT professionals.

Potential Destination Markets

The ICT sector is growing rapidly. It stands at the heart of the digital economy, which has grown two and a half times faster than global GDP over the past 15 years.[280] COVID-19 has accelerated the uptake of digital technologies, and the ICT sector is expected to be one of the few to not suffer hugely from the pandemic. About one-quarter of the roles within the ICT sector in Europe are mid-skill roles such as programming, data analysis, and data security. And these roles are available in large supply. From 2005 to 2015, employment for ICT professionals grew by one-third and it is expected to grow by a further 10 percent by 2025.[281] Given this sizeable demand, it is unsurprising that many European countries have chosen ICT as the sector they wish to

276. Qualitative information based on interviews with sector stakeholders.

277. International Labour Organization (ILO). 2019. "Skills shortages and labour migration in the field of information and communication technology in India, Indonesia and Thailand." Geneva: *International Labour Organization* (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---sector/documents/publication/wcms_710031.pdf

278. Vijaya Ramachandran, Jennifer Obado-Joel, Razaq Fatai, Junaid Sadiq Masood, and Blessing Omakwu. 2019. "The New Economy of Africa: Opportunities for Nigeria's Emerging Technology Sector." Washington, DC: *Center for Global Development* (CGD). https://www.cgdev.org/reader/new-economy-africa-opportunities-nigerias-emerging-technology-sector

279. Yomi Kazeem. 2018. "Nigeria's tech ecosystem is struggling to keep hold of its best software engineers." *Quartz Africa*. December 17, 2018. https://qz.com/africa/1491951/nigeria-tech-developers-move-to-europe-us-canada/

280. Makada Henry-Nickie, Kwadwo Frimpong, and Hao Sun. 2019. "Trends in the Information Technology Sector." Washington, DC: *Brookings*. https://www.brookings.edu/research/trends-in-the-information-technology-sector

281. Cedefop. 2016. "ICT professionals: skills opportunities and challenges (2016). https://skillspanorama.cedefop.europa.eu/en/analytical_highlights/ict-professionals-skills-opportunities-and-challenges-2016

focus on when developing mobility partnerships. This section outlines how such a project would be implemented with Germany, the UK, Belgium, or Lithuania, as well as outlining some challenges common to all.

Germany

In 2017, ICT contributed 4.2 percent to the German GDP; just under five percent of people are employed in the sector overall.[282] Most workers within the sector obtain vocational qualifications and end up being both more highly educated and more highly paid than the average German worker. Yet the training of new ICT workers is not keeping pace with demand. In 2019, more than 100,000 positions within the sector remained vacant.[283] Specialists within software development, application support, ICT security, and data science were particularly needed. CEDEFOP estimates that by 2030, Germany will need 138,000 additional ICT professionals, 40 percent of whom will be computer programmers.[284]

To facilitate the migration of skilled ICT professionals, the new Skilled Immigration Act includes a special provision for ICT specialists. They are able to take up employment in Germany even without a formal qualification. All that is required is three years' experience, a monthly income of at least €4,020, and a conciliation agreement with BMAS.[285] The Federal Employment Agency (BA) has established the Zentrale Auslandsund Fachvermittlung (ZAV) (Central International Intermediation Service) which provides counselling and job placement services to skilled migrants, including ICT professionals.

Box 20. Make-It in Africa

The move to a more digital-based economy provides vast opportunities for emerging markets to meet the SDGs. Here, technological entrepreneurship is key as it enables entrepreneurs to modernize their country's economy and society, identify innovation solutions, and create new opportunities and jobs. Yet as this report has shown, in countries like Nigeria, it is difficult for tech entrepreneurs to create, sustain, and grow their businesses.

Between 2017 and 2019, GIZ and the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) implemented a new project called Make-IT in Africa whereby they invested in building business ecosystems in Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Rwanda, and Tunisia. The aim was to support 50 tech start-ups in two pilot countries, Nigeria and Kenya, to facilitate improvements in sustainable and inclusive development.

Source: Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH. "Make-IT in Africa." https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/57293.html

UK

In 2016, the UK ICT sector contributed $160 billion to the UK economy, increasing by over 20 percent from 2011. It spends more per head on ICT than any other country barring the US.[286] There were 950,000 people employed in ICT and telecommunications in the UK in

282. International Labour Organization (ILO). "Skills shortages and labour migration in the field of information and communication technology in Canada, China, Germany and Singapore." Geneva: *International Labour Organization* (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/global/docs/WCMS_755663/lang--en/index.htm
283. Make it in Germany. "Working, studying, living in Germany." https://www.make-it-in-germany.com/en/jobs/professions-in-demand/scientists-it
284. Cedefop. "Skills Forecast." https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources/data-visualisations/skills-forecast
285. International Labour Organization (ILO). "Skills shortages and labour migration in the field of information and communication technology in Canada, China, Germany and Singapore." Geneva: *International Labour Organization* (ILO). https://www.ilo.org/global/docs/WCMS_755663/lang--en/index.htm
286. International Trade Administration. 2019. "United Kingdom Information Communication Technology (ICT)." Last published October 13, 2019. https://www.trade.gov/knowledge-product/united-kingdom-information-communication-technology-ict

2016, 3 percent of the working population, with an 82 percent to 18 percent male to female split.[287] The majority of these fall within the professionals category with others employed as researchers, sales, and in managerial roles. In 2018, the Open University Business Barometer estimated that there are 600,000 vacancies within the sector, and that this is costing the country "£6.3 billion per year in recruitment fees, inflated salaries, temporary staff, and training for workers hired at a lower level than intended."[288] Of the 950 businesses surveyed, 91 percent struggled to find workers with the right skills, and most felt the situation was going to get worse. The number of students taking ICT and computing secondary qualifications has fallen, and as a result, it is expected there will be one million tech vacancies in a few years' time.[289]

In January 2021, as a result of Brexit, the UK instituted a new Points-Based Immigration System. This system includes a Skilled Worker route, whereby someone will be able to access a visa if they have a job offer at a specific skill level, a good level of English, and a minimum salary of £25,600. This requirement is reduced to £20,480 if they have a job offer within a specific shortage occupation.[290] Included on this shortage list are ICT business analysts, architects, and systems designers as well as programmers and software development professionals, web design and development professionals, and cyber security specialists (among other roles).[291] This visa lasts five years and can be extended.

Belgium

Belgium's ICT sector is flourishing. "It currently contributes over 4 percent of Belgium's gross domestic product, and between 1997 and 2007 it accounted for a sixth of the country's growth."[292] While digitization impacts the entire labor force, there are substantial (and growing) labor shortages within the ICT sector. By 2030, there will be 584,000 unfilled vacancies which will mean the country misses out on €60 billion of GDP.[293] These vacancies occur due to both a growing need within the sector as well as a low number of graduates. While ICT workers are needed across Belgium, shortages are most acute in Flanders and Wallonia, with the lowest shortages in Brussels.

Since 1999, Belgian law has operated a selective immigration policy. Highly skilled workers must have a higher education diploma and a job offer that exceeds the legal threshold, but they are then able to obtain a work permit without employers having to subject the role to labor market tests. Employers of less skilled roles must prove those roles cannot be undertaken by local workers either through individual assessments or through those roles being "bottleneck vacancies" (which include ICT professionals).[294] Belgium has a devolved immigration policy and each of Belgium's four regions (Brussels, Flanders, Walloon, and the German community) has its own labor market policies and its own public employment office.[295] ICT professionals can apply to come to any of the four regions

287. Office for National Statistics (ONS). 2017. "Are we training enough people to become programmers?" Published June 19, 2017. https://www.ons.gov.uk/businessindustryandtrade/itandinternetindustry/articles/arewetrainingenoughpeopletobecomeprogrammers/2017-06-19

288. Edge Foundation. 2018. "Skills shortages in the UK economy." *Bulletin 2*. Published July 2018. https://www.edge.co.uk/research/projects/skills-shortages-uk-economy/skills-shortage-bulletin-2/

289. Neil Franklin. 2018. "Shortage of tech skills and 600,000 job vacancies costing UK economy £63 billion a year." *Insight*. August 1, 2018. https://workplaceinsight.net/shortage-of-tech-skills-and-600000-job-vacancies-costing-uk-economy-63-billion-a-year/

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291. UK Visas and Immigration. 2020. "Skilled Worker visa: shortage occupations." Published December 1, 2020. https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/skilled-worker-visa-shortage-occupations

292. Business.Belgium.Be. "ICT sector." https://business.belgium.be/en/investing_in_belgium/key_sectors/ict

293. AGORIA. 2018. "La digitalisation et le marché du travail belge." September 2018. Brussels: *AGORIA*. https://www.acdn.be/_projects/bethechange/brochures/brochure_FR_V08.pdf

294. Ramboll. "Bottleneck Vacancies in Belgium." https://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=12644&langId=en#:~:text=Bottleneck%20vacancies%20are%20a%20widespread,lack%20of%20skills%20(15%25)

295. Rachel Swain. 2020. "Work in Belgium." Last updated July 2020. https://www.prospects.ac.uk/jobs-and-work-experience/working-abroad/work-in-belgium

under this facilitated migration route and stay for a period of up to three years (the visa is renewable).

In late 2018, the Belgium development agency, Enabel, approached the EU's Mobility Partnership Facility (MPF) for funding to support a new pilot project. The pilot project was to be modelled on the Global Skill Partnership concept and would train young Moroccans in ICT skills that were in need by employers in both Morocco and the Belgium region of Flanders. The project brought together Enabel and the Flemish and Moroccan employment agencies (VDAB and ANAPEC), the Flemish employer federations VOKA and Agoria, and their Moroccan counterparts CGEM and APEBI, as well as Fedasil and the Flemish Agency for Migration.[1]

The project ran between March 2019 and August 2020. In that time, 120 young unemployed Moroccans were trained with specific ICT skills. Those who entered the "away" track of the project also received language training in Dutch, as well as cultural awareness and integration training. While recruitment and mobility has been delayed due to COVID-19, there remains substantial interest from employers on both sides; the first trainees moved in late 2020.

As the first full pilot of the Global Skill Partnership model, the experience of PALIM has a lot to teach other countries of destination that are interested in such a model. Many of these lessons learned will be explored in the sections below. The project focused on the ICT sector which Enabel felt was more "doable" as there were no ethical difficulties with recruitment, no large technical difficulties in the skills required both in Morocco and Flanders, fewer language requirements, and opportunities for offshoring, remote work, and employer investment. Yet the rapidly changing demands of ICT companies meant that the project had to alert and flexible, conducting robust labor market needs assessments, getting strong training profiles from the relevant companies, and adapting the training (even mid-curriculum) to changing demand.

Enabel is planning to scale PALIM as part of a new project: Towards a Holistic Approach to Labour Migration Governance and Labour Mobility in North Africa (THAMM).[2] As part of this project, hundreds of Moroccans and Tunisians will be trained in ICT skills and placed with companies in Belgium and Germany, while facilitating entry into companies within countries of origin. This project is new, and the implications remain to be seen.

Source: Enabel. 2019. "PALIM – European Pilot Project Linking Moroccan ICT Development and Labour Shortages in Flanders." Published March 1, 2019. https://www.enabel.be/content/europees-proefproject-palim-linkt-it-ontwikkeling-marokko-aan-knelpuntberoepen-vlaanderen-0

1. Enabel. 2019. "PALIM – European Pilot Project Linking Moroccan ICT Development and Labour Shortages in Flanders." Published March 1, 2019. https://www.enabel.be/content/europees-proefproject-palim-linkt-it-ontwikkeling-marokko-aan-knelpuntberoepen-vlaanderen-0
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Box 22. MATCH – Hiring African Talents

MATCH is a 36-month initiative funded by the EU, aimed at matching highly skilled people in Nigeria and Senegal to private sector companies with skill needs in Belgium, Italy, The Netherlands, and Luxembourg. The project is not solely focused on ICT skills, though they are targeting those highly skilled. The initiative aims to create a pool of talent from which companies can draw, while also facilitating collaboration between companies and remote working options during COVID-19. It is also planning to implement skills development, capacity building, and knowledge sharing between participating countries.

The project is new, and no talents have yet moved through the scheme. As Figure 30 shows, private sector companies would send their vacancy profiles to the IOM office in Belgium and Luxembourg. They would source candidates in Senegal and Nigeria using the private recruitment company Aldelia. Workers would then be screened by IOM, local employment agencies in Senegal and Nigeria, and Aldelia, and a shortlist then presented to the company. After online interviews and company specific tests, talent can then move to Europe. MATCH has chosen to work with Senegal and Nigeria given their different language profiles (French and English, respectively), developed ICT infrastructure, and ambitious plans for job creation and growth.

Figure 30. MATCH in practice – an overview

1 — Needs assessment to understand who you are looking for
2 — Pre-selection of relevant candidates
3 — Your company makes the final decision on the recruitment
4 — Onboarding phase while mobility restrictions are in place: remote working and optional trainings for your candidates
5 — Logistical preparations and administrative support to companies and candidates (visa/work/residence permit)
6 — Relocation of candidates to your company in the EU
7 — Additional training and capacity building in the EU; engagement with diaspora groups
8 — Soft landing for candidates returning to Senegal and Nigeria

Source: International Organization for Migration (IOM) Belgium & Luxembourg. "MATCH – Hiring African Talents." https://belgium.iom.int/match

Lithuania

In early 2020, it was announced that Lithuania had the fastest growing fintech sector in the European Union, growing 24 percent in recent years. The country hosts 13 of the 20 largest ICT companies in the Baltic States and in 2015 there were projections that ICT investments would account for 25 percent of the country's GDP. The number of people working in the sector has grown 25 percent since 2015, and one in four students are studying Science, Mathematics, Computing, and Engineering courses.[296] Despite this pipeline of talent, Lithuania too is suffering from skill shortages. Many of the roles on the Labour Exchange of Lithuania's six-monthly projections are from the ICT sector.[297]

In early 2019, Lithuania amended its law on the Legal Status of Aliens to create quotas for foreign workers from third countries based on a shortage list of occupations. The changes also made it easier for people from high-income non-EU countries to move to Lithuania, and for people from third countries to gain a Start-up Visa. Everyone else is subject to the quota system.[298] Employers must first seek a worker from Lithuania

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Box 23. Digital Explorers

Between January 2019 and September 2020, Lithuania entered into a partnership with Nigeria to promote the migration of ICT professionals. The project, financed by the EU's MPF, aimed to bring up to 50 young graduates to Lithuania for a 6-to-12-month career advancement program. The trainees would take part in tailor-made training courses and internships, as well as receive additional support in cultural integration and soft skills. Throughout this time, the trainees would build up their skills, while contributing to the growth and development of Lithuanian ICT employers. At the end of the project, the newly skilled graduates would return home to Nigeria to contribute their skills to Nigerian employers.

Given the lack of previous engagement between Lithuania and Nigeria, the project had to put a lot of effort into developing trust between partners and building stakeholder networks. In fact, the program was never conceived of as a labor migration pathway but more as a way to better connect the two countries. The majority of the project was implemented by the ICT sector itself. Interviewees felt this "bottom-up" approach helped build trust with the private sector far more than if it had been led by the government or other institutions.

In the end, the project moved 15 people. Project and migration costs were covered by Digital Explorers, while the salaries were covered by the employers. A stipend cost was shared between the project and employers. The project is now moving to develop a long-term pipeline of quality talent by investing in skill building in Nigeria and focusing on developing entrepreneurship skills. The second cohort will bring an all-female group of trainees to Lithuania for a six-month internship.

Source: https://digitalexplorers.eu/ and interviews with key stakeholders

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296. Invest Lithuania. "Technology." https://investlithuania.com/key-sectors/technology/

297. Migration Law Center. "The professions needed in Lithuania. A list of the most in-demand professions in Lithuania." https://www.migration.lt/the-professionals-needed-in-lithuania-a-list-of-the-most-in-demand-professions-in-lithuania

298. China.cee. 2019. "Lithuania social briefing: Lithuania is planning to use quotas for third-country migrants according to the shortage of occupations." May 9, 2019. https://china-cee.eu/2019/05/09/lithuania-social-briefing-lithuania-is-planning-to-use-quotas-for-third-country-migrants-according-to-the-shortage-of-occupations/

before seeking expertise internationally. Those from third countries must have a formal qualification, a job offer, and experience within their sector for at least one year. At the end of that year, a Residence Permit may be issued.[299]

Implementing a Global Skill Partnership

As described above, many European countries are experiencing large and persistent skill shortages, particularly within the ICT sector. While roles within the sector span from low- to high-skill, there is a growing number needed within the mid-skill bracket. European countries have long sought to attract highly trained ICT talent from countries of origin, including from Nigeria, but have (to date) done little to build the skills of potential graduates to satisfy ICT sector demand at both ends of the pathway.

Nigeria is also suffering from a lack of qualified ICT workers, a situation that is exacerbated by their highly fragmented and informal training system. Despite these shortages, the ICT sector in Nigeria is booming and it is on track to become one of the largest digital markets in the world. Hence there is a real opportunity for substantial and targeted investment in the ICT training infrastructure within Nigeria to develop talent that is qualified for roles at home and abroad.

One way to do this is through the Global Skill Partnership model. A Global Skill Partnership is a bilateral labor migration agreement between a country of origin and a country of destination. The country of origin agrees to train people in skills specifically and immediately needed in both the country of origin and destination. Some of those trainees choose to stay and increase human capital in the country of origin (the "home" track); others migrate to the country of destination (the "away" track). The country of destination provides technology and finance for the training and receives migrants with the skills to contribute to the maximum extent and integrate quickly.

Without closer inspection of how a Global Skill Partnership could be implemented in practice, it is difficult to develop a blueprint. Yet in this final section, we have attempted to outline some risks and mitigation measures which should be factored into the design, as well as ways in which to promote a genuine development benefit within the project.

Risks and Mitigation Measures

In addition to the other design factors mentioned throughout this report, there are three complicating factors when considering the development of a Global Skill Partnership within the ICT sector.

The presence of offshoring within the industry. The impact of COVID-19 on offshoring is yet to be fully determined. On the one hand, the rise of remote work may lead to a digital revolution within a wider set of industries that lead some to offshore more, therefore reducing the need for skilled labor to move to the EU. On the other hand, it has also exposed vulnerabilities within supply chains and some employers may want to offshore less to fortify their resilience to such shocks. Overall, it is important to keep in mind that there have been substantial skill shortages within the ICT industry for years before COVID-19, and these are likely to still be in place after the pandemic. There is a reason why employers do not offshore the entirety of their operations and why in-person staff will always be in demand. Therefore, while the trend toward more offshoring should be examined (and indeed, supported, as this would also provide opportunities to people in countries of origin) it should not be exaggerated.

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299. Migration Law Center. "Employment of aliens in Lithuania." https://www.migration.lt/employment-of-aliens-in-lithuania

The skill level and type of ICT professionals that EU countries are attempting to attract. All the skills examined in this report sit on a continuum of low to highly skilled. While health care skills can be medium or high skill, the ICT sector tends to blur these lines. The design of any Global Skill Partnership in ICT must be careful to pick skills which are in demand in both countries, and which cannot be facilitated through other legal migration routes such as the Blue Card directive or permissive national immigration policies.

The rapidly changing nature of the sector. The digital economy, by its very nature, is fast moving. The specific skillsets required by employers are likely to shift rapidly. What is in demand now, may not be in demand two years from now when workers are trained. Any partnerships must be alive to this reality. It is likely that implementation of an ICT Global Skill Partnership will need shorter training courses (six to nine months) which can fluidly adapt to changing private sector demand in both countries.

It is difficult to go into the specifics of how an ICT partnership could be funded given that the potential countries of destination (and the financial willingness of their employers) is unknown. Yet as described above, it may be useful to use the development assistance component of international organization financing to support the development of a pilot (as the PALIM project did). However, in the long run, an ICT partnership should look to transfer financial responsibility for the training of those on the "away" track to the private sector. To be able to transition into a more sustainable financing model, the pathway will need to demonstrate the impact of the program to employers by attempting to ascertain the changes in productivity and investment due to plugged skill shortages.

Promoting a Genuine Development Benefit

As discussed above, the ICT training infrastructure within Nigeria is highly fragmented and informal. Those interested in a career within the ICT profession often resort to online classes and/or informal work placements in computer repair shops. Many emerge with skills that are targeted at specific programming languages or specific data analysis tools, rather than general digital skills that are in demand among companies in Nigeria, let alone abroad. While there are a number of local and aid-supported start-ups attempting to remedy this situation, they could use more investment and support. A robust training curriculum and new training facilities should be created to support the training of a new cohort of ICT professionals to serve local ICT needs. Such a pipeline could, eventually, be used to support roles overseas. ODA should support the government in its efforts to reduce regulations in place which are constraining the growth of the sector and also help develop a sector analysis and growth plan to make the most of Nigeria's booming market.

In addition to providing this targeted training in much-needed skills, any Global Skill Partnership in ICT with Nigeria must also take note of the nature of the market itself. Many employers prefer to hire contractors for short-term and targeted assignments, rather than bring on long-term or in-house workers. Many employees prefer to work this way too as they get to take on varied clients and develop their skills. Hence, it would be worth investing in entrepreneurship and business development skills training for these workers to help them find meaningful opportunities within the Nigerian ICT sector and grow their businesses to employ others.

Conclusion

By 2050, the working-age population of Europe is projected to decline by over 15 percent from 2020 levels, adding to the existing labor shortages that the continent is already experiencing. At the same time, the population between the ages of 20 and 64 in Sub-Saharan Africa is expected to quadruple by 2100 as the largest cohort of children reach working age, significantly increasing the existing employment pressure in the region. While most of those entering the labor market in Sub-Saharan Africa will need to find jobs domestically, some of them will have the opportunity to move to neighboring countries and outside of the continent to fill in labor shortages and send remittances back home.

This report outlined one of the approaches through which this movement can be facilitated between Nigeria, the largest economy in Africa, and Europe. It does so in five distinct sections. The first section looked at the opportunity provided by the scenario of labor surpluses in Nigeria and labor shortages in Europe, and how opening new channels for safe, orderly, and regular migration for young Nigerians could lead to a win-win scenario, displacing some of the existing irregular flows while allowing Europe to address growing labor shortages in the region. The second section described the innovation to make use of this opportunity, by implementing a Global Skill Partnership to invest in training and education within Nigeria and to develop skills needed in both Nigeria and Europe.

This section also provided a guide to selecting sectors and destination countries that are most amenable to pilot this innovation. The third and fourth sections described a health care partnership between Nigeria and the UK, and a construction partnership between Germany and Nigeria, detailing the state of workforce needs in each of the sectors in the countries of origin and destination, and sketching out an implementation plan involving relevant stakeholders in the process. The fifth and final section explores potential destination countries for partnerships in the ICT sector.

The private sector in Nigeria is currently unable to absorb all of the growing number of educated youths entering the labor force. The tertiary education system is likely exacerbating this challenge as it is unable to align its curriculum to meet the global demand for a skilled workforce. As such, innovative approaches that involve a multistakeholder partnership between the government and the private sector in Nigeria as well as international employers and training providers, are needed to design programs that are based on projected shortages in key sectors and are relevant for both Nigeria and destination countries. The Global Skill Partnership is one such approach that needs to be tested, evaluated, and scaled to enable a move away from the current lose-lose narrative where skills shortages persist in Europe while skilled youth continue to look for opportunities in Nigeria.