International Journal of Marketing and Management Research
Vol. 9, Issue 6, June 2018, Impact Factor; 5.108 ISSN: (2229-6883)
www.skirec.org Email Id: skirec.org@gmail.com

STRATEGIES FOR THE EXPLOITATION OF BENEFITS OF FREE MOVEMENT OF HUMAN LABOUR FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT BY NIGERIA IN THE CONTEXT OF GLOBALIZATION: AN ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines strategies for the exploitation of benefits abounds in the liberalization of free movement of human labor for economic development by Nigeria in the context of Globalization. The research relied on both primary and secondary sources of information. The study found that there are immense benefits inherent in the liberalization of free movement of human labour across National Boundary. That at present the opportunities offered by globalization are not spread equally across markets. Whereas governments claim impotence in the case of other factors, they remain remarkably potent in shielding domestic economies from international labour flows through stringent immigration policies. This paper further spells out the strategies which aim at making our immigration policies more flexible and hospitable for free movement of both skilled and unskilled labours to strengthen Nigerian economic development.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Globalization has become a major feature of the modern economic world. The removal of restrictions to international flows of goods and production factors integration of markets and creation of economic blocks are believed to bring substantial gains to the countries opening their borders, as well as to enhance global welfare. The movement of goods, labour, capital, technology and services in search of better opportunities is constantly growing all over the world, leading to more efficient resource allocation and new patterns of income distribution. Occampo and Martin (2003) have, identified the three phases of the development of globalization. The first covers 1870 – 1919 and is characterized by high capital and labour mobility, increased trade and reduction in the cost of transport. The second phase began immediately after the World War II and was characterized by efforts to develop international institutions for financial and trade cooperation, as well as significant expansion of trade among industrial countries. The last phase of globalization began around 1973 and was characterized by factors such as the spread of free trade, a growing presence in transactional cooperation operating, the expansion and visible mobility of capital, a shift toward standardization of development models, trade protection mechanisms, and tight resolutions on the movement of labour. The internalization of the world economy, for instance, has proceeded in such a way that the growth prospects of developing countries are being undermined. Thus while restrictions have been lifted on the freedom of capital and skilled labour to move to areas of high returns, the restrictions on the mobility of unskilled labour remain. The impression is widespread that the global movement of human labour is partly and parcel of the broader process of economic and cultural globalization; the labour market as well other markets, is seen as increasingly globalized through the International movement of both workers and capital. Some observers see this as an age of migration (Castle and Miller 2009), to the extent that this is not true in practice. International migration through relatively small compared to the transnational flow of other factors, goods and services- is growing rapidly, if unequally across different legal and skills' categories. "In recent years, substantial numbers of people have migrated- or sought to migrate- from regions that are afflicted by poverty and insecurity to more prosperous and stable parts of the world. By the year 2000, the United Nations estimated that about 140 million persons – or roughly two percent of the world's population – resided in a country where they were not born." (Stalker (2000) "Inspite of significant increase in immigration control efforts… and the tightening of entry restrictions and monitoring of unauthorized foreign workers already working in other countries… (there is) less confidence today among officials that they could effectively regulate immigration flows and employment to unauthorized foreign workers than there was fifteen years ago" (Cornelius et al., 1994: 4). For this reason, there has been an impressive growth of national studies on the effects of immigration in developing countries (Simon 1999). The principles of free trade first enunciated by David Ricardo almost two centuries ago suggest that the world would be much richer if there were no national borders to interfere with free movement of goods and people. By prohibiting the immigration of many persons, the United States inevitably shrinks the size of the world economic pie, reducing the economic opportunities that could be available to many persons in the sources counties" (Borjas 1999). There is also strong evidence now showing that labour market restrictions are imposing a much greater burden on the global economy than the remaining trade restrictions. Through general equilibrium models, it has been estimated that a complete and free movement of labour mobility would increase gross wage income worldwide by US $772 billion in 2005.

Concomitantly, demographic pressures within the developed world will make it difficult (at least costly) to not consider a more liberal approach to populations can be serious. The OECD estimates that the cumulative effects by mid-century would reduce the US's living standards by 10%, the EU's by 18% and Japan's by 23% (measured by GNP/capital adjusted for terms of trade effects.) Turner et al (1998). If accurate, these figures represent formidable political and economic challenges to the developed world. The most obvious solution to these changing demographic patterns is to complement the West's declining and ageing populations with younger immigrants. For all these reasons, we believe it makes sense to engage a discussion of the Globalization of free movement of human labour – migration.

Despite the increased volumes of goods and factors, which cross national borders, one must recognize that asymmetries exist in the speed, incentives and policies applied to these movements. In the last decades, the barriers to international labour movements have become higher than those applied to capital flows and good flows (United Nations 2004). The issue of free movement of human labour (skilled and unskilled) is contentious among developed and developing nations inspite of obvious benefits involve in free movement of human labour across national boundaries. More importantly is how a developing country like Nigeria can develop strategies for the exploitation of economic gains that abound in the liberalization of free movement of human labour through the reduction of its stringent immigration policies. The main objective of the study is to develop strategies based on available information for the exploitation of benefits inherent in free movement of human labour towards Nigeria economic development. This will entail:

- Identification of benefits that are abounds in the free movement of human labour across national boundaries.
- To examine Nigeria's immigration policies to determine how the foster or hinder free movement of human labour.
- Development of strategies for the exploitation of benefits in the free movement of human labour.

This research is motivated by the fact that there are remarkably limited analysis conducted at the global level and Nigeria, which examine the potential gains from free migration. This theoretical paper therefore attempts to fill this gap/lacuna. The study was carried out by consulting both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary sources of data for this study include observation and discussions with Nigerian Immigration personnel, while secondary source of data include academic journals, articles, bulletins, periodicals and books. The information gathered from both primary and secondary sources of data were analyzed, synthesized to achieve the objective of the study. This paper will also serve as a base for the direction and positioning of further studies in this new area of research.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF GLOBALIZATION

Globalization is the term used to describe the growing worldwide integration of the people and countries. According to Paulo (1998) the process of increasing global integration has accelerated dramatically in the technology. Peter (2000) view globalization as a process of integrating economic decision-making such as consumption, investment and saving all across the world. This means that globalization is a process of creating global market place in which increasingly, all nations are forced to participate. Among the features that characterize globalization include interconnection of sovereign countries through trade and capital flow; harmonization of the economic rules that govern the interaction or relationship between these sovereign nations; creating structures to support and facilitate dependence and inter connection; and creation of a global marketplace (David 1997).

According to Awake (2000) globalization will heighten the level of interconnectedness between and among nations through a systematic integration of autonomous economies into a global system of production and distribution. It should be noted that globalization seek to eliminate trade barriers through unfitted integration and interaction of global capital and labour thereby leading to an unhindered exchange of goods and service across border.

Globalization is a process that affects firms, industries, economies and nations. (Dayo, 2000). But the mere fact that a firm operates in a global world does not qualify it a global company. In order to measure the globalness of a company, it should have the following attributes as posited by Francis (2000).

- Possessing a standard product that is marketed uniformly across the world;
- Sourcing out all assets (not just product) on an optional basis, i.e. from wherever and whoever provided it is competitive;
- Achieving market access in line with break-even volume of needed infrastructure;
- The ability to contest the asset as much as products when circumstance requires, i.e. neutralizing the assets and competencies of global competitors; and Providing all functions (or competencies) with global orientation even when they are primarily local in scope.

The key elements of globalization involve the inter connection of sovereign nations through trade and capital flows; harmonization of economic rules governing relationship between these nation; creating structures to support and facilities dependence and interconnection; globe configuration and coordination of business activities with local responsiveness; and creating a global market place (Salimono, 1999).

2.1.2 GLOBALIZATION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE DEVELOPING MARKET ECONOMY

Globalization is not an entirely new phenomenon. O'Rouke and Williamson (1997) have shown how an earlier period of globalization which spanned about one century, between the period 1840-1940, provoked a backslash that stemmed the cross-border flow of goods, people and financial resources by countries that felt they would be losers in a globalize world. And they predict that this could well happen again. They note in particular that the globalization phenomenon of the 11th century and first two decades of the 20th century was a far more dramatic occurrence than the integration of world markets that has been taking place gradually since the end of the World War II. The first episode of globalization was market by faster falls in international transport costs and more phenomenal capital flows across national boundaries. Cross border human migration was also higher between Europe and the New World (the Americas). Thus between the second half of the 19th century and 1914, about 60 million Europeans set sail for the resource- rich and labour-scarce Americas.

For a very long time before World War I, it was thought that the world would continue to move towards an integrated whole. This view turned out to be wrong, as losers from that globalization experience constrained its further significant spread until the onset of World War I sealed its fate as it were. It is significant to note that the USA was one of the early losers of globalization. In the 1860s, the USA had closed its markets to free foreign influx of goods. It also raised tariffs to help finance its Civil War, and soon after, erected further barriers to protect its infant manufacturing industries from European competition. There was also the reaction against migration. Well before the famous American 1921 Emergency Quota Act, America had also put in place restrictions against immigration. It was therefore not surprising that the first quest for globalization in its next round using, a trade anchors after World War II under a proposed International Trade Organization (TTO) was successfully blocked by the USA. The failure to establish the ITO led to formation of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) in 1947, which was to provide a guided but gradual movement towards free trade. By the time the World Trade Organization (WTO) was put into effect in 1995, the free trade negotiations had covered a period of more than forty years! No doubt, the western developed market economies (particularly the USA), more than forty years after World War II are now in a better position to lead, and benefit from the new globalization, which is now more of a deliberately driven phenomenon.

2.1.3 GLOBALIZATION AND INCOME IN WORLD TRADE

One visible consequence of globalization and its associated liberal trade has been an increase in world trade. As noted by Nzekwu (1999), during the period 1985-95, the ratio of world trade to the world gross domestic product (GDP) rose thrice faster than in the preceding ten years, and twice as fast than it was in the 1960s. Since the 1990s, there has however been some disparity in the trade performance of the different regions of the world. For example the share of Africa in total world exports fell from 1.86% in 1985 to 1.71% in 1999, while the corresponding figures for Asia were 18.15% and 18.69% from the respective periods (IMF, 2000). Thus as a group, African countries may not have recorded any significant proportionate improvement in export performance since the mid-1990s. There is also the benefit ensuing from the integration of world capital markets. A number of developing countries have already liberalized their capital accounts, and this development has the potential of making their markets more attractive to investors from developed countries wishing to diversify their portfolios. Closely associated with this potential benefit is that of increased private capital flows around the world in search of areas of highest returns arising from the globalization of financial markets. The records on private capital flows since the later 1980s however indicate that African countries have not benefited as much as the Asian countries- the most significant ones being China, Republic of Korea, Malaysia and Indonesia from the flow of private capital-although it has also been shown from the financial crises in several Asian countries during the second quinquennium of the 1990s that there are risks of financial instability and contagion associated with wholesale financial liberalization. This is particularly so when the appropriate institutional anchor is lacking (Nemedia, 1998; Knight, 1998), which condition exposes the domestic economy more pungently to transmission effects arising from international financial perturbations.

2.1.4 GLOBALIZATION AND TRANSFER OF TECHNOLOGY

Technological advantages are also associated with globalization. In particular, the opportunities for technology transfer and adaptation are quite high in a globalize world economy characterized by sophisticated information technologies that make access to a multiplicity of scientific information a very simple feat. At the level of conferring efficiency for instance, advances in information and communications technology have figuratively transformed the world into one global village in which trade transactions can be effected without the need to travel and at minimal cost. Information relating to new industrial products, financial products, peace and war, etc. in most parts of the civilized world can now be assessed just with the touch of a button.

There is also the associated effect of the increasing internationalization of corporate production and distribution, with the transnational corporation at the central stage. While this is an advantage for the typical developing country with scarce resources, the internationalization of business raises fundamental fear bordering on the issue of economic sovereignty and the emergence of a new imperialism arising from foreignisation. Such fears are particularly relevant in countries pursuing privatization programmes. In Tanzania for instance, such fears have led to the development of a home initiative to pool the resources of nationals in order to be able to buy the assets of enterprises being privatized, through the assistance of a civil society organization (CSO).

2.1.5 GLOBALIZATION AND PROMOTION OF EMPLOYMENT

Globalization also has the potential benefit resulting from labour migration from one country to another, thereby helping to reduce unemployment in countries with excess labour. In particular, *laboui* movement from developed into developing countries and vice-versa has the potential of facilitating transfer of technology. However, experience since the 1990 indicates that movement of labour from African countries into *Europi* and the USA has been constrained by a number of migration laws in then countries. These and other issues related to the distribution of the benefit of globalization raise fundamental questions which border on equity an issue that has been addressed in a number of recent studies (see for example, O' Rourke, 2002a; 2002b;

Chiswick and Hatton, 2001; Lindert and Williamson, 2001; Dowrick and akmah, 2001). One point must be made very clearly at this juncture. This is the fact that this new round of the globalization phenomenon is deliberately driven. It is therefore not out of place to reason that the countries at its wheels, and who control it, will seek to secure the maximum benefit from it.

2.2 NIGERIAN GLOBALIZATION EXPERIENCE

Globalization is a very uneven process with unequal distribution of its benefit and losses. This imbalance leads to polarization between the developed countries that gain, and the developing countries that lose out (Obadan, 2001). In this regard, the place of Nigeria in the globalization agenda requires some in-depth study. To begin with, Nigeria is economically weak due to inadequate domestic economic capacity and social infrastructure needed to boost the country's productivity, growth and competitiveness. Secondly, the economy is made weaker by monoculture dependency and unfavourable terms of trade in its export trade as well as excruciating debts and debt service burdens. And thirdly before 1986, economic regimes were regulated and the country pursued expansionary fiscal and monetary policies in its development efforts (Obadan, 1998). These problems were exacerbated by political instability and corruption. As a result, investment choices were distorted, which eroded the confidence especially of foreign investors.

Following the globalization trend, Nigeria has been liberalizing its economy. But the real sectors have had to function under conditions of unstable macroeconomic management, inadequate technology and credit facilities. These have proved to be an obstacle to strengthening the productive base, especially of agriculture and industry in order to make them export-oriented.

As noted by Obadan (2001), during the 1990's African countries as a whole accounted for only about 3% of world trade and this is one factor that potentially limits the potential of the continent to maximize the benefits of globalization (Sachs, 1996). For example in 1980, the share of manufacturers in total export values for Thailand and Malaysia stood at 25% and 19% rising to 71% and 79% respectively, by 1998. In the Republic of Korea, manufactured goods account for well over 905 of total export value (World Bank, 2000). These comparative figures provide some food for thought on the international competitive standing of the Nigerian economy.

Philips (1999), for instance has rated the chances of the country benefiting from globalization as very minimal, and identified a number of constraints, which must first be surmounted. Our proposition is that good governance can enhance the benefits of globalization for the Nigerian economy. This argument is hinged on the institutional strengthening function of good governance and its ability to reduce various forms of inefficiencies.

2.3 THE CASE FOR LABOUR MARKET INTEGRATION

In international marketing, marketing practices will have to be understood and adjusted to the reality of a border less economy (Ohmae 1990). Borderless markets emerge when four flows (product/services/people, money and information) are driven by market practices, without government intervention (Reich 1991).

From a macroeconomic point of view, migration could provide a boost to deflate trade volumes. Rising incomes from migration could cause a rise in trade volumes- but the larger the share of skilled workers in migration, the greater the possible decrease in trade (since skilled workers produce tradable goods); while the larger the share of unskilled workers in migration, the smaller the trade reduction (since unskilled labour due to trade is a negligible fraction of the prevailing wage differentials which are five-fold or more (Freeman and Oostendorp, 2000; dataset by International labour Organization). Unpredictable effects in the current account of migrant-sending countries due to the effect on exchange rates may also affect trade either way. So trade and migration should be evaluated on their own merits rather than as a substitute for one another.

Another important difference between trade liberalization and labour market liberalization is worth discussing now because it has implications for the proposals set forth in this report later on. Whereas in trade there is solid argument for multilateral and nondiscriminatory liberalization policies, the argument for multilateral and nondiscriminatory liberalization policies, the opposite is true for migration where support for such approaches to migration because of the very different implications of nondiscrimination in trade and migration. In trade, multilateral and nondiscriminatory liberalization maximizes economic efficiency by allowing the lowest cost producer to compete, thus forcing high-cost producers to improve efficiency or exit the market. But such adjustments are not possible (and may not be desirable) in labour markets in industrialized countries due to minimum wage laws and social insurance schemes. Thus the benefits of multilateral and nondiscriminatory liberalization are also weaker in the case of labour market liberalization. An important reason is also that migration has several implications pertaining to social integration and impact on public services. Thus countries will often choose to follow a discriminatory policy on labour inflows-either on the bases of skill or on the basis of country through strict bilateral schemes-in order to achieve the same sort of outcomes.

There is strong evidence now showing that labour market restrictions are imposing a much greater burden on the global economy that the remaining trade restrictions. Through general equilibrium models, it has been estimated that a complete and free movement of labour globally would double global incomes whereas feasible amount of labour mobility would increase gross wage income worldwide by US$772 billion in 2005. When correcting for price change faced and caused by these movements, the giants fall to US$356 billion, which is a 0.6 percent increase in global income. To put these numbers into perspective, it may help to note that US$356 billion is roughly three times all the official development assistance in 003 and dwarfs the expected gains from all remaining trade liberalization. This increase would also translate into a slightly more favourable distribution for developing countries, as their share of aggregate gain is 1.8 percent; whereas gain to native high-income countries is 0.4 percent relative to the baseline (World Bank 2006).

2.3.1 IS THERE A GLOBAL LABOUR MARKET?

Do the greater integration of the world economy and the predominance of market economies create a global labour market? At its simplest; a labour market is where the demand and supply of labour interact. The interaction has an impact on employments, wages and income.

The answer to the question of the existence of a global labour market varies depending on the research referred to and which aspect of the global labour market is being considered: on the demand side, attention is directed towards the required skills, or certain goods and services (and the workers' ability to produce them): finally, consideration may be given to the mechanisms that make it possible for the workforce to respond to employer needs.

One convenient, frequently used measure of the extent of labour market integration s the degree of convergence in real earnings across countries (according to the classical trade theory of factor price equalization). Though comparable data on real wages are not easy to come by and are moreover interpreted differently by researchers, many of them have concluded that there is no readily discernible convergence in wages. For some, this simply highlights the fact that labour is not yet sufficiently liberalized (thus impeding wage convergence through the relocation of liberalized surpluses to locations) with a labour deficit (IMF, 2000). For others, it signifies that wages are mainly determined by domestic factors, such as the cost of living.

2.3.2 LABOUR MARKET CLEARING MECHANISMS: MOVING JOBS OR PEOPLE?

For some observers, the existence of a global labour market is conditional on the existence of learning mechanisms operating at the global level. There is currently no established **global** framework to facilitate the mobility of labour and no mechanism for the systematic matching of labour demand and supply. Compared to capital and trade, therefore, which have been significantly liberalized, labour mobility is lagging far behind and is still heavily constrained by national regulations.

Economic theory would suggest a different approach. The free movement of labour would appear to be a natural corollary to the principle of competitive efficiency. In the real world, however, political imperatives commonly dictate the imposition of restrictions, although it is far from clear that the latter are economically beneficial in the longer term.

There are, nonetheless, different kinds of clearing mechanisms for matching labour supply and demand in active operation to facilitate either the mobility of jobs (clearance through mobility of capital) or workers (clearance through mobility of labour). In the case of mobility of labour (Mehmet et al., 1999) opined that in the absence of free movement of labour, labour markets are integrated through trade and investment where firms are free to invest and locate their production is based in part on the labour costs and standards of different investment locations, while states respond by adjusting them to be more attractive.

In the case of workers, it is important to note that the fact that mobility is regulated does not mean that movements are necessarily marginal or discouraged everywhere. For instance, in some countries, such as those in the Gulf region, more than 40 per cent of their workforce is made up of foreigners. In addition, a number of mechanisms are currently in place to facilitate the movement of workers between countries: at the bilateral level (e.g bilateral labour agreements, bilateral agreements for the recognition of qualifications); at the regional level (e.g. the EU free movement regime, facilitate movement of skills under the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) single Market and Economy) or at the global level with the General Agreement on Trade in Service (GATS) mode. Finally, matching demand and supply also occurs through irregular labour migration, despite the adverse consequences of such movements.

2.4 THE PRESENT STATE AND NATURE OF INTERNATIONAL LABOUR MIGRATION

Given the amount of political attention it attracts, the total knowledge about the nature and magnitude of the international labour force, which represent around three per cent of the global workforce (ILO, 2004a), is remarkably limited. This is particularly the case in relation to irregular migration, which by its very nature is difficult to measure.

Approximately one-third of the world's migrant workers live in Europe, with slightly fewer residing in Asia and North America. Africa hosts approximately eight per cent of migrant workers, while Oceania, Latin America and the Caribbean are each home to three per cent of migrant workers (ILO, 2004c). The majority of migrants move from one developing country to another rather than from a developing country to a developed one. This is often seen as a consequence of restrictive immigration policies in developed countries; however, it is also worth bearing in mind those in regions where rights of free movement of persons are granted and promoted, such as in regional integration frameworks, the movement is limited. For example, in 2OO4 in the EU only two per cent of EU citizens actually took advantage of these rights (European Commission, 2OO6).

Low-skilled migrant workers still represent the bulk of labour migration flows, but between 1995 and 2000 in a number of countries (e.g. some OECD countries) the arrival of highly educated migrants exceeded that of the low-skilled (ILO, 2004a). Among Highly skilled workers, the majority move to or within the developed world. Although labour migration flows are becoming geographically more diverse, the largest share of labour movements take place within regions.

Almost half of all migrants are women (49.6%), with only slightly more living in developed than in. developing countries. More women arc migrants than men in every region of the world, except in Africa and Asia (UN DESA, 2OO6). It is also notable that more women are now migrating on their own as the primary bread earners for their families. In the labour market, women migrants are generally concentrated at opposite ends of the skills spectrum and often occupy jobs in which women generally predominate. Accordingly, many migrant women are skilled workers in the health and education sectors, while the majority of women migrants find work in low-skilled sectors such as domestic service, manufacturing arid entertainment.

Both skilled and low-skilled migrant workers seem to work predominantly in the service sectors of major developed countries, notably in construction, commerce, catering, education, health care, domestic and other services. In developing countries, migrant workers tend to be found mainly in primary activities (agriculture, fishing and mining) and in manufacturing, although the share in services (particularly tourism-related) is rising in several countries (UNCTAD, 2001).

In purely conceptual terms, it is possible to identify the removal of current constraints on the mobility of one main factor of production (labour) as the "tipping point" that would make labour markets truly global, thus enabling the international community to take globalization to its fullest realization. Under this approach, the movement of workers across international borders would be dependent on their assessment of market opportunities rather than subordinates to individual country regulations.

One of the striking and ever paradoxical features of the current globalization phase, however, is the relatively minor role played by international migration in a world that is more interconnected than ever before. Economists point out, for instance that while the international trade's share of output is around 13 per cent (Freeman, 2006a) and foreign equities in investor portfolios stood at approximately 15 per cent at the beginning of 2000, the stock of migrant workers in the global workforce does not exceed three per cent. This stands in marked contrast to previous phases of globalization, in particular the first phase during the late 19th and early 20th centuries when human mobility closely accompanied the boom in trade, an explicitly historical demonstration, if indeed one was needed, that governments can and do open their labour markets when they are convinced that they stand to benefit substantially. This, it must be admitted, is far from being the case at the moment. In most instances there is, at best, cautious interest in weighing impartially the costs and benefits of migrant workers programmes (IOM, 2005) at worst, suspicion that costs are likely to substantially outweigh benefits.

2.5 MIGRATION AND TRADE: THE CASE FOR LIBERALIZATION

Investigation into the relationship between migration and trade is ongoing and unlikely to be concluded. A second line of investigation explores analogies between trade and migration into terms of their potential to enhance global economic growth. As a general rule, economists are included to believe that the international community stands to derive considerable aggregate benefit from the freer movement of labour across international borders. As Chang (2007:1) see it, recent increases in the international migration of workers are but one facet of globalizati on, which economists understand to mean the development of a global common mark et that is (...) evolution towards a world economy that is integrated across national boundaries.

Without much further research, analysis and debate,

one question often addressed at the theoretical level is whether migration and trade are mutual substitutes or complements. Responses vary considerable for instance, according *to* Mehmet (1999), migration and capital mobility, or both, are substitute to trade mobility. Other models consider migration as a complement, with migration increasing with growth in trade flows. These are improvements achieved both in global economic welfare and in national economies through the liberalization of international trade in goods, and argue that similar if not greater progress can be made through the facilitation of the movement of workers across national boundaries.

2.5.1 THE CASE FOR ECONOMIC GAINS

According to this view, constraints' on worker movement create market distortions resulting in the inefficient allocation of human resources at the global level, as witnessed by labour shortages in developed countries and oversupply in developing countries. In contrast, the facilitation of movement would trigger a flow of workers from low-wage origin to high-wage destinations, with resultant global welfare gains potentially higher than those that would be obtained from further liberalization of trade in goods or capital. Wlmsley and Winters (2003) estimate that a relaxation of the movement of temporary workers corresponding to three per cent of the labour force of high-income countries would lead to global incomes gains of USD 150 billion annually (using a 1997-based comparative static model).

Rodrik estimates that since wages for similarly qualifies workers in developed and developing countries differ sharply-by a factor or 10 or more as against a difference for commodities and financial assets that rarely exceeded a ratio of 1:2 - the gains from free movement of labour could be as much as 25 times larger than the gains from the liberalization of movements of goods and capital (Rodrik, 2002; see also Prichett, 2006). Free movement would, in theory, also have a positive impact on the global distribution of income by creating a convergence in wage rates for the same class of workers.

The issue of the impact of migrant remittance on global economic activity is not unrelated to this discussion. It is now fully recognized that remittances have become a key source of global finance. Remittances sent through official channels were estimated to have reached 318 billion in 2007, up from USD 188 billion in 2005 and considerably more than double the level in 2001. Nearly USD 240 billion of these funds went to developing countries (Ratha et al. 2007), an amount far larger than Official Development Assistance (ODA) and representing the second source of external funding for developing countries after FDI (World Bank, 2006). It is believed that the real value, when including remittances sent through informal channels, may be 50 per cent higher. In most developing countries remittances are on average larger than ODA and are proving to be more stable than either ODA or FDI.

From a theoretical perspective at least, there is little reason to doubt that the freer movement of workers would benefit the world economy by creating significant efficiency gains. However, as scholars look more closely at how those gains might be distributed across the world economy, they have to grapple with many uncertainties.

2.5.2 SKILL AND UNSKILLED LABOUR IN THE WORLD OF LIBERALIZATION OF MIGRATION AND TRADE

Closer analysis (e.g. World Bank, 2007) suggested even more complex scenarios: while an inflow of low or semi-skilled workers to a developer! country might reduce the real wages of its own low-skilled workers, their presence might at the same time be to the advantage of highly skilled workers and the economy more generally, as both stand to benefit from lower prices for goods and services provided by the migrant workers; on the other hand, skilled movements from developing to developed countries will increase income disparities between skilled workers and low-skilled workers in countries of origin (with a trend towards an increase in the wages of skilled workers who remain).

It is important to note that in all of the above equations that actual outcomes for the countries of origin, the countries of destination and the migrants themselves may vary significantly depending on whether the migratory movements are of a permanent or temporary nature. Policy makers and other stakeholders increasingly argue that circular forms of movement if managed successfully could do much to optimize the benefits of labour mobility for all concerned, because they represent the best trade-off between the prospective interests of the three parties.

While there is therefore considerable theoretical work backing up the hypothesis that massive aggregate gains would accrue from the lifting of current constraints on the movement of workers across international borders, the realization and actual distribution of these gains will depend ultimately on how the movements are actually channeled and managed and management choices will rest in turn on policy considerations that will extend beyond the economic sphere.

2.5.3 THE NEED FOR ELIMINATION OF MIGRATION RESTRICTIONS

Some economists have attempted to estimate the gains that the world could enjoy by liberalizing migration. For example, in an early study using (iata from 1977, Bob Hamilton and John Whalley produce a range of estimates based on various assumptions about critical parameters, but all their estimates suggest that the potential gains are enormous (Bob, H. & John, W. (1984). Many of their estimates indicate that the elimination of immigration restrictions could more than double the world's real income, and even their most conservative estimate indicates that the world's real income would rise by 13 percent. They also find that liberalized migration would reduce global inequality by raising wages dramatically for the world's poorest workers.

In a recent study applying the same assumptions to 98 data, Jonathon Moses and Bj0rn Letunes (2004), produce similar results, finding that "the estimated efficiency gains from liberalizing immigration controls have only increased overtime'' as a result of the increase in "wage... inequalities over the past 20 years " Jonathan, W., Moses and Bjorn L. (2004). Even when they adopt more conservative assumptions, "the estimated gains remain substantial," ranging from 5.6 percent to 12.3 percent of the world's real income, or from $1.97 trillion to $4.33 trillion per year. Given that even their most conservative estimates "exceed the combined levels of development assistance and foreign client investment to the developing world," they suggest that "international migration may be one of the most effective means of shrinking the income gap that separates rich and poor countries. Furthermore, their estimates of the benefits of partial liberalization of migration controls indicate that "a substantial portion of these gains can be reaped without allowing for full migration," because even small increases in migration "could produce significant economic gains," large enough to "dwarf those generated by traditional development policies."

The World Bank has recently studied the potential gains from such a limited increase in international migration (World Bank, 2006). The World Bank economists consider the effects of an increase in migration from "developing" countries to "high-income countries" sufficient to increase the labor force in the host countries by 3 percent by the year 2025. They conclude that this scenario "would generate large increases in global welfare" increasing the world's real income by 0.6 percent, that is, by $356 billion in 2025.

Would the effects of immigrant workers in the labor market, however, be in the economic interest of natives in the countries of immigration? If we examine the impact of immigrants in the labor market, we find that the natives of a host country, taken together, will gain from the immigration of labor (James, P. Smith and Barry Edmon Ston (1997). Wages may fall for those native workers who compete with immigrant labor, but this loss for those workers is a pure transfer among natives: it is offset by an equal gain for those who employ labor, and ultimately for consumers, who obtain goods and services at lower cost. Furthermore, natives gain, from employing immigrant workers: they gain surplus in excess of what they pay immigrants for their labor. Thus, natives as a group enjoy a net gain from employing immigrants. In fact, the World Bank economists estimate that the high-income countries receiving immigrants in their liberalization scenario would enjoy an increase of 0.4 percent in their real income, that is, a gain of $139 billion.

In addition, the immigrants themselves also gain from their own migration. They obtain higher wages than in their source countries and thereby enjoy far larger gains per capita than natives in host countries do from their immigration. In the scenario analyzed by the World Bank, the additional migrants allowed to move under liberalized immigration policies nearly triple their own real income on average, enjoying a gain of $162 billion, even after subtracting remittances sent back to those left behind in their countries of origin. In this sense, labor migration represents a form of international trade in which the source country exports labor to the host country. Like international trade in goods, labor migration allows foreign suppliers to sell their services to domestic buyers, allowing both parties to each transaction to gain from trade.

In a classic article, Hamilton and Whalley (1984) showed that the liberalization of the world's labour market would double the world gross domestic product (GDP). More recently, Rodrick (2002) argues that the biggest gains in terms of development and poverty reduction do not lie in the much-discussed issues surrounding free trade, but in the international movement of workers, and that even a minor liberalization, in this field would massively foster the development of poor countries. Free movement is thus advocated on the grounds that restrictions on the mobility of people are counterproductive, which echoes free trade arguments-according to which the liberalization of the circulation of goods, capital, or services would be economically beneficial. Free migration would reduce inequalities at the world level, hence diminishing the necessity migrate. Nevertheless, restrictions on migration constitute an exception in the current spirit of globalization and liberalization. Although borders used to stop everything -money, goods and people - today they stop mostly people. The Mexico-U.S. situation is the best example of this paradox: two countries united within a free trade agreement are separated by a militarized border. This contradiction is tellingly illustrated by the World Trade Organization (WTO) negotiations on the so-called "mode 4" that involves the "temporary / movement of natural persons". Recognizing that trade in services needs direct physical contact between suppliers and consumers and wishing to foster the liberalization of international trade in services, WTO member have engaged in negotiations on cross-border movement of workers. In principle, this concerns exclusively temporary service providers and excludes all the issues surrounding permanent migration, citizenship, residence or employment. However, the boundary is not clear-cut and this issue remains unexplored and controversial (Bhatnagar 2004).

2.6 PROSPECTS FOR ENHANCING INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN THE MANAGEMENT OF LABOUR MOBILITY

Given the complexity of the economic, social and political equations that have to be resolved before significant progress can be made, the slowness and cautiousness of inter-governmental negotiations in this field is hardly a surprise. With regard to mobility, the unequal balance powering the supply/demand equation between countries of origin and destination creates no strong incentive for the latter to enter into a multilateral framework encompassing the admission of migrant workers. Destination countries are still largely in a position to satisfy their labour market needs through unilateral policies, and adjust them according to changes in the labour markets. This is clear from the limited commitment made under GATS Mode 4 to date and the absence of a significant outcome in the current negotiations.

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and its successor, the WTO, were created to ensure that the negative and positive impacts of free trade would be shared equally, and are supported by the economic reasoning that, through specialization in production most countries, both developing and developed, could gain from the establishment of such a regime. The IMF and the World Bank have been given a role in managing international finance, and there is widespread support for the development of a framework which would ensure more stable exchange rates and strong currencies. On the other hand, the case for an international regime establishing freer movement of workers does not yet attract a critical mass of support because of the perceived asymmetries of supply and demand, the lack of reciprocity in potential gains and the sail and political implications that remain to be addressed.

While prospects for a global regime opening the way to the freer mobility of workers remain guarded, there are concrete indications of progress in regional settings, where economic disparities are often more limited and consequently less likely to act as obstacles to liberation. Even in such restricted settings, however, it is the more highly skilled who are most likely to benefit from movement facilitation, arrangements.

Countries are more interconnected through trade, capital flows and the global production system than ever before. Changes in the economic situation and regulations in countries that are the most important economically have repercussions for the ' rest of the world. Therefore, increased globalization requires the elaboration of new ways of approaching the world work in its domestic and international dimension, with renewed emphasis on consultation and cooperation.

3.0 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

Globalization, as a process, is a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon; but some of its most visible and influential elements are economic in nature (ECLA, 2002). In its economic dimension, the globalization process is characterized by increasing flows of trade in goods and services among countries and as a share of their gross domestic products (GDP), as well as similar flows in the factors of production (i.e.; capital and labour) and technology. As Richardson (1995) suggests, these flows should include the international migration of not just physical and technological capital but also human capital (both skilled and unskilled as well.

Globalization is expected to confer benefits on those countries that are fully integrated into the global economy (World Bank, 1996). These benefits are derived from the exploitation of comparative advantage, better access to technology, greater ability to tap international capital markets and heightened competition. These should, in turn, improve the efficiency with which resources are allocated and thus increase an economy's potential for growth and employment creation. But globalization is clearly not free of problems; in fact, it produces both winners and losers. It is, for instance, associated with greater instability in the world economy. It is also linked to greater vulnerability of many individual countries to external shocks which, in turn, tend to negatively affect their economic performance. As Griffin (1995) argues, globalization is inherently associated with economic forces which tend to increase inequality in the global distribution of income. These forces operate through trade flows, capital and labour flows, as well as access to technology. For instance, gains from trade are unevenly distributed because trade liberalization has proceeded more rapidly for goods and services of interest to the industrialized countries than for those of interest to the developing countries. Similar trends towards the concentration of capital in the developed countries (where the risk-adjusted returns tend to be higher) tend to widen and perpetuate existing inequalities in productivity, incomes and welfare. Flows of human capital as a result of globalization are especially perverse. Skilled professionals tend to flow from developing countries to the more developed, this worsening the global distribution of human capital. But because of discrimination in the global labour market, flows of unskilled labour from the developing countries to the developed are severely limited.

In the case of the developed countries, ii is argued (Richardson, 1995, P. 40) that "trade opening will cause the movement of relative factor prices against pure, less-skilled labour, and in favour of skilled workers, experienced workers and physical and technological capital" with the result that wage inequality could widen. A radically different explanation is offered by Wood (1995, p. 57) for the same phenomenon: his conclusion is that "the main cause of the deteriorating situation of unskilled workers in developed countries has been expansion of trade with developing countries" because the goods imported by developed countries are more labour-intensive than those they export. Taking both developed and developing countries together, Williamson (1997, p. 117) finds that "the trend towards globalization was accompanied by changes in the distribution of income as inequality rose in rich countries and fell in poor ones". Other studies (e.g. Davis, 1996 and Robbins, 1996) suggest that, even in developing countries, wage inequality typically did not fall but often rose after trade liberalization.

How would these ideas play out in the Nigeria context? Collier (1997) offers some insights with respect to this question, based on the super-imposition of several Nigeria specific features on the basic Heckscher-Olilin framework. The framework provides three mechanisms through which Lin-broad impact of globalization on a typical Nigeria country can be traced. First is through trade: by producing and exporting labour-intensive products, demand for, and returns to labour are increased and hence poverty is reduced. Second, labour migration out of Nigeria country is enhanced by globalization and Nigeria gains through remittances. Third, the inflow of capital (which is also enhanced by globalization) will increase productivity, improve growth, raise incomes and thus be poverty-reducing.

There are several problems with this conclusion. First, labour has not been disaggregated into its skilled and unskilled components. When this is done, it seems clear that the labour category whose demand would go up as exports expand beyond primary production will be the skilled component. The same result would obtain when inflow of capital and technology serves as the mechanism through which the impact of globalization is transmitted to the typical Nigerian economy. Hence, it may be expected that both of these mechanisms will produce results which widen income inequality as returns to skilled labour rise relative to those of unskilled; in this circumstance, relative poverty may actually rise rather than fall. A further reason why inequality might rise with globalization is if the poor are disproportionately dependent on subsistence, while globalization increase only market incomes.

Second, labour migration as a mechanism for reaping the benefits of globalization is limited in view of the general discrimination it faces in the developed countries. The skilled professionals who can more easily migrate constitute a major loss of human capital to Nigeria economy, a loss which may far outweigh the remittances that they send home. In any case the most significant migration of unskilled labour occurs within Nigeria, There is a sense in which labour migration of this sort reflects the benefits of the country integration arrangements rather than those of globalization.

Therefore the movement of unskilled labour warrants further policy, recognizing the obvious fact that large or permanent movement of unskilled workers will create more wealth to Nigeria through remittances. It would therefore be in the Nigeria's economic interest to promote such labour exchanges, especially in the context of bilateral agreement. Rather than restrict the entry of skilled workers willing to enter with their capital, know-how and employment enhancing potential, Nigeria could achieve this by removing the "immigration responsibility" requirement for business visa applicants, currently an impediment to business visits from potential investors. Further improve the short-term visas system by introducing a fast track "Green Channel Business Visa," where NIPC endorses the "bona fide" of the applicant, streamline the entry procedures for key expatriate personnel, currently highly discretionary, by adopting an "automatic EQ Scheme", which would allow investors to recruit for a select number of positions without the requirement to justify the need to hire abroad or to engage understudies.

Maintain the current BP/EQ Scheme (including the understudy requirement) for allocation of additional EQ positions, but extend the Bp requirement to all investment (including domestic) above $50,000 in order to assess the risk of the employer hiring necessary foreigners and not being able to cover for "immigration responsibility". At a later stage, move towards International best practice and introduce an open list at skills shortages to be reviewed annually and allow investors to recruit foreign employees with the required competences subject to verification of their credentials by the immigration authorities and to commitment of the Company to a training programme for the advancement of Local Staff.

Inspite of the recognized advantages of a well-articulated remittance management regime to aid growth and development by providing much needed foreign exchange, and a source of liquidity and a palliative for its balance of payment deficit, Nigeria does not put the remittances of migrant workers to their best use. This failure is not surprising given the informality of migration activities. The Government, however, has encouraged upwardly mobile, high-salaried, professional groups to repatriate part of their earnings back to Nigeria by introducing the Domiciliary Account. The success of this indirect intervention has not been evaluated. Currently, most remittances are in the form of money sent to family members and friends through informal channels. Rather than being harnessed towards savings and investment, this inflow of hard currencies is unpredictable and often used for ostentations spending. Additionally, the traders among the migrants interviewed indicated that profits are constantly re-invested in Purchasing New goods for sale, so that there is never enough to remit.

A reduction in the transactions cost of remittance transfer in Nigeria could translate into significant additional amounts of income received, especially for the poor, given the size of remittances. (Gilbson, et al, 2006). Also lowering of costs in the financial system would also enable senders to use formal channels rather than informal, channels, such as mailing or personal deliveries. This would allow better data to be recorded and enable central banks to make necessary changes to monetary policy when needed.

Liberalized immigration of skilled and unskilled workers with appropriate fiscal policies, would serve the national interest of Nigeria. Indeed, in exchange for sufficiently valuable commitments by developing and developed countries, Nigeria might go beyond immigration reforms that maximize Nigeria economic welfare and move toward those that maximize global economic welfare. Nigeria might offer its cooperation with countries of emigration seeking to tax an inefficient "brain drain". We might cut our "tariffs" on unskilled workers that are reducing the degree we discriminate against them in terms of our public enlightenments. We might also liberalize our restrictions on the access of unskilled aliens to permanent residence and to citizenship.

Negotiations would provide justification for our failure to adopt more liberal immigration laws. Whereas in an ideal world we might adopt more efficient laws, we currently live in a highly non ideal world in which other governments discriminate against our nationals (in their goods markets, service markets, labour markets, or capital markets). Given this reality, we may use costly policies as bargaining chips, offering to reform our protectionist policies in exchange for liberalizing reforms by other governments that discriminate against our nationals. Reforms implemented by all participants, when taken together in. a multilateral agreement, allow each to increase its national economic welfare while improving Global economic welfare.

4.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Contrary to the rapid trade and capital flows liberalization, International Labour Flows are often determined by restrictive immigration policies (Stewart, 2002). It has been revealed from the study that there are much benefits associated with free movement of human labour across the national boundary (World Bank, 2002). There are estimate that a complete and free movement of human labour globally, would double global incomes whereas a feasible amount of labour mobility would increase gross wage income worldwide by US $772 billion in 2025 (World Bank, 2006). Nigeria as country is not left out in this benefits. Nigeria stands to benefit much from remittances which has served as one of the sources for boosting her foreign exchange and a source of liquidity and a palliative for its balance of payment deficit especially if these remittances from migrant workers are well managed.

The issue of the Impact of Migrant remittance on global economic activity is legion. It is now fully recognized that remittances have become a key source of global finance. Remittances sent through official channels were estimated to have reached 318 billion in 2007, up from USD 188 billion in 2005 and considerably more than double the level in 2001 (World Bank , 2006). Nearly USD 240 billion of these funds went to developing countries, an amount far larger than Official Development Assistance (ODA) and representing the second source of external funding for developing countries after FDI (Ratha et al 2007). It is believed that the real value, when including remittances sent through informal channels, may be 50 percent higher. In most developing countries remittances are on average larger than ODA and are proving to be more stable than either ODA, or FDI (UNCTAD, 2003b).

The study has equally established that immigration policies of both developed and developing countries are stringent. This restriction on migration constitutes an exception in the current spirit of globalization and liberalization. Immigration is an area of sole federal jurisdiction and statutory responsibility for work and residence permitting rests on the Nigerian immigration services in the ministry of Internal Affairs. The immigration policies and processes need to be made more flexible and hospitable for workers and business visitors to support the attraction of FDI (Debt Management Office, 2001).

In other to strengthen the Nigerian Economic Development, this study has revealed the following strategies towards achieving liberalization of free movement of human labour across national boundary.

The movement of unskilled labour warrants further policy, recognizing the obvious fact that large or permanent movement of unskilled workers will create more wealth to Nigeria through remittances by promoting labour exchanges especially in the context of bilateral agreement. Adopt the proposed new labour acts, which will further improve the already modern labour regime.

Remove the "immigration responsibility" requirement for business visa applicants, currently an impediment to business visits from potential investors by introducing a. fast track "Green Channel Business Visa.

The indirect intervention taking by the government by introducing domiciliary account for remittances from high salary professional groups need to be encouraged and successes periodically evaluated.

There is need for reduction in the transactions cost of remittance transfer in Nigeria to enable senders to use formal channels rather than informal channels.

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