



Migration, Remittances, and Economic Development in West Africa: A Historical Perspective

Opara, Uche A. Ph.D; Nwokorie Chinyere Queen & Ejiaga, Constance Onyekwere Ph.D

Department of History and Diplomatic Studies, Alvan Ikoku Federal University of Education, Owerri, Imo State, Nigeria

Received: 25.07.2026 | Accepted: 17.08.2026 | Published: 19.08.2026

*Corresponding Author: Opara, Uche A. Ph.D

DOI: [10.5281/zenodo.22006830](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.22006830)

Abstract	Original Research Article
Migration has remained a significant feature of West African history, shaping patterns of economic exchange, social transformation, and regional integration. This paper examines the historical relationship between migration, remittances, and economic development in West Africa, with particular attention to the ways in which population movements have influenced household livelihoods, labour markets, and national economies. It traces migration from pre-colonial systems of mobility and long-distance trade through colonial labour migration to contemporary international and intra-regional migration. The study argues that remittances have historically served as important sources of household income, capital accumulation, education, healthcare, housing, and small-scale investment. However, their developmental effects have varied across societies depending on migration patterns, institutional structures, economic policies, and the availability of productive investment opportunities. Using a historical and qualitative approach, the paper draws on secondary literature, archival materials, and existing studies on migration and remittance flows in the region. It demonstrates that migration has simultaneously generated economic opportunities and challenges, including labour shortages, dependency, inequality, and brain drain. The paper concludes that effective migration governance, productive investment of remittances, regional cooperation, and policies supporting migrants can strengthen the contribution of migration and remittances to sustainable economic development in West Africa. Keywords: Migration, Remittances, Economic Development, West Africa, Historical Perspective	

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Introduction

Migration has been a persistent feature of West African history, influencing the political, social, cultural, and economic development of societies across the region. Long before the emergence of modern nation-states, populations moved in response to trade, agriculture, warfare, environmental pressures, marriage, religious activities, and the

search for economic opportunities. These movements connected communities across present-day Nigeria, Ghana, Senegal, Mali, Niger, Côte d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Guinea, and other parts of the region. Rather than viewing migration solely as a contemporary phenomenon, historical scholarship demonstrates that mobility constituted an important mechanism through which labour, skills, ideas, commodities, and wealth circulated across West



Africa. As Adepoju (2005) observes, migration in Africa has historically been characterised by considerable intra-regional movement, with West Africa representing one of the continent's most dynamic migration systems.

The colonial period significantly transformed existing patterns of mobility and introduced new forms of labour migration that were closely connected to the economic interests of European colonial powers. Colonial administrations encouraged or compelled the movement of workers toward plantations, mines, railways, ports, and emerging urban centres. In British, French, and Portuguese territories, taxation, land policies, commercial agriculture, and wage employment contributed to the expansion of migrant labour systems. Amin (1974) argues that colonial economic structures promoted forms of labour mobility that integrated African economies into an unequal international economic system. Similarly, Manning (1990) notes that colonial rule did not simply create migration but restructured earlier patterns of movement to serve emerging regional and international markets. Thus, migration became increasingly associated with wage labour, cash-crop production, urbanisation, and the development of colonial infrastructure.

The relationship between migration and economic development became even more complex following the attainment of independence by West African states. The creation of independent nation-states introduced international borders that sometimes divided communities with longstanding histories of mobility. Nevertheless, regional migration remained substantial, particularly because of differences in employment opportunities, wages, political stability, and economic conditions among countries. The establishment of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) in 1975 further encouraged regional mobility by promoting economic integration and the free movement of persons. According to the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS, 1979), the Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment was designed to facilitate movement among member states. Consequently, migration became an important component of regional

economic integration, with countries such as Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria, Senegal, and The Gambia emerging as important destinations or origins of migrants at different historical periods.

One of the most significant economic consequences of migration is the transfer of financial resources from migrants to their families and communities of origin. Remittances have increasingly become an important source of external finance for many developing economies, particularly where domestic employment opportunities and social protection systems are limited. The World Bank (2023) describes remittances as "an important source of external finance for developing countries," highlighting their contribution to household welfare and economic resilience. In West Africa, remittances have supported expenditure on food, education, healthcare, housing, agriculture, and small businesses. At the household level, these transfers can reduce financial vulnerability and improve living standards. At the community level, remittances may contribute to the construction of schools, houses, religious institutions, and other social infrastructure, thereby extending the economic influence of migration beyond individual households.

However, the developmental implications of remittances are not uniformly positive. Although remittance income can stimulate consumption, investment, and human-capital development, excessive dependence on migrant earnings may create vulnerabilities within households and communities. Some scholars have argued that remittances can encourage consumption rather than productive investment, while migration itself may contribute to the loss of skilled workers from countries of origin. The International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2022) emphasises that migration can produce both opportunities and challenges for migrants, families, communities, and countries of origin. In particular, the migration of educated and highly skilled professionals can weaken domestic institutions and reduce the availability of specialised labour. Consequently, the developmental impact of migration must be examined within the broader context of labour

markets, public policy, institutional capacity, and the economic structures of individual West African states.

Historically, therefore, migration and remittances have constituted both adaptive strategies and mechanisms of economic transformation in West Africa. Migrants have responded to changing economic circumstances by diversifying household income, accessing employment opportunities, and establishing transnational networks. These networks have facilitated not only the movement of money but also the circulation of knowledge, entrepreneurial practices, technologies, cultural values, and social connections. Levitt (1998) refers to such cross-border transfers as “social remittances,” drawing attention to the fact that migrants transmit ideas and practices as well as financial resources. This perspective is particularly useful for understanding West African migration because economic development cannot be measured solely through monetary transfers. Migrants may influence development through entrepreneurship, skills acquisition, investment, political engagement, and the creation of transnational business networks.

Against this historical background, this study examines the relationship between migration, remittances, and economic development in West Africa from a historical perspective. It explores the evolution of migration from pre-colonial mobility and long-distance trade through colonial labour migration to contemporary regional and international migration. The study also assesses the changing role of remittances in household survival, capital formation, education, healthcare, entrepreneurship, and community development. By placing contemporary migration within its historical context, the study argues that migration should not be understood merely as a response to poverty or economic crisis but as a longstanding component of West African economic and social history. Understanding this historical trajectory is essential for developing policies capable of maximising the developmental benefits of migration while reducing associated challenges such as brain drain, inequality, exploitation, and excessive dependency on

remittance income.

Conceptual Clarification of Migration, Remittances and Economic Development

Migration is a multidimensional phenomenon involving the movement of people from one geographical location to another, either temporarily or permanently, within or across national boundaries. It may occur voluntarily or under conditions of constraint and can be motivated by economic, political, social, environmental, educational, or security considerations. The International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2024) defines migration broadly as “the movement of persons away from their place of usual residence, either across an international border or within a State.” This broad definition demonstrates that migration is not restricted to international movements but includes internal mobility. In the West African context, migration has historically involved seasonal movements, pastoral mobility, labour migration, urbanisation, cross-border trade, refugee movements, and international migration. Consequently, migration should be understood as a dynamic process through which individuals and communities respond to changing social and economic circumstances.

Historically, migration in West Africa predates the establishment of colonial boundaries and modern nation-states. Population movements were closely associated with agriculture, trade, pastoralism, warfare, religious expansion, environmental changes, and the search for fertile land and economic opportunities. Long-distance trade networks connected communities across the Sahel, savannah, forest, and coastal regions, facilitating the movement of merchants, artisans, farmers, religious scholars, and labourers. Manning (1990) argues that African mobility was deeply embedded in the organisation of economic and social life before colonial rule. Similarly, Adepoju (2005) observes that West Africa has traditionally experienced extensive intra-regional migration, making mobility an important feature of the region's historical development. Migration, therefore, should not be interpreted simply as a modern response to economic hardship;

rather, it represents a longstanding institution through which West African societies adapted to changing circumstances.

A further conceptual distinction is necessary between migration and migrant mobility. Migration generally implies a change in the usual place of residence, whereas mobility can encompass a broader range of temporary, circular, seasonal, and repeated movements. This distinction is particularly important in West Africa, where circular migration and seasonal labour mobility have historically been common. Farmers, pastoralists, traders, and wage workers frequently moved between rural and urban areas or across national borders without permanently abandoning their communities of origin. The International Labour Organization (ILO, 2021) notes that labour migration involves people moving across borders or within countries for the purpose of employment. Such movements contribute to labour-market adjustment by transferring workers from areas with limited employment opportunities to areas where labour demand is greater. Migration can therefore function as both a livelihood strategy and an economic mechanism connecting different regional labour markets.

Remittances constitute another central concept in understanding the relationship between migration and development. Remittances generally refer to monetary or in-kind transfers made by migrants to individuals, households, or communities in their places of origin. The World Bank (2023) describes remittances as “an important source of external finance for developing countries.” They may be sent through formal banking institutions, money-transfer operators, mobile platforms, informal networks, or carried personally by migrants. In West Africa, remittances have become increasingly important for households that depend on migrant income to meet basic needs and finance productive activities. However, the economic importance of remittances cannot be reduced to their monetary value because they may also influence household decisions concerning education, healthcare, housing, agriculture, entrepreneurship, and migration itself.

The concept of remittances has also expanded beyond financial transfers. Levitt (1998) introduced

the concept of “social remittances” to describe the ideas, behaviours, identities, knowledge, and social practices that migrants transmit to their communities of origin. Social remittances may include new approaches to education, entrepreneurship, gender relations, political participation, health practices, and community organisation. This broader understanding is especially relevant to West Africa because migrants frequently maintain strong social and cultural connections with their communities of origin. Through these connections, migrants may influence development even when they send relatively modest financial resources. Remittances should therefore be conceptualised as both financial and social resources capable of influencing economic and societal transformation.

Economic development, meanwhile, is broader than economic growth. Economic growth generally refers to an increase in the production of goods and services or national income, whereas economic development encompasses improvements in living standards, human capabilities, employment, social welfare, infrastructure, institutional quality, and opportunities. Sen (1999) famously conceptualises development as “a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy.” This perspective places human welfare at the centre of development rather than concentrating exclusively on increases in gross domestic product. For West African societies, economic development therefore involves not only higher incomes but also improved access to education, healthcare, employment, infrastructure, productive assets, and opportunities for human advancement.

The relationship between migration and economic development is complex and multidirectional. Migration may contribute to development by reducing pressure on domestic labour markets, increasing household income, transferring skills, promoting entrepreneurship, and generating remittances. Migrants may acquire knowledge and capital abroad and subsequently transfer these resources to their communities of origin. At the same time, migration may produce negative consequences, particularly where highly skilled professionals leave countries experiencing shortages of specialised labour. The World Bank (2023) notes that

remittances can provide important support to households during periods of economic difficulty, but the developmental effects depend considerably on how such resources are utilised. Thus, migration should neither be regarded automatically as a development solution nor dismissed as a purely negative phenomenon.

Remittances can influence economic development at household, community, and national levels. At the household level, they can increase disposable income and improve access to food, education, healthcare, and housing. At the community level, remittances can support local businesses, construction, agricultural activities, and community development projects. At the macroeconomic level, remittances can provide foreign exchange and strengthen the external financial position of recipient countries. However, excessive dependence on remittances may encourage consumption rather than productive investment and can create economic vulnerabilities when migrants experience unemployment or economic shocks in destination countries. Adams and Page (2005) found that international migration and remittances can contribute to poverty reduction in developing countries, although the magnitude of their effects varies across countries and households.

Conceptually, migration, remittances, and economic development should therefore be understood as interconnected but distinct processes. Migration represents the movement of people; remittances represent resources transferred by migrants; and economic development represents broader improvements in economic opportunities, human welfare, productive capacity, and living standards. Their relationship is particularly significant in West Africa because the region has a long history of internal and international mobility, extensive cross-border networks, and substantial dependence on migrant contributions. Understanding these concepts within their historical context makes it possible to assess both the opportunities and limitations associated with migration and remittances. The central argument is that migration can contribute meaningfully to economic development when remittances, skills, knowledge, and transnational

networks are supported by effective institutions, productive investment opportunities, appropriate migration policies, and regional economic cooperation.

Theoretical Framework

The relationship between migration, remittances, and economic development in West Africa can be examined through Migration Systems Theory, the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM), and Dependency Theory. These theories provide complementary explanations because they examine migration at different levels of analysis. Migration Systems Theory focuses on the historical, social, economic, and institutional connections between places of origin and destination; NELM emphasises household decision-making and risk diversification; while Dependency Theory considers the structural inequalities embedded in the international economic system. Together, these perspectives provide a useful foundation for understanding the historical persistence of migration in West Africa and its complex consequences for development. As Massey et al. (1993) argue, “migration is a process that is self-perpetuating” (p. 449), indicating that established migration networks can encourage subsequent movements by reducing the costs and risks associated with migration.

Migration Systems Theory explains migration as a process sustained by interconnected relationships between origin and destination areas. Mabogunje (1970), in his influential study of rural-urban migration in Africa, conceptualised migration as part of a broader system involving information, social relationships, economic opportunities, and feedback mechanisms. Fawcett (1989) similarly identifies social, economic, cultural, and political linkages as important elements in the development of migration systems. This perspective is particularly relevant to West Africa because population mobility existed long before the creation of colonial boundaries. Trade, pastoralism, religious activities, kinship, warfare, and seasonal employment created networks connecting different communities. Colonialism subsequently reorganised these movements through taxation, wage labour, cash-crop production, mining,

transportation, and urbanisation. Thus, contemporary migration patterns cannot be adequately understood without considering the historical networks that have connected West African societies over time.

The New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) provides a household-level explanation of migration and remittances. The theory challenges the assumption that migration is simply an individual response to differences in wages and employment opportunities. Instead, households may collectively decide that one or more members should migrate as a strategy for diversifying income and reducing economic risks. Stark and Bloom (1985) describe the new economics of labour migration as an approach that “views migration as a household decision” rather than simply an individual choice (p. 174). This perspective is particularly applicable to West Africa, where migrants frequently remit part of their earnings to families in their communities of origin. Such remittances may finance food, education, healthcare, housing, agricultural activities, and small businesses. Taylor (1999) consequently argues that migration and remittances can have important effects on household income and local development. NELM therefore helps explain why migration may continue even when the costs and risks of migration are substantial.

Dependency Theory provides a structural explanation of the unequal relationship between migration and economic development. Dependency theorists argue that developing economies have historically been incorporated into the global capitalist system in ways that produce unequal patterns of development. Frank (1967) famously described the relationship between developed and developing economies through the concept of the “development of underdevelopment” (p. 9), suggesting that underdevelopment is connected to historical relationships within the international economic system. Amin (1974) similarly examined the incorporation of African economies into global capitalism and the unequal distribution of economic opportunities. This perspective is relevant to West Africa because differences in wages, employment opportunities, infrastructure, education, and working conditions can encourage migration to more developed economies. It also provides a framework

for examining brain drain, whereby the departure of skilled professionals may weaken critical sectors in countries of origin, even though migrants may simultaneously contribute through remittances, knowledge transfer, and investment.

The combined application of these theories provides a comprehensive framework for analysing migration, remittances, and economic development in West Africa from a historical perspective. Migration Systems Theory explains how historical and social networks facilitate continued population movement; NELM explains migration as a household strategy for income diversification and risk management; while Dependency Theory highlights the structural inequalities that influence migration between economically unequal regions. Their combination demonstrates that migration is neither automatically beneficial nor inherently detrimental to development. Rather, its consequences depend on the interaction between migrant decisions, household strategies, social networks, government policies, regional integration, and global economic structures. As de Haas (2010) argues, “migration and development are not two separate processes” but are closely interconnected (p. 228). The framework therefore supports the view that remittances can contribute to poverty reduction, human-capital development, entrepreneurship, and household welfare, while brain drain, dependency, inequality, and weak institutions may limit the wider developmental benefits of migration.

Historical Evolution of Migration in West Africa: Pre-Colonial, Colonial and Postcolonial Periods

Migration has been a fundamental feature of West African history long before the emergence of colonial rule and modern international boundaries. During the pre-colonial period, population movements occurred for a variety of reasons, including the search for fertile land, pastoral activities, warfare, trade, religious expansion, marriage, and environmental pressures. Major movements contributed to the formation and expansion of political communities such as the Hausa states, Kanem-Bornu, Mali, Songhai, and various forest and coastal societies. Long-distance

trade also encouraged the movement of merchants, artisans, scholars, and labourers across the savannah and forest zones. Manning (1990) emphasises that mobility was deeply embedded in African economic and social organisation, while Curtin (1984) demonstrates the importance of commercial networks in connecting West African societies with wider regional and international markets. Migration during this period was therefore not simply a response to economic hardship but an important mechanism of social interaction, economic exchange, and political transformation.

The expansion of Islam from North Africa into the western and central Sudan further stimulated population movements during the pre-colonial period. Muslim scholars, traders, clerics, and pilgrims travelled extensively across West Africa, contributing to the development of intellectual, commercial, and religious networks. The trans-Saharan trade connected West African centres with North African and Mediterranean markets, resulting in considerable movement of people and commodities. Lovejoy (2012) notes that “migration was an integral part of the process of Islamization” in many parts of Africa (p. 35). Similarly, the expansion of the Fulani across different parts of the western Sudan involved pastoral mobility as well as political and religious transformations. These movements helped create interconnected communities whose economic and cultural relationships often extended across territories that later became separate colonial states.

European colonialism from the late nineteenth century profoundly transformed existing patterns of migration in West Africa. Colonial administrations introduced new economic structures based on taxation, cash-crop production, wage labour, mining, transportation, and urban development. These policies generated demand for labour in plantations, mines, ports, railways, and administrative centres. Colonial boundaries also divided previously interconnected communities and restricted some forms of traditional mobility while simultaneously encouraging labour migration to areas where colonial enterprises required workers. Amin (1974) argues that colonial economic structures reorganised African labour in accordance with the requirements

of an externally oriented capitalist economy. Consequently, migration increasingly became associated with wage employment and the production of export commodities, marking a major transformation from earlier patterns of mobility.

Colonial labour migration became particularly important in the development of urban centres and cash-crop economies across West Africa. Workers from northern territories moved towards southern agricultural and commercial zones, while migrants from rural areas travelled to emerging towns and colonial administrative centres. Côte d’Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria, Senegal, and other territories developed distinctive migration systems based on differences in employment opportunities and economic conditions. In the Gold Coast, for example, the expansion of cocoa production attracted migrant labourers from neighbouring territories, while mining created additional demand for workers. Cordell et al. (1996) describe colonial African migration as part of wider transformations in labour and economic systems, demonstrating that colonial authorities and commercial interests increasingly sought to regulate African mobility. Migration thus became an important component of colonial economic integration, although the benefits were distributed unevenly between African workers, local communities, colonial enterprises, and European authorities.

The attainment of independence from the late 1950s and 1960s did not end migration; rather, it produced new patterns and destinations. The creation of independent states introduced international borders that separated some communities with longstanding economic, cultural, and kinship connections. Nevertheless, labour migration, seasonal migration, rural-urban migration, and cross-border commercial movements continued. Some countries emerged as major destinations because of stronger economies and greater employment opportunities, while others remained important sources of migrants. Adepaju (2005) observes that West Africa has historically experienced “a high degree of intra-regional migration” (p. 25). This pattern became particularly important in the context of regional economic integration and the creation of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS),

whose 1979 protocol sought to facilitate the free movement of persons, residence, and establishment among member states (ECOWAS, 1979).

From the 1970s onward, economic crises, political instability, structural adjustment programmes, unemployment, and changing labour-market conditions further influenced migration patterns in West Africa. The economic difficulties experienced by several countries encouraged increased movement towards relatively prosperous destinations within the region and, increasingly, towards Europe, North America, and the Middle East. At the same time, conflicts in countries such as Liberia, Sierra Leone, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, and Nigeria generated refugee and displacement movements. Migration therefore became increasingly diverse, encompassing labour migration, student migration, irregular migration, refugee movements, professional migration, and transnational business mobility. According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2024), migration is shaped by “economic, social, political and environmental factors,” illustrating the multidimensional nature of contemporary population movements.

In the twenty-first century, migration has become closely connected to globalisation, regional integration, digital communication, transnational networks, and remittance flows. West African migrants increasingly maintain economic and social relationships with their communities of origin through money transfers, investment, knowledge exchange, and communication technologies. Remittances have consequently become an important dimension of migration and household livelihoods. However, contemporary migration also presents challenges, including irregular migration, human trafficking, exploitation, brain drain, refugee crises, and the loss of skilled labour. The historical evolution of migration in West Africa therefore demonstrates considerable continuity as well as transformation: pre-colonial mobility was shaped largely by trade, pastoralism, religion, political expansion, and environmental factors; colonialism redirected mobility toward labour and export-oriented economic systems; while postcolonial migration has been shaped by regional integration,

economic inequalities, political instability, globalisation, and employment opportunities. Understanding these historical changes is essential for assessing the contemporary relationship between migration, remittances, and economic development in the region.

Migration, Labour Mobility and Regional Economic Integration

Migration and labour mobility are important components of regional economic integration because they facilitate the movement of people, skills, knowledge and labour across national borders. Regional integration is not limited to the removal of tariffs and trade barriers; it increasingly involves creating conditions that allow citizens of member states to work and reside in other participating countries. In West Africa, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has historically promoted the free movement of persons as a central pillar of regional integration. The ECOWAS Protocol on Free Movement of Persons, Residence and Establishment provides a framework for citizens to enter, reside and establish themselves within member states. As Adepoju (2005) observes, “the free movement of persons is a fundamental component of regional integration” in West Africa. Consequently, migration has become both a social process and an economic mechanism for strengthening regional interdependence.

Labour mobility contributes to regional economic integration by enabling workers to move from areas with limited employment opportunities to economies experiencing labour shortages. Such mobility can improve the allocation of labour resources and increase productivity across participating countries. Migrant workers often occupy sectors such as agriculture, construction, transportation, domestic services, commerce and informal economic activities. The International Labour Organization (ILO, 2021) emphasizes that labour migration can contribute to “economic growth and development in countries of origin, transit and destination” when appropriately governed. Within West Africa, countries such as Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal have historically attracted migrants from

neighbouring states because of their relatively stronger commercial and employment opportunities. Thus, labour mobility enables regional economies to complement one another rather than operate as completely isolated national labour markets.

Migration also promotes regional economic integration through remittances and migrant entrepreneurship. Migrant workers frequently send part of their earnings to households and communities in their countries of origin, thereby supporting consumption, education, healthcare, housing and small-scale investment. According to the World Bank (2023), remittances remain an important source of external finance for many developing economies and can contribute to household resilience and local economic activity. Migrants also establish businesses across borders, develop commercial networks and facilitate the exchange of goods and services. These transnational economic activities strengthen what Bakewell and de Haas (2007) describe as the “transnational social fields” created through migration. In this regard, migration does not simply involve the physical movement of workers; it also creates networks that connect markets, communities and economic institutions across countries.

Labour mobility can further deepen regional integration by facilitating the transfer of skills, knowledge and technology. Skilled migrants may contribute expertise in education, healthcare, engineering, finance, information technology and other professional sectors in destination countries. At the same time, migrants can acquire new skills and experiences that may later be transferred to their countries of origin through return migration or transnational professional networks. The African Union (2018) recognizes that “free movement of persons and the right of residence and establishment” are important for achieving continental integration and development. However, the benefits of skilled migration depend partly on policies that facilitate recognition of qualifications, portability of social security benefits and protection of migrant workers' rights. Without such measures, differences in professional regulations and immigration procedures may restrict the full economic benefits of labour mobility.

Despite its potential benefits, migration and labour mobility can generate challenges for regional economic integration. Destination countries may experience concerns about pressure on employment, public services, housing and infrastructure, particularly during periods of economic hardship. Migrants may also encounter discrimination, exploitation, irregular documentation and restrictions on access to formal employment. According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2022), effective migration governance requires policies that protect migrants while recognizing the developmental contributions of migration. In West Africa, the implementation of free-movement arrangements has also been affected by border controls, insecurity, administrative barriers and inconsistent national policies. These challenges demonstrate that formal regional agreements alone are insufficient; effective implementation, institutional cooperation and protection of migrants' rights are necessary to transform labour mobility into a sustainable instrument of integration.

Ultimately, migration and labour mobility constitute important mechanisms through which regional economic integration can be strengthened. The movement of workers promotes the efficient distribution of labour, stimulates trade and investment, generates remittances, facilitates knowledge transfer and strengthens social and commercial networks among participating countries. As the African Development Bank (2022) argues, greater regional integration can help African countries “create larger markets, enhance competitiveness and foster sustainable economic growth.” For West Africa, therefore, effective management of migration should be viewed not merely as a security or demographic issue but as an important economic policy instrument. Strengthening the implementation of ECOWAS free-movement protocols, harmonising labour standards, recognizing professional qualifications and protecting migrant workers would help ensure that migration contributes more substantially to regional economic integration and inclusive development.

Historical Evolution and Patterns of Remittance Flows in West Africa

Remittance flows in West Africa have a long historical connection with patterns of labour migration, trade and economic mobility. During the pre-colonial period, population movements across political and ethnic boundaries facilitated the exchange of goods, labour and resources among communities. However, the emergence of colonial economies significantly transformed these movements as European powers introduced cash-crop production, taxation and wage labour, encouraging migration toward emerging commercial centres and colonial administrative towns. In British and French West Africa, migrant labour became particularly important in plantations, mines, railways and urban centres. According to Adepoju (2005), West African migration has historically been characterized by “considerable intra-regional mobility,” with migrants moving in response to economic opportunities and labour demand. These movements created early systems of transferring earnings between migrants and their households and laid foundations for the modern remittance economy.

The colonial period witnessed the expansion and institutionalisation of labour migration, particularly from poorer inland areas toward relatively prosperous coastal economies. Workers from Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger and other inland territories migrated to Côte d’Ivoire, Ghana and Senegal, where opportunities existed in cocoa production, plantations, mining, commerce and urban employment. Migrants commonly maintained close economic relationships with their communities of origin, sending money and goods to support relatives and households. Although these transfers were frequently informal and poorly documented, they represented an important form of household income redistribution across colonial territories. The post-independence period inherited these migration networks, and economic disparities between neighbouring states continued to encourage cross-border labour movements. As Bakewell and de Haas (2007) argue, African migration patterns demonstrate both “continuities and transformations,” reflecting the persistence of established mobility networks alongside changing economic and political

conditions.

From the 1970s and 1980s, changing economic circumstances produced significant shifts in the volume and direction of remittance flows in West Africa. Countries such as Ghana and Nigeria experienced economic difficulties, while Côte d’Ivoire remained an important destination for migrant workers because of its relatively strong agricultural and commercial economy. Political instability, structural adjustment programmes, unemployment and declining real wages also encouraged migration within and beyond the region. During this period, remittances increasingly became an important survival mechanism for migrant households, particularly in countries experiencing economic crisis. However, much of the money continued to move through informal channels, including personal networks, traders, transporters and community associations. This made it difficult for governments and international organisations to capture the actual magnitude of remittance flows. The World Bank (2023) notes that recorded remittances represent only part of the broader financial transfers associated with international migration, particularly where informal channels remain significant.

Since the 1990s, remittance flows to West Africa have expanded substantially as migration has become increasingly diversified and formal financial-transfer systems have developed. Nigerian, Ghanaian and Senegalese migrants, among others, have established significant transnational communities in Europe, North America and other African countries. The expansion of money-transfer operators, commercial banks, mobile money and digital financial technologies has made it easier and faster for migrants to transfer funds to their countries of origin. Nigeria has emerged as one of the region's largest recipients of remittances, reflecting its large diaspora population and extensive international migration networks. According to the World Bank (2023), remittances have become “an important source of external finance” for many developing countries. The increasing formalisation of remittance channels has also improved the capacity of governments and financial institutions to monitor flows and integrate migrant transfers into broader

development strategies.

In contemporary West Africa, remittance flows display considerable variation between countries and are influenced by migration patterns, economic conditions, exchange rates, employment opportunities and political stability. Remittances support household consumption, education, healthcare, housing, small businesses and other forms of investment, thereby contributing to socioeconomic development. Nevertheless, the developmental impact varies according to how households use the funds and the broader economic environment in recipient countries. High transfer costs, dependence on informal channels, exchange-rate fluctuations and financial exclusion can reduce the benefits of remittances. The International Organization for Migration (2022) therefore emphasizes the importance of policies that promote “safe, orderly and regular migration” and improve the developmental contribution of migration. Overall, the historical trajectory of remittances in West Africa demonstrates a movement from largely informal, family-based transfers associated with regional labour migration toward increasingly international, formalised and digitally facilitated financial flows that have become an important component of regional economic development.

Migration and Remittances as Drivers of Economic Development

Migration and remittances have become significant drivers of economic development in developing countries, particularly across West Africa. Migration enables individuals to move from areas with limited employment opportunities to locations where labour demand and wages are relatively higher. Migrants subsequently transfer part of their earnings to households and communities in their countries or regions of origin. These remittances provide financial resources that can improve household welfare and stimulate economic activity. The World Bank (2023) describes remittances as an important source of external finance for developing economies, while the International Organization for Migration (2022) emphasizes that migration can make important contributions to development when

appropriately managed. Thus, migration represents not only population mobility but also an economic strategy through which households diversify their sources of income.

At the household level, remittances contribute directly to poverty reduction and improvements in living standards. Families receiving remittances often use the funds to meet expenditure on food, clothing, education, healthcare and housing. During periods of economic difficulty, remittances can provide a relatively stable source of income and help households cope with unemployment, inflation and other economic shocks. According to the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD, 2017), remittances are frequently used to meet “basic household needs” while also supporting longer-term investments. In West Africa, these transfers are particularly important because many households depend on informal economic activities and have limited access to formal credit. Remittances can therefore increase household purchasing power while simultaneously strengthening the economic security of migrant families.

Beyond consumption, remittances can promote investment and entrepreneurship, thereby contributing to broader economic development. Recipients may invest remitted funds in agriculture, small businesses, transportation, housing, education and other productive activities. Such investments can generate employment and increase local production. Migrants themselves may also acquire skills, capital and entrepreneurial experience in destination countries, which can subsequently be transferred to their communities of origin. De Haas (2010) argues that migration should not be viewed exclusively as a cause of economic dependency because migrants can become “agents of development” through their financial, human and social contributions. Consequently, the developmental impact of migration extends beyond the immediate value of money transferred to households.

Migration and remittances can also contribute to national economic development by increasing foreign-exchange earnings and strengthening external financial resources. Countries with substantial diaspora populations can receive

significant inflows of foreign currency, which can support balance-of-payments positions and increase the availability of resources for domestic economic activities. Remittance flows may also stimulate demand for goods and services, thereby supporting local businesses and employment. However, the extent to which remittances translate into sustainable development depends on the economic environment, financial institutions and government policies of recipient countries. High transaction costs, inadequate financial inclusion and excessive dependence on remittance-funded consumption can limit their developmental impact. The World Bank (2023) therefore stresses the importance of reducing the cost of sending remittances and improving access to formal financial services.

Nevertheless, migration and remittances can produce both positive and negative developmental outcomes. Large-scale migration of highly skilled workers may contribute to brain drain in countries already experiencing shortages of professionals, particularly in healthcare, education and engineering. Families may also become dependent on remittances rather than developing sustainable local sources of income. Furthermore, fluctuations in employment conditions in destination countries can cause remittance inflows to decline. Effective policies are therefore necessary to maximise the developmental benefits of migration while reducing its potential costs. As the African Union (2018) recognizes, migration and the “free movement of persons” can contribute to continental integration and development. For West Africa, strengthening diaspora engagement, reducing remittance-transfer costs, promoting productive investment, improving financial inclusion and protecting migrant workers can make migration and remittances more effective instruments of sustainable economic development.

Challenges of Migration and Remittances: Brain Drain, Dependency and Inequality

Migration and remittances generate important economic benefits, but they can also create significant challenges for developing economies, particularly in West Africa. One of the most frequently discussed challenges is the loss of human

capital through brain drain. Brain drain occurs when highly educated and professionally skilled individuals leave their countries of origin for better employment opportunities, higher wages and improved living conditions abroad. In many African countries, doctors, nurses, lecturers, engineers, information-technology specialists and other professionals constitute a significant proportion of emigrants. Docquier and Marfouk (2006) demonstrate the substantial scale of skilled migration from developing countries, while the World Health Organization (2020) notes that the international migration of health workers can create serious shortages in countries already facing limited healthcare capacity. Consequently, migration can provide benefits to individual migrants while simultaneously weakening the human-resource base of countries of origin.

The problem of brain drain is particularly significant because developing countries often invest considerable public resources in educating and training professionals who subsequently contribute their skills to foreign economies. When large numbers of skilled workers migrate, countries of origin may experience shortages in critical sectors such as healthcare, education, engineering and scientific research. This can reduce institutional capacity and constrain long-term economic development. Clemens (2015), however, cautions against treating skilled migration as an entirely negative phenomenon, arguing that opportunities abroad can also create incentives for education and skills acquisition. Nevertheless, where emigration exceeds the capacity of domestic institutions to replace skilled workers, brain drain can become a serious development challenge. The resulting loss of expertise may be particularly damaging in countries where professional training systems are already underfunded.

A second challenge is economic dependency on remittances. Although remittances can reduce poverty and improve household welfare, excessive reliance on money sent by migrants may discourage the development of sustainable domestic sources of income. Households that become heavily dependent on remittances may reduce their participation in

productive activities, particularly where local employment opportunities are limited. At the national level, governments may also become increasingly concerned with maintaining diaspora inflows rather than addressing structural weaknesses in employment, industrialisation and domestic production. De Haas (2010), however, emphasizes that the relationship between migration and development is complex and that migration does not automatically produce either dependency or development. The central concern is therefore not the receipt of remittances itself but the possibility that persistent dependence on external household income may weaken incentives for productive transformation.

Remittances may also contribute to economic inequality within communities and between households. Not every household has a migrant member, and the ability to migrate is often influenced by access to financial resources, education, social networks and information. Consequently, households with migrants may receive substantial financial transfers while those without migrants receive little or nothing. This can widen socioeconomic differences within communities. Adams and Cuecuecha (2013) observe that remittances can have important effects on household investment and welfare, but these effects vary according to household circumstances. In West Africa, families with migrants in Europe, North America or other relatively high-income destinations may have considerably greater financial resources than families whose members remain dependent on low and unstable domestic incomes.

Inequality can also emerge from differences in the destination and skill level of migrants. Migrants working in high-income countries may send larger amounts of money than those working within neighbouring West African countries or in low-wage occupations. Similarly, highly skilled migrants may have greater earning capacity and therefore greater ability to support households in their countries of origin. This creates uneven patterns of remittance distribution. Furthermore, the costs associated with sending money internationally can

disproportionately affect poorer migrants and their families. The World Bank (2023) has repeatedly identified the reduction of remittance-transfer costs as an important development objective. High transaction costs reduce the amount ultimately received by households and can encourage migrants to use informal channels, making transfers more difficult to monitor and potentially reducing their contribution to formal financial development.

Another challenge concerns the potential social and demographic consequences of migration. Prolonged separation between migrants and their families can create difficulties in childcare, marriage, elderly care and community participation. Children left behind may benefit financially from remittances but may also experience the absence of parents or other close relatives. At the community level, continuous outward migration can alter population structures and reduce the availability of young and economically active people. In some rural areas, the departure of working-age populations can contribute to labour shortages and weaken agricultural production. The International Organization for Migration (2022) therefore stresses the need for migration policies that recognise both the developmental opportunities and social costs associated with population mobility.

The challenges of brain drain, dependency and inequality demonstrate that migration and remittances should not be regarded as automatic solutions to the development problems of West African countries. Their positive effects depend heavily on appropriate economic, social and migration policies. Governments can reduce brain drain by improving working conditions, remuneration, research opportunities and professional development at home, while diaspora engagement policies can encourage skilled migrants to contribute knowledge and investment without necessarily requiring permanent return. Similarly, remittances can be channelled toward productive investment through financial inclusion, entrepreneurship programmes and lower transfer costs. As the African Union (2018) emphasizes, migration can support development and integration

when the movement of people is properly governed. A balanced policy approach should therefore maximise the developmental benefits of migration while reducing its capacity to deepen human-capital losses, economic dependency and socioeconomic inequality.

Policy Responses, Prospects and Strategies for Maximising Developmental Benefits

Policy responses to the developmental challenges and opportunities associated with migration and remittances require a comprehensive approach that connects migration management with national and regional development planning. Governments in West Africa need to move beyond viewing migration primarily as a security or demographic concern and recognise it as an important component of economic policy. Effective migration governance should protect migrants' rights, facilitate safe and regular mobility, and strengthen cooperation between countries of origin and destination. The International Organization for Migration (2022) stresses the importance of "safe, orderly and regular migration" in achieving sustainable development. At the regional level, strengthening the implementation of ECOWAS protocols on free movement can facilitate legitimate labour mobility, reduce unnecessary border restrictions and enhance regional economic integration.

A major strategy for maximising the developmental benefits of migration is the effective management of remittance flows. Governments should encourage migrants to use formal and affordable channels for transferring money by reducing transaction costs, improving financial infrastructure and expanding digital payment systems. Financial institutions can also develop savings, credit and investment products specifically designed for migrant households and diaspora communities. According to the World Bank (2023), reducing the cost of remittance transfers can increase the resources available to recipient households and economies. In addition, financial literacy programmes can help families use remittances not only for consumption but also for education, agricultural production, housing, entrepreneurship and other productive investments.

Another important policy response is the promotion of diaspora engagement and investment. Governments can establish diaspora investment programmes, bonds, business platforms and incentives that encourage migrants to invest their savings and expertise in their countries of origin. Diaspora communities possess not only financial resources but also professional knowledge, international networks and entrepreneurial experience. De Haas (2010) argues that migrants can become "agents of development" through their economic and social contributions. Governments should therefore create an enabling environment characterised by political stability, transparent institutions, favourable investment regulations and protection of property rights. Such measures can encourage migrants to establish businesses, support community projects and contribute to technology and knowledge transfer.

Addressing brain drain should constitute another major component of migration policy. West African governments need to improve domestic working conditions, remuneration, professional development, research facilities and career opportunities, particularly in critical sectors such as healthcare, education, science and technology. Rather than attempting to prevent migration altogether, policies should encourage brain circulation, whereby skilled migrants maintain professional, financial and institutional connections with their countries of origin. Temporary return programmes, academic partnerships, remote professional services and diaspora knowledge networks can enable countries to benefit from their citizens abroad. The African Union (2018) recognises the importance of mobility and skills development for continental integration, making diaspora cooperation an important component of Africa's broader development strategy.

Regional cooperation also offers significant prospects for maximising the developmental benefits of migration. ECOWAS member states can strengthen the mutual recognition of professional qualifications, improve portability of social-security benefits and coordinate labour-market policies. Harmonising migration and labour regulations would make it easier for workers to move legally between

member states and reduce exploitation and irregular migration. Regional cooperation can also improve the collection of migration and remittance statistics, enabling governments to formulate policies based on reliable evidence. Adepoju (2005) notes that West African migration has historically involved substantial intra-regional mobility; consequently, policies that facilitate rather than unnecessarily restrict regional movement can strengthen economic complementarity and integration.

Finally, the long-term prospects for maximising the developmental benefits of migration depend on integrating migration into broader strategies for inclusive and sustainable economic development. Governments should invest remittances and migration-related resources in productive sectors capable of generating employment and reducing excessive dependence on migration. Public-private partnerships can support migrant entrepreneurship, while development programmes can connect diaspora investment with infrastructure, agriculture, manufacturing, education and technology. At the same time, policies should ensure that the benefits of migration are not concentrated among households already possessing substantial resources. As the World Bank (2023) indicates, remittances can remain an important source of development finance when supported by appropriate institutions and policies. Therefore, a coordinated combination of good governance, affordable remittance systems, diaspora engagement, human-capital development, regional cooperation and productive investment offers West African countries the strongest prospects for transforming migration into a sustainable instrument of economic development.

Conclusion

Migration and remittances have historically constituted important forces in the economic and social development of West Africa. From pre-colonial population movements to contemporary international migration, the movement of people has facilitated the circulation of labour, skills, capital and knowledge across communities and national borders.

Remittances have consequently become an important source of household income, supporting expenditure on education, healthcare, housing, agriculture and small-scale enterprises. As the World Bank (2023) observes, remittances remain an “important source of external finance” for many developing economies. Their growing significance demonstrates that migration should be understood not merely as a demographic phenomenon but also as an important component of economic development.

The analysis has also established that migration and remittances produce both positive and negative developmental consequences. Remittances can reduce poverty, strengthen household resilience, stimulate consumption and encourage investment, while labour mobility can improve the allocation of human resources across regional economies. However, the migration of highly skilled professionals may contribute to brain drain and weaken essential sectors in countries of origin. De Haas (2010) argues that migrants can become “agents of development,” but the developmental outcome depends considerably on the conditions under which migration occurs. Similarly, unequal access to migration opportunities may result in remittance benefits being concentrated among particular households and communities, thereby reinforcing existing socioeconomic inequalities.

Despite these challenges, substantial prospects exist for maximising the developmental benefits of migration and remittances in West Africa. Governments can reduce remittance-transfer costs, strengthen financial inclusion, promote diaspora investment and encourage the productive utilisation of remitted funds. Policies that support entrepreneurship, agricultural investment, education and small and medium-sized enterprises can transform remittances from primarily consumption-oriented resources into productive capital. The International Organization for Migration (2022) stresses the importance of “safe, orderly and regular migration,” suggesting that effective migration governance is essential for converting mobility into sustainable development outcomes.

Regional cooperation is equally important for achieving these objectives. The effective implementation of ECOWAS free-movement arrangements can facilitate legitimate labour mobility, strengthen regional labour markets and deepen economic integration. Mutual recognition of professional qualifications, portability of social-security benefits and improved migration-data systems can further enhance the contribution of migrant labour to regional development. Adepoju (2005) observes that West African migration has historically involved “considerable intra-regional mobility,” indicating that regional movement is deeply embedded in the socioeconomic history of the subregion. Strengthening existing regional institutions can therefore help transform established migration patterns into more productive forms of economic cooperation.

Ultimately, migration and remittances should be incorporated into broader national and regional development strategies rather than treated exclusively as security or population issues. Addressing brain drain requires improvements in employment conditions, remuneration, professional opportunities and institutional capacity, while diaspora engagement can facilitate the transfer of capital, knowledge and technology. The African Union (2018) identifies “free movement of persons” as an important element of continental integration, reinforcing the need for policies that recognise migration as a potential development resource. With appropriate governance, migration can contribute to human-capital development, investment and regional integration.

The developmental contribution of migration and remittances in West Africa depends on the ability of governments and regional institutions to maximise their benefits while reducing associated costs. Effective migration governance, affordable remittance systems, diaspora engagement, productive investment, human-capital retention and regional cooperation are essential to this process. Migration should therefore not be regarded simply as a response to economic hardship; when properly managed, it can become an instrument of economic

transformation and regional integration. As the African Union (2018) framework suggests, greater mobility can contribute to a more integrated Africa, while sound economic policies can ensure that the financial and human resources generated through migration contribute meaningfully to sustainable and inclusive development.

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