



**Between Hope and Uncertainty: A No Returning Journey of African
Graduates from the United States of America to Their Home Countries.**

By

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DECLARATION

I, Mosa Nkoko declare that,

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(ii) This dissertation/thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

(iii) This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs, or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

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Signature:

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DEDICATION

To all the immigrants who long to be home but cannot because of the circumstances beyond their control in their countries, I understand. But at some point, we all need to sit down and brainstorm strategies and solutions to uplift our countries and continent as a whole.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere thanks to my supervisor, Dr. Joseph Rudigi Rukema, I honestly do not think I would have completed this thesis without you. Thank you for your advice and guidance. Thank you for your kindness, patience and always giving me a push to unleash my full potential, I appreciate you.

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I also want to thank my family and friends for the support they gave me throughout these years. Even though I hated when you all inquired about the completion of my studies, I understand it came from a caring place, so thank you for the concern and cheering me up all the way, it meant a lot.

Lastly, I would like to thank myself for never giving up. This journey was lonely, frustrating, and hard. It took longer than I had expected but I soldiered on and embraced all the good and chaos it brought with it. So many sacrifices and postponement of life but I would not have it any other way. I came out with an attitude of gratitude and so many great lessons learnt.

ABSTRACT

International Migration is steadily growing and has become a global phenomenon that is unavoidable. In Africa, there are thousands of people who move to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries such as United States, United Kingdom, Canada, France, and Germany to name a few and they are made up of highly skilled migrants from their respective home countries. Migrants who are considered highly skilled not only consists of occupation professionals but also students who have completed their university education in their home countries and decided to further their studies abroad with the hope to come back and better their lives and that of their families. However, after the completion of their studies, most of them decide to stay behind in the host country. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the reasons why Sub-Saharan Africans; South African, Kenyans and Nigerians in particular are reluctant to go back home upon completion of their studies and decided to stay in the U.S.

The appropriate research paradigm that was used in this study is pragmatic because it accepts a mixed and multimethod research. Therefore, the investigation consisted of mixed methods; quantitative and qualitative research methods whereby data was collected by means of online surveys which had 224 respondents under quantitative data collection and 21 respondents under qualitative research methods who completed their university education in their home countries and decided to pursue their graduate degree in the U.S. The data was collected in two distinct phases; first the quantitative data, followed by the qualitative data collection which informed the quantitative results. The students were sampled using non-probability sampling namely snowball which included purposive sampling and the same individuals were included in both data collections. The eligibility criteria in this study were that the participants had to be citizens in their country of origin, have graduated from any accredited university in their home country, have graduated with a master's or doctorate degree from any accredited University in the U.S. and have stayed a year or more in the U.S after completion of their studies. Additionally, the researcher identified four individuals who fit the criteria and were willing to participate. These individuals also knew other relevant willing participants who fit the criteria and helped the researcher to locate them. Those participants too referred

the researcher to other individuals and so on and forth. Since the relevant participants were difficult to locate, purposive sampling helped the researcher to find the potential participants through internet recruitment. These participants were chosen according to the criteria that have been set. The theories used in this research study are World systems theory and Rational Choice theory as they are suitable to evaluate the reasons why African graduates do not return to their home countries after completing their studies abroad.

Based on the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data of this study, opportunities that include employment, better wages compared to their home country, higher standard of living compared to their home country, research training opportunities and scholarships have contributed to the African graduate's decision to stay in the host country. Thus, Economic factors have strongly been identified as contributing to their decision to stay in the U.S after completing their studies. The findings revealed that they first decide to migrate to acquire a high level of qualification with the hope that it results in advancement of their careers and when offered opportunities where they are currently living and the opportunities are better than that which can be offered in their home countries, they decide to stay. This study also examined their experiences after deciding to remain in the U.S and despite acculturative stress such as perceived racism, loneliness, and stress; they have had positive experiences which entailed being offered employment and better salary. In addition, this study examined their attitudes and perceptions after deciding to remain in the United States, majority of them consider it as land of opportunities.

It can be concluded in this research study that even though brain-drain analysts have not settled the debate of whether it is beneficial or detrimental to the sending countries as countries experience it differently, it is evident from the previous literature that the negative impacts of the brain drain outweighs the positive ones. The inequality of economic, political, and social levels between developing and developed countries determine the flow of migration. Without a doubt highly skilled individuals will always gravitate to countries that offer them opportunities to use their skills and can better their lives and that of their families resulting in sending countries losing professionals needed for development. Therefore, it is recommended that origin countries should look inward and address the brain-drain by implementing policies that will make improvements in their countries to attract them back or create channels

that will assist in them contributing their knowledge and skills even when they are abroad.

Finally, this study has contributed to the body of knowledge on international student-migration and a no return of African graduates specifically from South Africa, Kenya and Nigeria who decided to remain in the U.S upon completion of their studies. Additionally, it has contributed to the body brain-drain knowledge in academia and higher education, African graduates' communities/countries, stakeholders and most importantly, policy makers as it has shed light on the nature and implications of the emigration of highly skilled/educated professionals.

Key words: international students, migration, international migration, study abroad, brain drain, African graduates, human flight capital, globalization.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BD	Brain Drain
HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institution
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organisation of Migration
ISM	International Student Migration/Mobility
MPI	Migration Policy Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

CHAPTER ONE-GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

In a world of expanding global corporate collaborations and transnational social networks, the appeal for internationally educated professionals has dramatically increased in the last thirty years. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2011) opines that this has resulted in a remarkable surge in students pursuing foreign degrees. The number of international students has grown considerably in the early 21st century. The OECD also indicate that, in 2000 the global number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of citizenship was two million; by 2012 that had increased to four and a half million, representing an average annual growth of almost 7 percent (Riano and Piquet, 2018).

Among all groups of migrants including labor migrants, family migrants, and refugees, international students are the fastest-growing group (Riano and Piquet, 2018). Globalization of international education has resulted in increased student mobility in the quest to exploit new educational opportunities. In this perspective, the rise of international student mobility is associated with an increased demand for technical, specialized, post-secondary education that prompts students to go abroad in search of educational opportunities that are better than those available to them in their home country (Shield, 2013:2). Nonetheless, it should be noted that international student migration is not new. In fact, Rivza and Teichler (2007:459) alludes that the history of international student mobility is significantly longer and more complex, reaching back to medieval universities.

However, over recent years, international education has become a major channel for the movement of highly skilled workers and Banjong and Olson (2016) alludes that the United States has been a global leader in educating students from other countries around the world for a long time. Lowell and Findlay (2001) note that, there is no international system for recording skilled emigration exists. For this reason, the term “skilled” is often interpreted in the literature in terms of educational attainment (Lowell and Findlay (2001)). According to Open Doors Data, the last several years has shown that study abroad participation in the United States was at an all-time high and continues to grow (Institute of International Education (IIE), 2015). Even statistics

for four English-speaking developed countries compiled by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) indicate that, international students participating in tertiary education increased from 451,900 in 1999 to 784,000 in 2013 in the USA, from 232,500 to 416,700 in the UK, from 117,500 to 249,900 in Australia and from 32,500 to 135,200 in Canada (2012 statistics cited on Hou, 2017).

The number of international students in the United States set an all-time high in the 2018/19 academic year, the fourth consecutive year with more than one million international students (IIE,2019). Open Doors 2019 data released by the Institute of International Education (IIE) and the U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, highlighted the continued competitiveness of the U.S. higher education sector as a destination of choice for international students (IIE, 2019). Jibeen & Khan (2015) note that, globally, an estimated two million students study in other countries and it is estimated that this number will increase to a staggering 15 million students by 2025.

Many students view an investment in international education as “their ticket to migration” (Rizvi, 2005: 7). However, this mobility has not been reciprocal, with many international students from the developing world opting to migrate to developed countries, while their counterparts in developed countries prefer to study at home (Ardakani, Yarmohammadian, Abari & Fathim, 2011). Additionally, globalisation of student mobility has been turned into a huge business where students are seen as human capital and competed for by OECD countries, to attract and retain them in their host country. In fact, international education—recruitment and matriculation—is the fifth largest service industry in the United States (Institute of International Education, 2008).

Even though the extent of return migration varies considerably across countries and depends on several factors (Lu et al. 2009; Tremblay 2005), there is empirical evidence showing that the fraction of foreign students who stay in their host country upon graduation is substantial. In this study the researcher looks at the overall global international student migrants who graduated in their home countries and decided to further their studies abroad. But upon completion of their studies, decided to stay and live in their host country. The researcher will focus more on Sub-Saharan Africa specifically South Africa, Kenya and Nigeria. The question is why do they not go back to their home countries after completing their studies and decide to remain in

the U.S? Zajda (2005) notes that the loss of skilled citizens to predominantly Western countries has raised concern among member states and has become a serious policy issue.

Debate has focused on the consequences of such mobility on origin and destination locations (Clemens 2008; World Bank 2009; Gibson and McKenzie 2011 cited in Ginburg, et.al, 2016), with theoretical and empirical research suggesting potential detrimental economic and development impacts of skilled out-migration on sending countries and regions. Many African countries are bedeviled with huge losses of human skills, and this, in turn, has affected their development (Baldreck, Shenaaz, Mkhize, 2020). From health professionals to teachers, academics and engineers, the continent has lost numerous skilled personnel who ought to be contributing extensively to its socio-economic development” (Baldreck, Shenaaz, Mkhize, 2020).

This phenomenon, therefore, creates the likelihood of brain drain as students from developing regions after completing their study programs often choose to seek employment in their host countries, exacerbating poverty and critical skills deficiencies in the developing world ((Mlambo, Mlambo and Ogunnubi 2020:60). Thus, as international student migration gradually increases, at the same time, more and more mobile students stay on after graduation. Hence, a no return of international students from their host country (also perceived as brain drain) has become a controversial issue which has sparked debates in politics, among scholars and is an intriguing area of public policy.

Therefore, this chapter describes the general background of international student migration globally, problem statement, research objectives, research questions, significant of the study, definition of terms and structure of the dissertation.

1.1 Background of the study

The migration of highly skilled people from developing countries to developed countries has grown over the past years. In the past, most of the migration in the SSA has been taking place within Africa. However, recently the migration of the working age population from Africa to the OECD countries sharply increased and continues to increase rapidly over the last 20 years coupled with rapid population growth in the continent (IMF, 2016 cited in Gurmessa, 2019). Batalova and Lorenzi (2022) also corroborate above assertions and report that the first wave of large-scale

voluntary migration from sub-Saharan Africa to the United States began in the second half of the 20th century, after significant U.S. policy changes.

They continue to write that the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965 expanded pathways for non-Western European immigrants to come to the United States, mainly through family ties. They also add that the Refugee Act of 1980 increased admissions of refugees fleeing conflict, including from the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, and Eritrea. And the Immigration Act of 1990 created the Diversity Visa to bolster immigration from under-represented countries, including Benin and Cameroon (Batalova and Lorenzi ,2022). Batalova and Lorenzi (2022) further note that “the 1990 law also made it easier for highly skilled immigrants to migrate for work, opening the door to educated workers and international students from countries including Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, and South Africa. In addition, Thomas (2016) state that, in the past three decades, more skilled Africans migrated to the US through student migration mechanisms than through any mechanism associated with the recruitment of workers.

International migration of the highly skilled concerns persons with a broad range of educational and occupational backgrounds; university students, nurses, information technology (IT) specialists, researchers, business executives and managers, and intracompany transferees (Borta, 2007:29). Some of these highly skilled individuals migrate on a temporary basis, while others migrate with an intention to settle permanently in the host country. As previously stated, international students are also considered as skilled migrants as it is assumed that a student represents a potential human source for the sending country (home country). Li et al. (1996 cited in Salt,1996) opined that there are good grounds for arguing that migration associated with the acquisition of tertiary education, and of the skills associated with teaching and research, not only constitutes a form of highly skilled migration in its own right.

First, the international movement of students represents the internationalisation of knowledge and is arguably the most effective vehicle for creating a global migratory elite. Second, the provision of tertiary education internationally is now a major business and source of income, both directly (through fees received in destination countries) and indirectly (establishment of links). Third, foreign students (particularly postgraduates) who stay on in the receiving country constitute a relatively cheap source of skills. Finally, that the volume of international student migration is enormous (Salt, 1996:23).

The universal spread of school education and the global migration of people are two facets of an era that started in the second half of the twentieth century (Fargues, 2017). Of course, both education and mobility had always existed, but it is only with the worldwide advent of nation-states in the post-World War II period that education became national and long-distance migration international, and both passed under the control of new state actors (Fargues, 2017). However, the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education worldwide rose significantly during the past decades, from 0.8 million in 1975 to 4.6 million in 2015, with the US, the UK and Australia being the top destination countries (Reinold, 2018). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) revealed that in 2000, the global number of students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of citizenship was two million; by 2012 that had increased to four and a half million, representing an average annual growth of almost 7 percent.

According to UNESCO (2021), in 2019, there were over 6 million international students, up from 2 million in 2000. The US (with 976,853 international students), Australia (509,160 students), and the UK (489,019 students) were the most popular destinations, receiving 33% of international students. However, this is changing as Shields and Edwards, (2010) explain that there is a growth rate in incoming students to China, Japan and Southeast Asia has dramatically outpaced that of established destinations. The substantial increase that occurred worldwide was almost four times the rate of international migration as a whole (King and Raghuram, 2013). Reinold (2018) alludes that these developments are linked to globalisation, resulting in an increased demand for international students from host countries and students' desire to study abroad.

Zheng & Kapoor (2020) argue that international student migration across national borders has been significantly influenced by neoliberal globalization and neoliberalism-doctrined supranational organizations like the World Trade Organization and the World Bank, which promote the removal of barriers and the liberalization of international trade. This has become an important feature that leads to some permanent stay (OECD, International Migration Outlook 2010, 2010 cited in Dessilani, 2016: 2). Despite the absence of systematic data on stay rates after graduation, research that has been carried out on the topic suggests that many international students remain abroad once they have completed their studies (Gribble & Blackmore, 2012). This phenomenon is also known as brain drain. Dodani and

LaPorte (2005:488) also add that higher education is one of the principal conduits of permanent emigration. For example, Meyer and Brown (1999) assert that the majority of doctors acquire specialized and postgraduate professional qualifications in the host country. Also, half of the foreign-born graduate students in France, UK and USA remain there after completing their studies (Martin, Terouanne and Neher, 1998 cited in LaPorte, 2005).

Furthermore, the concept of brain drain was first used by the British Royal Society to describe a situation in the 1950s, where scientists, doctors, engineers, and other skilled individuals were migrating from Europe to the United States and Canada in search of employment (Gibson and McKenzie, 2011 cited in Boyo, 2013:1). Afterward, the term brain drain was widely used to describe the highly educated people or the skilled migrants who migrated from a poor region to the Western world (Repository Research, 2020:11). Thus, the brain drain phenomenon generally was defined as the situation where there are a huge number of highly educated people like scientists, engineers, doctors and prominent students where they look for a better job, a better life condition and better education system from their origin country to other countries. Most of the migration came from the less developed countries to the developed countries, especially to the United (States Repository Research, 2020:11).

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in Freitas, Levatino, & Pécoud (2012 :1), 'highly skilled' people are considered as those individuals who have already completed tertiary education, which in most corresponds to a university degree. King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003; 230) indicated that, although brain drain is traditionally viewed as the movement of highly skilled individuals from their home countries to other countries, another prevalent form of brain-drain which is becoming very important and worth more attention is the failure of international students to return to their native countries after going abroad to study. The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2009) defines international students as those who are not residents of their country of study or those who received their prior education in another country. Shapiro, Farrelly, and Tomas (2014) acknowledged a working definition of international student as "a student who moves to another country (the host country) for the purpose of pursuing tertiary or higher education e.g., college or university".

On the other hand, international students are 'ideal' immigrants, they are skilled, and most are in prime employment age (Mosneaga and Winther, 2013). One

should differentiate between different forms of international student migration, namely vertical and horizontal, as well as degree and credit mobility, which are arguably subject to different determinants. Reinold (2018) elucidates that vertical mobility takes place between two countries with differences in the development of higher education systems. Usually, it refers to mobility from developing to developed countries where the quality of higher education is perceived as superior or more prestigious (Reinold, 2018). Horizontal mobility happens between countries with approximately equally developed higher education systems (e.g., mobility between developed countries or intra-EU mobility). Degree mobility refers to movements for the completion of entire degree programmes (e.g., Bachelor or Master) and credit mobility refers to a temporary stay abroad as part of a degree course (e.g., semester abroad) (Reinold, 2018). Therefore, this study will focus on degree mobility.

Today, Africa is characterized by huge wave of human capital flight. According to Sefa Dei and Asgharzadeh (2002), the brain drain in Africa occurs in two phases: individuals who are educated in Africa in the fields of science, engineering, medicine, health workers, and entrepreneurship but who migrate for assorted reasons; and students who graduated overseas, find employment, settle down, and become permanent residents and citizens. Although, prior to the 1990s, a number of Africans had voluntarily migrated and settled in the overseas, most especially in the western hemisphere, the phenomenon became unprecedented in the period between the 1990s and 2000s (Adesote and Olusesan, 2018).

El-Khawas, (2004 cited in Boyo, 2013), explained that brain drain from the African continent became the subject of attention between 1960 and 1965 when 27,000 educated Africans migrated to the West. This type of migration became more pronounced during the mid-1980s when Africans who had travelled abroad for the sole purpose of furthering their education did not return to their home country. For instance, the brain drain phenomenon in South Africa has been a in the headlines since the 1970's. Although South Africa has been an ideal destination for many skilled African immigrants who migrate within the continent, it has also been battling with the problem of brain drain and Mlambo (2017) adds that the country itself is grappling with the problem of brain drain especially from the health and higher education sectors. There is no reliable data on the extent of South African skilled emigration and a no-return migration. However, the accuracy of the official statistics on the extent of emigration from South Africa, particularly skilled people, has been increasingly

questioned by journalists and academics. Doubts arose in the mid-90s as empirical findings indicated that the departures were far higher than the data published by Central Statistical Services indicated” (Meyer, Brown and Kaplan, 2000). Montsho (2022) writes that over 11% of white South Africans, indicated a slightly higher desire to emigrate, they were closely followed by black South Africans at 9.73%, Indian (9.76%) and coloured at 8.96% of coloured South Africans signaled their intention to emigrate.

Between 1986 and 1996, almost half (44%) of Africans who completed their PhD abroad chose to remain abroad (World Bank, 2007). Reports show that “from 1999 to 2001, out of 34,649 non-U.S. citizen doctorate recipients in the United States, those from Africa accounted for 1,515 (4.4%)” (Kaba, 2011:188). The World Bank (2007) also reveals that, “this incidence of no-return has been on the rise in the last 10 years with the result that more than one third of Africa’s highly qualified human resources are presently in the Diaspora”.

It is estimated that “there were 2.1 million immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa living in the U.S. in 2015, up from 881,000 in 2000 and a substantial increase from 1970 when the U.S. was home to only 80,000 foreign-born Africans. They accounted for 4.8% of the U.S. immigrant population in 2015, up from 0.8% in 1970” (Anderson, 2017). Anderson (2017) continues to say that the growth is evident among recently arrived immigrants. When compared with other major groups who arrived in the U.S. in the past five years, Africans had the fastest growth rate from 2000 to 2013, increasing by 41% during that period. Africans are also a fast-growing segment of the black immigrant population in the U.S., increasing by 137% from 2000 to 2013. This point is reinforced by Batalova and Estada, (2019) alluding that, while this population remains small, representing just 4.5 percent of the country’s 44.7 million immigrants, it is a rapidly growing one.

Between 2010 and 2018, the sub-Saharan African population increased by 52 percent, significantly outpacing the 12 percent growth rate for the overall foreign-born population during that same period (Batalova and Estada, 2019). Benedict & Upkere (2012) also add that, 40% of some of Africa’s brightest minds live outside of the continent. Beaudry, Mouton and Prozesky (2018) elucidate that “it has been estimated there are more African scientists and engineers working in the US than in the whole of Africa”.

Hence, a Pew Research Center analysis of 2015 U.S. Census Bureau and Eurostat data found that sub-Saharan immigrants in the U.S. tend to be a more highly educated ethnic group in the U.S. According to a 2001 U.S. Census Bureau report, 94.9% of these African immigrants aged 25 and over have at least a high school diploma compared to 87% of the American population. The proportion of the 70,000 Africans in the United States (as of March 2000) aged 25 and over with at least a bachelor's degree was 49.3%, substantially higher than the average for the general population of 25.6%, and other foreign-born populations in the country such as Asians (44.9%) (Kaba, 2007:84).

Additionally, the data collected by the Migration Policy Institute from the Census Bureau and American Community Surveys, 40 percent of immigrants to the U.S from Sub-Saharan Africa hold at least a bachelor's degree. That's compared to 31 percent for the country's overall foreign-born population and 32 percent for those born in the U.S. Nigerians and South Africans are the most highly educated, with 61 percent and 58 percent holding at least an undergraduate degree respectively; Kenyans (50 percent), Ghanaians (39 percent), Liberians (31 percent), and Ethiopians (30 percent) followed. Meanwhile, Somalis had the lowest educational attainment of all sub-Saharan Africans, with just 15 percent having graduated from a four-year college. (Batalova and Ecstrada, 2019).

Further, reports have also shown that students leaving their country of origin for other parts of the world are often young adults in their middle age – a group of people very useful in the development of any country regarding the manpower needed. To support this, “87 percent of Africa's skilled migrants who enter the United States are between 25 and 50 years old, with an average migrant age of 35 years old” (Arthur, 2010:62). The age range of skilled African migrants in Canada and the United Kingdom reflect a similar pattern (Arthur, 2010). This type of migration is understood to be a problem because it deprives the home country of essential professionals and results in billions of dollars in lost revenue (Boyo, 2013:2).

Moreover, Nunn (2005) reveals that between 1985 and 1990, 60,000 doctors, nurses, engineers, academics, and other highly skilled Africans migrated out of the continent in search of better standards of living. According to El-Khawas (2004), migration during this period was said to be as high as 80,000. By the late 1980s, about thirty percent of educated Africans had migrated to Europe and “Sudan lost 17 percent of doctors and dentists, 20 percent of university teaching staff, 30 percent of engineers

and 45 percent of surveyors in 1978; 60 percent of Ghanaian doctors trained in the early 80s are now abroad” (Ntuli 2004: 7). ‘

Of the 100,000 African professionals reported to be in the United States, 21,000 are estimated to be Nigerian physicians (Nunn, 2005). Grant (2006), notes that Witwatersrand medical school in South Africa has lost up to 45% of its graduates to migration since 1975. In the span of three years (1999-2002), the University of South Africa lost a staggering total of 100,000 professionals including doctors, engineers, scientists, academics, and accountants (El-Khawas, 2004). and nine countries – Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe – have lost more than \$2.0 billion since 2010 from training doctors who then migrated. Annually, it is estimated that Africa loses around \$2.0 billion through brain drain in the health sector alone (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2018).

Moguerou (2006) averred that skilled migration of professional labour and students represent an increasing concern for developing countries and its consequences have been extensively studied and vigorously debated from the 1960s onward. Even though there is lack of agreement between scholars on whether brain drain is beneficial or not for Africa and its people, many scholars agree that a no return of international students from their host country post-graduation has for an extended period been a huge concern for developing countries and Ramamurthy (2003) believes loss of economic potential could result from this. Thus, this study contributes towards brain drain by assessing the reasons why African graduates specifically South Africans, Kenyans and Nigerians do not go back to their home countries after completing their studies in the U.S.

1.2 Problem statement

The problem with a no return of African graduates to their home countries is that Africa is losing rapidly its own human capital that is highly skilled and needed for development in their home countries. The idea that knowledge is a key driver of societal wealth enjoys broad support (Chen & Dahlman 2005; United Nations 2005; World Bank 1998 cited in Hallberg,2019). Since education is widely regarded as a major determinant of long-term economic growth, it is argued that the migration of people with high levels of human capital is highly detrimental to the countries from which they emigrate. Dodani and LaPorte (2005) also note that highly educated individuals of any country are some of the most expensive resources because of their

training in terms of material cost and time, and most importantly, because of lost opportunity.

Egbefo (2014: 9) emphasizes that failure or refusal of many Africans who studied abroad to return to their home countries after completing their studies means that one in three African professionals live outside Africa. This means that African universities actually produce a third of their graduates for the labour market outside the continent (Egbefo,2014: 9). Erneagwali (2004) writes that Africans are operating one third of African universities to satisfy the manpower needs of Great Britain and the United States, so the African education budget is nothing but a supplement to the American education budget. In essence, Africa is giving developmental assistance to the wealthier nation which makes the rich nation richer and the poor nations poorer.

Furthermore, based on the latest Statista estimates, Nigeria's GDP amounted to 514 billion U.S. dollars in 2021 and records the highest gross domestic product in Africa. South Africa is the second largest powerhouse economy with a GDP 329.53 billion U.S dollars in the Sub- Saharan Africa, while Kenya is worth 106.04 billion U.S. dollars. Thus, it is expected that countries with the highest economy growth can provide their citizens with good health care, high living standards for instance, that help to lift people out of extreme poverty and improve development outcomes. In other words, they should be able to transform the lives and livelihoods of their citizens.

Moreover, sustained economy growth stimulates jobs and contributes to lower unemployment rates which in turn help to reduce income inequality. Economic growth creates more profit for businesses. As a result, stock prices rise. That gives companies capital to invest and hire more employees. As more jobs are created, incomes rise. Consumers have more money to buy additional products and services. But instead, these countries losing skilled personnel in significant numbers that is a fundamental resource in socio-economic and political development and a no return of African graduates from abroad is an unpleasant phenomenon as the migration of young and educated workers takes a large toll on a region whose human capital is already scarce.

Therefore, the brain drain phenomenon poses challenges that are beyond financial concerns and may include but not limited to separating with family and friends back home and some of them working in the labour market which they are over-qualified for once they complete their studies and stay behind in their host country. Because of brain drain, numerous African countries have been left without

the critical skills pertinent to addressing their ever-growing socio-economic development challenges. Several African countries are currently losing skilled academics, engineers, scientists, medical doctors, nurses, accountants, among other skills, to developed countries that can offer lucrative compensations (Olumide and Ukpere, 2012). In fact, on some estimates there are more African scientists and engineers working in the US than there are in Africa (El-Khawas, 2004).

This implies that Africa is losing critical skillsets that negatively impact the continent's socio-economic development and growth aspirations (African Union Development Agency (AUDA-NEPAD), 2021). Batalova and Ecstrada, (2019) elucidates that brain drain has also critically and negatively impacted research, development, and innovation in Africa. For example, reports show that Africa contributed approximately 1.8% (68 945 publications on science and technology) of research publications and patents awarded in 2004. Comparatively, during the same period, Europe produced 43.8% knowledge products, 37% for North America, 8.6% for Asia, 4.7% for Latin America, and 4.2 % for Oceania. As of 2017, Africa's contributions to the world's research, development, innovation have varied between 0.7% and 1.1% (Pouris and Pouris, 2009). The common challenge is that some of this new knowledge is produced by African scientists working outside their own African countries or the African continent. Understandably, research produced by Africans outside the continent cannot be assigned to Africa but to the countries and continents where the African scientists are currently situated (Adam, 2017).

The impact of brain drain on Africa's healthcare system has been evident. These trained healthcare workers are known to emigrate in large numbers out of the continent for better opportunities. In 1998 an estimated 700 Ghanaian physicians are said to have been practicing in the USA alone, which makes a considerable percentage of the population of doctors in the country. Similarly, more than 300 Ethiopian physicians are working in Chicago, USA (British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) cited in Gedamu (2002). According to the World Health Organization's Global Health Workforce Statistics (2018), Chad had 0.00 physicians per 1000 people in 2017, Burundi had 0.1 per 1000 people in 2017, and Zambia had 1.2 in 2018 (Boulet, Burch and Duvivier, 2017).

On the other hand, Zimbabwe had 0.2 physicians per 1000 people in 2018, Guinea had 0.1 per 1000 people in 2016, Eswatini had 0.3 physicians per 1000 people in 2016, and 0.9 physicians per 1000 people in South Africa (2018). Comparatively,

Europe, the United States of America, and other developed countries had between 3 and 4 physicians per 1000 people within the same timeframes (World Health Organisation Global Health Statistics, 2018). The United Kingdom has significantly benefited from approximately 6,770 Nigerian nationals registered with its National Health Services (NHS). Yet, Nigeria has 1 doctor per 5,000 people, which is far less than the World Health Organization (WHO) recommendation of 1 physician per 600 people (Afolayan, 2020). Consequently, 57 % of Africans have poor or limited access to good quality healthcare (Barry and Kirigia, 2008).

However, it is important to note that discussions about the mobility of African students and academic staff often result in mixed views. Academic mobility can, in fact, be a double-edged sword. Additionally, increasingly large numbers of African students and scholars pursue opportunities out of Africa. This is viewed as a positive trend, given the expectation that countries and the continent will benefit from foreign experiences and expertise. However, a significant number of individuals who pursue these opportunities out of Africa do not return, thus depriving the continent of the critical human resource capacity needed for its development (Chien and Kot, 2011: 3).

Indeed, many view this 'brain-drain' as the biggest challenge to development. Not only does brain- drain lead to very substantial outflows of African graduates and scholars, but it also comes at a considerable financial cost (Chien and Kot, 2011: 3). It has been estimated, for instance, that each year \$4 billion is spent on salaries for approximately 100,000 western expatriates who "help make up the loss of professionals in Sub-Saharan Africa" (Teichler and Yağcı, 2009). Thus, while the mobility of African students and scholars outside Africa can be viewed as a positive trend that can be of benefit to the countries and the region, concerns about brain drain have emerged that raise doubts about this form of mobility.

Udogu (2004) summarises the scale of the problem stating that "it is estimated that in 2000, there were 92,435 Africans in New York City, and 25,776 in Montgomery, Alabama. By 2003 there were 20,000 Africans in Atlanta, Georgia. When figures from Los Angeles, Chicago, Miami, Dallas and Houston, Texas and elsewhere in the United States are added, the number of contemporary African immigrants could jump to the millions. Europe also attracts some of the best and brightest African intelligentsia. In fact, there are over 100,000 highly educated professionals in the US alone, of which, for the purpose of illustration, there are over 21,000 Nigerian physicians. Arguably,

these are Africans who, if they had remained in Africa, could ably assist other Africans in engendering economic take-off in the continent. The contributions of Africa's immigrant intelligentsia to development in the region would probably have been so phenomenal that the current clamor about Africa's marginalization and underdevelopment would not have reached its present crescendo".

On average, it cost each African country between \$21,000 and \$59,000 to train a medical doctor. According to WHO, Africa bears more than 24% of the global burden of disease but has access to only 3% of health workers and less than 1% of the world's financial resources (Ighobor,2016). Annually, it is estimated that Africa loses around \$2.0 billion through brain drain in the health sector alone. (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2018). Destination countries do not pay for the cost of training African doctors they recruit. For instance, one in ten doctors working in the UK comes from Africa, allowing the UK to save on average \$2.7 billion on training costs. Similarly, the US, Australia and Canada save respectively about \$846 million, \$621 million, and \$384 million in training cost from African physicians they recruit. It is estimated that Africa has lost \$4.6 billion in training cost for home-trained doctors, recruited by these four-top destination countries (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2018).

Regrettably, the brain drain challenge has derailed Africa's socio-economic development. It has additionally increased expenditure on education and training so to compensate for the emigrated talent and skilled personnel. Studies indicate that Africa losses approximately US\$2 billion per annum due to professionals and executives migrating to countries such as Australia, Canada, Great Britain, and the United States of America (Anhenkan and Boon, 2012). While Africa is significantly losing from brain drain, the host countries for emigrating Africans significantly benefit from such trained professionals. For example, Canada benefits approximately US\$384 million per annum, whilst the United States of America benefits approximately US\$846 million and US\$2 billion for Britain from the socio-economic contributions of African professionals (Alberton et.al. 2011).

In support of the above views, a new report broadcasted by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) said Africa has lost a third of its skilled professionals in recent decades and it is costing the continent \$4 billion dollars a year to replace them with expatriates from the West. Whereas rich countries like the United States of America have saved a total sum of \$26 billion dollars which otherwise should have been spent to train 130,000 highly qualified physicians. Additionally, Kaba (2004)

estimated that 40 per cent of Africa's professionals and entrepreneurs live outside the region. Empirical evidence suggests however that return migration of high-skilled workers – the most educated such as PhD recipients – is limited (UNESCO,2017).

Tanner (2005: 88) also estimated that a third of the region's skilled workers live outside their homelands and had to be replaced by 100 000 expatriates from the West at a cost of USD four billion a year. Although brain drain can and do occur in highly developed countries – British doctors and nurses emigrating to the USA, Canada or Australia, for example, or Australian doctors and scientists emigrating to Europe and the USA – it is widely accepted that the great majority of the brain drain movement is from developing countries, mainly of the third world or 'South', to the developed countries of the 'North' (Gamaty, 2012:2). The numerous volumes of literature dedicated to the brain drain phenomenon imply many developing nations are concerned and fearful of the negative effects skilled migration may have on their fragile economies.

Common wisdom suggests that the migration of people with a high level of human capital is harmful for the country of emigration and has a potentially negative effect on the economy which jeopardizes development programs (Uwem, 2002). Ball (2020) also observed that the issue with this movement of intellect and skills lies in the fact that oftentimes, foreign-born workers and students in developed countries rarely return to their countries of origin, and they do not put the knowledge they obtain back into developing economies and development programs

Odhiambo (2013; 510) notes that skilled manpower labour is an important asset for any nation in the development process, but this is gradually disappearing from the African continent into other parts of the world and concerns about this phenomenon have been expressed at various levels. Odhiambo continues to say "although some amount of mobility is obviously necessary if African countries are to integrate into the global economy, the migration of huge numbers of students and skilled persons pose a threat of a 'brain drain' which can affect growth, development and the quality of education offered. Due to the reluctance of some of the intellectuals not returning home, their home countries suffer immensely.

1.3 Gaps in Literature

Based on the information collected through the literature search and discussions, a review was conducted of the available knowledge and research related

to a no return of African graduates from the U.S. and it was found that majority of migration scholars have thoroughly discussed the determinants of permanent migration stating push-and pull factors such as a job, higher wages, better standard of living and so on without diving deep into how education can be used as a channel for permanent migration where for instance, a person who has completed a Doctoral degree in his/her home country can decide to pursue the same degree in the host country so that the entry could be easier.

Again, the role of historical events that have taken place in shaping the present and the future of migration is under-explored and research scholars from different disciplines need to have an honest conversation about how a no return of highly skilled will have an impact on future generations in the continent of Africa.

Moreover, a number of studies have been done about international student and brain drain especially in Asian regions such as China, Taiwan and India but not enough has been done on Africans especially from the Sub-Sahara who have completed their studies in their home country and went abroad to pursue post-graduate degree and upon graduation they decided to stay. Therefore, in this instance gaps include their decision-making to stay behind in their host country, their experience after completing their studies and remaining there and also the perception of the host country once they have completed their studies focusing on South Africans, Kenyans and Nigerians. Thus, an attempt is therefore made in this research to discern reasons why they are reluctant to go back to their home countries and suggest viable ways and means of addressing the problem, or at least ameliorate its negative impacts.

1.4 Research Objectives

Main Objective

- To investigate the reasons some African graduates are reluctant to go back home upon completion of their studies

Specific Objectives

- To examine the motivation behind African graduate's decision to study abroad
- To evaluate the reasons and experiences that contributed to African graduates to decide to remain in the United States after completing their studies

- To assess the attitude and perceptions of African graduate's decision to remain in the United States of America

1.5 Research Questions

- What is the motivation behind African graduate's decision to study abroad?
- What the reasons and experiences that contributed to African graduates to decide to remain in the United States after completing their studies?
- What is the attitude and perceptions of African graduate's decision to remain in the United States of America?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Clearly, a no return of Africans who are deemed highly skilled is a significant loss to a continent that desperately needs skilled professionals to facilitate and advance the process of socio-economic development in their respective countries. This study will contribute to the body of knowledge on international student migration and brain drain of no return in academia and higher education. The role of academic institutions is to provide knowledge in the form of research and innovation that will solve societal issues and enrich people's lives. Thus, this study is very significant in academia as it identifies a no return of African graduates from abroad and the detrimental effects brain drain has on the origin countries and provides strategies and mitigations to curb it.

In addition, this study is also very important as it sheds light on those individuals who have been educated in their countries and after they have completed their studies, decide to go to foreign countries in search of more desirable quality of life and better wages compared to their country or both. The migration of these skilled individuals can make it difficult for their country of origin and communities because it means that they cannot retain their "best brightest minds" and maintain a high intellectual standard as they emigrate. Therefore, if majority of intellectuals migrate, it is going to be difficult for the young and upcoming professionals who want to follow the same career to get the best training and work experience. Moreover, not only does the origin countries lose its intellectual standard but its tax receipts are reduced which may lead up to a higher taxation to make up for those who have migrated. There is also loss of educational investment and essential facilities such as health services that are reduced to name a few causing their countries to lose the ability to progress.

This study is also significant to the stake holders in respective countries who are concerned about brain drain effects as it informs them about the reasons that motivate students to emigrate abroad and remain in the host country post-graduation so that they can urge the government to tackle this issue in different facilities and suggest ways to go on about it.

Finally, to solve the issue of a no return of graduates from abroad, policy makers need to understand its nature and implications. It is not an easy task because there's little data on the emigration of the highly skilled especially from Sub-Sahara Africa. However, one of the important issues raised in this study is that as the continent loses its talented and skilled individuals in large numbers, who are important to the socio-political and economic development of their own countries, there will be economic loss which in turn will reduce the development further and drive more people to go abroad. Hence, it is very significant for policymakers to understand that no amount of nationalism or loyalty can influence the emigrants to return to their origin country if there are no improvements that would benefit them. Thus, once policymakers understand the underlying cause of brain-drain, they can weigh the costs and benefits of the brain drain and implement designs that are suitable to policy responses to address this phenomenon.

Therefore, this study will determine the reasons why Sub-Sahara Africans specifically Nigerians, Kenyans and South Africans are reluctant to go back to their home countries post-graduation and opens up the possibility that government and university leaders in Africa and elsewhere who are searching for strategies to upgrade their skilled human capital should seek a better understanding of the determinants and reasons international student do not return back to their countries. This will also assist to assess how migration flows could be managed differently in the future as a means of decreasing their country's brain drain losses.

1.7 Structure of Dissertation

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the thesis by means of a brief introduction, background of the study and problem statement. Further, it highlights the research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, and structure of the dissertation and concludes by summarizing the content of the chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter of the thesis reviews the literature on international migration at the global, continental (Africa) and country level (South Africa, Kenya and Nigeria). It examines the history of migration, determinants of international student migration, trends and patterns, brain drain and its potential effects on the home country. Overall, this chapter provides studies that have been conducted on the subject. Finally, the summary of the chapter will be provided.

Chapter 3: The Concept of Brain Drain and Policies and Strategies to Address the Brain-Drain

This chapter is the extension of the literature review unpacking the concept of brain-drain, its positive and negative impacts and also the policies and strategies that can be implemented to address the problem of brain especially in the sending countries.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Framework

This chapter discussed the theoretical framework namely World Systems Theory (WST) and Rational Choice Theory (RTC) that explain the factors of international migration. Then, concludes with a summary.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

This section provides discussion about the research methodology employed to attain the objectives of the study. To be specific, this chapter discusses research paradigm and suitable philosophy for this study, discusses the research approach, research design, data collection method, population, sampling, data analysis method, ethical consideration and lastly, a summary.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter deals with the analysis of the findings. It presents the results of both the quantitative and qualitative survey questionnaire separately based on the information provided by the participants.

Chapter 6: (Discussions of results)

This chapter provides the discussion of findings and it done based on the objectives of the study. Here, the researcher is clear on which facts or published literature the findings are based on.

Chapter 7: In the final chapter, all the loose ends are to be tied up. This section presents an overview of the study, summary of key findings, limitation of the study and recommendations.

1.8 Summary

This chapter provided the introduction, followed by the background of the study, problem statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study and structure of the dissertation.

CHAPTER TWO-LITERATURE REVIEW

1.0 Introduction

This Chapter provides an in-depth review of the literature that is related to brain drain resulting from study abroad. The concept of international student migration/mobility (ISM) is defined, followed by a brief history of International Student Migration and then relevant research pertaining to an individual's motivation to study abroad is assessed. This includes exploration of the conceptual framework components of push-pull factors (Altbach, 2004; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002) that influence student decision making to study abroad, globalization of international education and other determinants. It also explores the global international student migration trends and patterns and lastly examines the concept of brain and its impacts.

2.1 Defining International Student Migration/Mobility (ISM)

Scholars have been using different concepts and terms in referring to the migration phenomenon particularly of education migration. At times it is referred to as international student migration or internationalization (Umar, 2014:2). Knight (2003: 2) insinuates that there are also other concepts often used in relation to education migration such as transnational education, cross-border education, international education, international student mobility, international mobile student, student migrant, foreign student education or foreign student mobility are being used interchangeably. All these concepts highlighted above are fundamentally the same and virtually all of them are addressing the same subject matter (Knight,2003:2).

In addition, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2008) gives a broad explanation of a Migrant defining one as 'any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from his/her habitual place of residence, regardless of (1) the person's legal status; (2) whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; (3) what the causes for the movement are; or (4) what the length of the stay is'. For this research study, the two concepts, International Student migration and international student mobility will be used

interchangeably. Internationally mobile students were defined by Kelo et al. (2006: 210) as "...students who have crossed a national border to study or to undertake other study related activities, for at least a certain unit of a study program or a certain period of time, in the country to which they have moved". The Migration that engages the attention in this thesis specifically relates to the voluntary movement of people from one continent to another who decided to pursue their studies and after graduation decided to settle because they were impelled by various reasons.

According to Adepaju (2008), "migration, by its very nature, involves at least three major actors: the migrant, the area or country of origin and the area or country of destination". "While internal migration, in principle, implies movement of people within a geographically defined territory unrestricted by legal constraints" (Adepaju,2008), international migration is the "movement of persons who leave their country of origin, or the country of habitual residence, to establish themselves either permanently or temporarily in another country" (International Organization for Migration, 2004).

Tight (2022) posits that the internationalisation of higher education has typically been seen as a contemporary trend driven by Western developed nations, whereby particular elite models of provision, most frequently delivered in the English language, are seen to have influenced practice globally through the recruitment of international students (and academic staff), notably to the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, and other Western countries. Much literature situates international student mobility in the context of the "global knowledge economy" or "information society" in which an increasing share of economic and social life centers on the exchange of information or intellectual property rather than goods (Bell, 1974; Gürüz, 2008). In this perspective, Shields (2013) notes that the rise of international student mobility is associated with an increased demand for technical, specialized, post-secondary education that prompts students to go abroad in search of educational opportunities that are better than those available to them in their home country.

2.2 International Student Migration and Colonial Legacies; A Brief History

Human beings have migrated since the dawn of time. Mobility of African students, in all senses, is not a recent phenomenon in the African higher education landscape. With the introduction of European higher education systems in Africa during colonial times, mobility of African students to European universities for higher

education training started to become common ((Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). In British and French colonies, sending few African students to their respective home institutions for higher education training was taken as a strategy for colonial administration (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013). Since the very purpose of higher education during colonial times was to create elites that could assist colonial administration, sending few African students to metropolitan universities in Europe was considered as cost effective compared to expanding higher education institutions in Africa (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013). That was one of the European colonialist's reasons for having few higher education institutions in their colonies in Africa. For example, between 1896 and 1931, 22 black South Africans studied in the United States at Lincoln University (Menell- Kinberg 1991).

In Kenya, during the colonial era, the number of Kenyans with exposure to education steadily increased and a good number of them were privileged to proceed abroad for further education. Indeed, the student mobility in Kenya mirrored the colonial legacy movement imperatives where Kenyan nationalists organized massive airlifts to train young Kenyans in American Universities and the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) respectively (Otieno et.al 2008, 249). The first group of 81 Kenyan students left for studies in 1959, becoming pioneering academics and civil servants upon their return to Kenya (Mboya, 1963 cited in Kishun, 2011: 144, Hughes,1964:137). Further, the early Nigerian response to American education was in 1925 and the outward mobility of Ghanaian students was between 1948 to 1957 (Kishun, 2011). Not only did Africans go to the United States, but there were others who studied in England and France. In fact, many of the educated African elite who provided leadership for the nationalist movements throughout Africa received their education at overseas higher education institutions (Lulat, 2003).

Nonetheless, it is very crucial to engage the underlying colonialism and post-colonialism trajectories that have perpetuated international student migration/mobility (ISM) out of Africa to western countries. But first, the researcher will examine education in pre-colonial Africa in which Haruna (2021) stresses that it served as customary education taught morals and the essence of communal living from the cradle with the goal of molding decent human beings who would preserve the cultural heritage of the people. The researcher also believes that exploring education in Africa from a historical context will enlighten the reader and enable a

deeper analysis of the different factors that influenced student migration out of Africa.

Several studies have established that contrary to widespread beliefs, formal and informal education were actively in existence in Africa prior to the commencement of colonialism (Esiobu, 2019). Esiobu adds that at the formal, non-formal and informal levels, Africans in various parts of the continent were consistently involved in the business of transmitting knowledge to the younger generation. It must be noted also that the knowledge that Africans had was scientific and as intricate as any other from other parts of the world (Mosweunyane, 2013: 52). This point is reinforced by Ocheni and Nwankwo (2015) explaining that, before Africans fully embraced colonial education, they were good technologists, advancing at their own rates with the resources within their environment. For example, Africans were good sculptors, carvers, cloth weavers, miners, blacksmiths, etc., and were able to provide and satisfy the technological need of the various African societies (Mosweunyane, 2013).

Emeagwali (2006) also observed that Africans while interacting with their environment and transforming various raw materials overtime, arrived at various hypotheses about nature, the natural world and society. The fabrication of metallic tools and implements, textile production, traditional medicine, or food processing, involved the application of various techniques, principles, and propositions arrived at through observation of the environment and experimentation at various levels (ibid). Further, the curriculum of indigenous education during the pre-colonial period consisted of traditions, legends and tales and the procedures and knowledge associated with rituals which were handed down orally from generation to generation within each tribe (Seroto, 2011). This process was intimately integrated with the social, cultural, artistic, religious, and recreational life of the indigenous peoples.

The existing pre-colonial education system was disrupted by European colonialism from the 15th century onwards. Esiobu (2019) alludes that the incursion of Christian proselytes into Africa, occasioned by the end of slave trade was to drastically upturn the status quo in the education system of sub-Saharan Africa. Lawuo (1978:50 cited in Esiobu, 2016) supports that the appearance of the missionaries in Africa, together with the Western education they brought, was a direct response to these economic aspirations of Europe. Thus, Christian missionaries paved the path for Western socio-economic and political institutions by

using education as a strategy to win over converts and gain admission into new regions. The primary responsibility of the European Christian Missionary in Africa, according to David Livingstone, who first arrived in Africa as a missionary sent by the London Missionary Society, was to integrate Africans into European economic institutions. He argued that industrialization in Africa should be prohibited, and that the continent should instead act as a plantation for the metropole, producing the crops needed for industrial Europe (Lawuo 1978, 50).

(Ocheni and Nwankwo (2012:51) opined that it is usually argued in favour of colonialism that it brought western education and hence western civilization to the shores of Africa which by implication is a positive contribution towards African development. This argument will appear to be true on the surface or superficially, but if it is subjected to critical analysis, it will reveal the hollowness or emptiness of colonial education which is partially responsible for the present African underdevelopment. Ocheni and Nwankwo argue that the colonial education was not rooted in African culture and therefore could not foster any meaningful development within the African environment because it had no organic linkage.

They further stipulate that colonial education was essentially literary; it had no technological base and therefore antithetical to real or industrial development. The poor technological base of most of the present-day African states, which has been responsible for their underdevelopment stems from their poor foundation of education laid by the colonialists. Colonial education essentially aimed at training clerks, interpreters, produce inspectors, artisans, etc., which would help them in the exploitation of the Africa's rich resources (Ocheni and Nwankwo, 2012:51).

World Development (2016) also affirmed that education under the colonial government was not primarily meant to improve the knowledge of the indigenous population or to open the ways to European universities but to recruit and to train clerks/officials for the administration. Education policies were guided by the practical needs of colonial society. Hence, the few Africans sent to study abroad during colonial era, were not merely sent to obtain qualifications but also acquire skills that will help in sustaining the colonies back in Africa upon their return. Umar (2014, 2) corroborated the above assertions when he indicated that, the colonial government adopted a policy of sending few individuals to their respective metropolis, notably, Britain, France, Belgium, Portugal, German, Italy and Spain in order to acquire higher education.

They were interested in training limited numbers of African nationals to assist in administering the colonies. Some colonial powers, notably the Belgians, forbade higher education in their colonies (Umar, 2014:2). In the developing countries, colonial administrators, Christian Missionaries as well as Anthropologists were the main instruments of changing the ways of the indigenous people and entronement of the Western culture which in essence was to create the desire for food, clothing, education, religion, and other aspect of western culture (Igwe 2010 :158).

For Rodney, colonial schooling in Africa was “education for subordination, exploitation, the creation of mental confusion and the development of underdevelopment” (Rodney 1972: 264). Without doubt, colonial education was a larger component of the colonial project to dehumanise Africans by imposing both inner and outer colonisation (Shizha, 2005). Both inner and outer colonisation were based on the premise that Africans would assimilate into the European lifestyles and values that were themselves a threat to the identity and self-perceptions of the indigenous people. To a greater extent, colonial education led to psycho-cultural alienation, and cultural domination (Mazrui, 1993).

Not only did colonialism affect the indigenous education system in Africa, but it also changed the state of affairs both politically and economically. Political leadership in Africa was not a recent creation. Colonialism has far reaching influence in the political aspect of the continent. The present political system of the continent is the direct reflection of the colonial system. Colonialism greatly influenced the politics of the continent by replacing indigenous institutions by strange administration (Farah and Mazongo, 2011: 2). Before Africa was colonised, and way beyond the advent of slave trade, African societies had institutional mechanisms as well as cultural sources to uphold the values of peace, tolerance, solidarity, and respect for, and of, one another (Waindim, 2019). For instance, the kingdoms of Kongo, Zimbabwe, and other advanced societies of the southern parts of Africa were all well organized and efficient in the pre-colonial era (Falola and Heaton, 2008).

There were also ancient kingdoms in Ghana, Mali, Songhai, and Kanem-Bornu. In Nigeria, the kingdoms of Oyo, Benin, Edo, and the Habe dynasties of the north molded the political destinies of the people (Falola and Heaton, 2008). These structures were responsible for “peace education, confidence-building, peacemaking, peace-building, conflict monitoring, conflict prevention, conflict management, and conflict resolution” (Ademowo, 2015). Waindim (2019) asserts that if these

mechanisms were effective in handling and managing conflicts among the people, it was largely because they reflected the sociopolitical orientation of the African people, addressing all the social, political, and economic conflicts among a people who lived a communal way of life.

The traditional African system of government was open and inclusive, where all people could participate in the decision-making process. While the West practiced majoritarian or representative democracy, Africans practiced participatory democracy, where decisions were taken by consensus at village meetings, “variously called *asetena kese* by the Ashanti, *ama-ala* by the Igbo, *guurti* by the Somali, *dare* by the Shona, *ndaba* by the Zulu or *kgotla* by the Tswana (Ayittey, 2014). However, with slave trade and colonisation, these indigenous institutions were largely weakened and even destroyed in many societies, especially as the colonial masters introduced law courts, which came to pronounce judgments rather than resolve conflicts according to the African administration of justice (Waindim, 2019).

Kieh (2009) opined that Europeans were able to achieve their goals through the use of violence, coercion, repression, and racist ideologies. Political repression and non-respect for human rights are synonymous with bad governance. Anchakeng (2013) indicated that political repression in Africa goes back to Africa’s colonial legacy. Colonial rule was the antithesis of democracy because it was premised on the usurpation of the fundamental right of self-determination and of the fundamental human rights of citizens and peoples.

Okoyo’s (1977) work underscored the fact that whatever legitimacy colonialism possessed was derived not from any set of agreed rules or consensus, but from the monopoly of the means of coercion and violence, and by its divide-and-rule strategies aimed at intensifying the cleavages (class, tribal, religious) inherent in the social structure and at prolonging its rule. Colonial rule never raised the issue of good government. The only issues were power and violence, and that remains the tradition of politics that African leaders took to independence in their respective nations. These African leaders have not only retained the politics of power and violence, but many of them have also continued to reinforce the tradition (Anchakeng, 2013).

Moreover, the economic underdevelopment of Africa is rooted from the European colonization (Nunn, 2003:2). The overwhelming economic benefits the Europeans envisaged brought along imperialism that kept Africa under bondage for centuries. Africans suffered from unfair taxation, cultural confusion, and expropriation

of land, exploitation of labour and the loss of their mineral wealth to Europeans. As it is obvious that the European colonizers heavily exploited the resources of Africa, its negative effect on the contemporary Africa's underdevelopment is a well-established fact. As Rodney (1973:146 cited in Bayeh, 2015: 91) clearly expressed, Europeans took away the young, healthy and the most productive forces of the continent leaving the children, aged, and unhealthy section of the population. Thus, it is easy to deduce from this that the European powers contributed a lot to the economic underdevelopment of contemporary African states.

Colonialism transformed the local economic structure into a capitalist one, centered on the mass generation and accumulation of capital in the hands of a few. This system displaced previously existing forms of distribution (Nyamnjoh, 2012). Prior to the "Scramble for Africa," or the official partition of Africa by the major European nations, African economies were advancing in every area, particularly in the area of trade. The aim of colonialism is to exploit the physical, human, and economic resources of an area to benefit the colonizing nation (Settles, 1996). For instance, European powers pursued this goal by encouraging the development of a commodity-based trading system, a cash crop agriculture system, and by building a trade network linking the total economic output of a region to the demands of the colonizing state. Mazonde (2001) points out that the introduction of a money economy widened class differences and created a capitalist system. Ocheni and Nwankwo (2012: 48) averred that before colonization, the African economy was primitive and based on barter system.

In a similar vein, in many societies of pre-colonial Africa there existed pastoral economy which Nyariki, Mawata and Musimba (2015) define as a collection of pastoral activities, mainly management, herding and security that leads to the production of mainly livestock and livestock products for domestic consumption and for the market. For example, the Khoi Khoi were skilled in the practice of nomadic pastoral agriculture – they maintained large herds of cattle throughout the country, and they were skilled hunter-gatherers. AKyeampong (2015:2) adds that the Khoisan in the southwestern part of South Africa exchanged their cattle, sheep and hunting produce for the iron and copper from the Batswana to the north, and then traded some of these metals to the Xhosa in the southeast for dagga and tobacco.

Moreover, much of what was produced and exchanged was meant to maintain an adequate level of subsistence among families and clans. Goods produced were

occasionally traded on the market to meet the demands of subsistence, but it was not used as a means of accumulating wealth or extracting surplus from the primary producers by an elite class (Jones, 2008). The effects of colonization gradually shifted many African economies towards commercialization and eventually integrated them into the global market. African countries were unable to sustain the economic progress it required to keep up with the global market and many of their economies collapsed after independence (Samatar, 1993).

The argument thus far is that the demolition of Indigenous education, political and economic system of the African people by the Western European capitalist expansion and imperialism, assisted in the growth of Western countries in which today are called “developed world” at the expense of exploiting their colonies. The west has often underplayed the impact of slave trade on Africa’s development. But it is a known fact that during slavery millions of able-bodied Africans were forcefully taken to Europe and America thereby denying Africa the needed manpower for development (Rodney 1972: 236). Also, Modernization theory de-emphasizes the impact of colonialism on development and how different types of colonialism affected different countries of the world differently (Rodney 1972, p.236). It is on record that Africa where extractive colonialism took place witnessed more exploitation than colonies in South America and Asia. In fact, from all indications, colonialism and neo-colonialism penetrated and disarticulated African economies and structured it in such a way that we now perpetually remain dependent and underdeveloped (Rodney 1972, p.236).

Post-Independence, Colonial Mentality, and International Student Migration

After Africans had lived through many years of serving the Europeans who colonized them, they took upon themselves to reclaim their possessions and freedom, but all this came at a heavy cost where some of them lost their lives in the battle. Eventually, they were granted their independence. Ngugi (2017) states that throughout the colonial era, Africans longed for a return to their original ways of life, free of subjugation and abuse. So, when freedom finally came, there was a sense of optimism as Africans hoped to shape their own path to the future (Ngugi, 2017). Gamage (2018) adds that around the 1960’s commerce and trade thrived. Imports from imperial centers increased often replacing local alternatives. Gamage further explains that a dependency was created not only in economic relations but also in the political and governance spheres. Whereas the initial performance was remarkable,

economic development slowed in the 1970s and stagnated in the 1980s. In response, the states' attempts to reinvigorate economic growth through state-led investments and import substitution industrialisation strategies were unsuccessful (Heidhues and Obare, 2011: 55).

Nevertheless, despite the independence of all African nations from their former colonizers mental slavery still linger on. According to David & Okazaki (2006), colonial mentality, a product of colonialism, is a broad multidimensional construct that refers to personal feelings or beliefs of ethnic or cultural inferiority. Boyo (2013: 40) elucidates that, even as independence drew closer towards the 1960s, a nationalistic discourse on black consciousness grew but aspirations to become more western through western education became so deeply sewn in the fabric of African society. For example, in the selected emerging republics the ruling elites even preferred French, Portuguese or English in their social and political discourse and accepted that their children should grow up ignorant of traditional vernacular languages (Gordon 2011:70). Education, especially higher education, remained predominantly in the European mode, with European textbooks and teachers. To add on this for example, "despite the existence of approximately 250 native dialects, the official language spoken in Ghana is English. English pre-dominates business and governmental affairs and is the language in which students learn and are evaluated in schools and universities" (Utsey, Abrahams, Henaku, Bolden and Williams, 2015:20).

Moreover, Chulu (2015:16) wrote that in Africa, there is no single native language for the whole continent which cuts across all different native languages in our education system. In understanding this perspective, it can be noted that the pattern of the education system was fully inherited from the colonialist who made the Africans forsake the use of their native languages in the education system". The colonial education policy has affected the Africans psychology whereby most people do not want anything to do with African standards as they are considered inferior and backwards, for instance many upcoming university academics prefer international degrees than their own qualifications (Prah 2011: 165).

Trifonas (2003) argues that, to ensure real independence through the right kind of education, classroom content must integrate "particular curriculum content and design, instructional strategies and techniques, and forms of evaluation". This is necessary, as colonialism is entrenched in the mental process of the colonized through the "curricula content and design, the instructional practices, the social

organization of learning, and the forms of evaluation that inexorably sort and label students into enduring categories of success and failure of schooling” (Trifonas 2003).

While Dimkpa (2015:20) and some scholars point out that virtually everything that has gone wrong in Africa since the advent of independence should not be blamed on the legacies of colonialism, Sankore (2004) argues that Asian colonies for instance, “were not suspended or destroyed by 400 years of slavery followed by carving up and imposition of mostly artificial states. The result is that Asia has an unbroken sense of history and culture and recovered quickly but not yet completely from colonialism”.

Odhiambo (2013:266) writes that the brain drain phenomenon began in Africa just after the independence of many countries and has continued over the years. According to Wusu (2006), the number of Africans heading out of the continent was initially small during the 1960’s, but later increased due to the deterioration of social, political and economic conditions. It is estimated that 27,000 highly educated Africans migrated to developed countries between 1960 and 1975, increased to 40,000 annually during the following decade, peaked at about 80,000 in 1987 but has levelled to about 20,000 a year since 1990 (Wusu, 2006:92).

Nonetheless, Mosugu (2020) explains that “in the 1960s and 1970s, African immigrants that acquired an American education were anxious to return to their respective nations. The promise of nation building was a push factor for these young men and women that had received a Westernized education”. However, in the late 1990s to date, African immigration to the United States has significantly increased (Takougang, 2005). Thomas (2016) adds that “in the past three decades, more skilled Africans migrated to the US through student migration mechanisms than through any mechanism associated with the recruitment of workers”. Primarily, this can be attributed to the fact that many immigrants are interested in building a better life for themselves and their families” (Mosugu, 2020).

2. 3 Drivers of International Student Mobility

After examining a brief history of ISM and colonial legacies, one can consider the factors determining international student mobility. The motivations to study abroad are complex. Numerous reasons pervade literature to account for the exodus of the best minds from Africa to the developed world. According to Statista (2021), the number of international students studying in U.S. colleges and universities is rapidly

growing from 565,039 in 2004/2005 to 1,095,299 in 2018/2019. However, in the 2020/21 academic year there were 914,095 international students studying in the United States. This is a decrease from the previous year, when 1.07 million international students were studying in the United States and is likely due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. Closures and limited access to U.S. embassies and consulates, travel restrictions, and personal safety considerations have complicated visa issuance and travel plans of international students (Batalova and Israel, 2021).

Students are more likely to travel abroad for more advanced education programmes. In all but a few countries, the share of international students enrolled in tertiary programmes increases gradually with education level (OECD, 2019). On average across OECD countries, international students account for 6% of total enrolment in tertiary programmes, but 22% of all enrolments at doctoral level. International enrolment in bachelor's programmes remains relatively low (below 5% in nearly half of the countries for which data are available) (ibid). Batalova and Israel (2021) observed that engineering, math and computer science, and business and management were the top three fields of study for international students in academic year 2019-20, accounting for more than half of all international enrollment at U.S. higher education institutions. They further noted that, 52 percent of international students were in STEM fields and were eligible for the extended 36-month OPT upon graduation.

Many students leave developing nations to pursue graduate education in more developed countries, some with the intent of staying in their host country permanently. Therefore, a no return of international students upon completion of their studies causes brain drain for their home country.

2.3.1 Push and Pull Factors

Most of the existing literatures recognize that the decision to migrate is the result of the interaction between several identified factors, both from home and abroad. According to (World Migration, 2003), these factors are often categorized as “push factors”: that drive migrants to leave their countries of origin and “pull factors”: that attract skilled migrants into their preferred destinations. The principal push factors that encourage professionals to migrate and their order of importance vary from one developing country to another. However, most of these factors are often closely

related to the characteristics of underdevelopment. Adepaju notes that “the major cause of voluntary movement of populations between and within national borders in recent years is rooted in the initial and growing disparity in development between and among states”. The causes and consequences of such movement have economic, political, social, and demographic dimensions (Heisel, 1982).

Massey (1988: 383) averred that a common belief among lawmakers, policy specialists, and the public is that immigration from developing countries stems from a lack of economic development. The economic structure of society is the real foundation, which raises a legal and political structure that corresponds with definite forms of social consciousness”. Therefore, whatever manifests in the superstructure is settled in the substructure under heathen wherein its strength lies (Marx and Engels, 1969:69 in Ojo, Ugochukwu & Obinna 2011: 438). Panth (2020: 1) notes that there is no clear picture or definition of what constitutes “economic underdevelopment” or how to achieve it, as it is an evolving concept, and keeps altering over time.

However, broadly, economic development is taken to be the structural transformation of an economy by introducing more mechanized and updated technologies to increase labor productivity, employment, incomes, and standard of living of the population. Myint and Krueger (2016) posit that economic development should be accompanied by improvements in infrastructure, as well as social, political, and institutional factors to facilitate transformation of the economy. Therefore, Economic development is regarded as important for a country to reduce its poverty by providing more employment, higher incomes, improved goods and services, and latest technologies of production (Panth, 2020).

Nonetheless, people leave their places of origin because their countries are poor, underdeveloped and consequently lack economic opportunity; they migrate to wealthy, developed nations to seek wider opportunities for employment at higher wages (Massey, 1988: 383). Moreover, “the benefits to the migrant include a potential wage gain from moving to a richer country. The younger the migrant, the larger these gains because younger migrants have a longer lifetime ahead of them in which to benefit from the extra income” (International; Monetary Fund, 2020). Additionally, Mutume (2006) elucidates that in most emigrant-producing countries, jobs are scarce, or salaries are too low, obliging people to seek opportunities elsewhere. Indeed, there

has been accelerating demand for skilled workers in developed economies experiencing labour shortages (Lowell and Findlay, 2001:3).

Further, “employers in receiving countries take a different position; they have their own shortages of skilled people in specific fields and can drain a developing country of expertise by providing job opportunities”. Conversely, better wages and employment conditions, better information, recruitment, and cheaper transportation are encouraging skilled migrants to seek jobs in developed economies” (Lowell and Findlay 2001). For example, “in a survey conducted by Ghana’s Ministry of Health to establish trends and reasons for the loss of their doctors between 1969 and 1999, the most common reasons obtained include the search for better remuneration and conditions of service, better postgraduate training opportunities, and the desire to afford basic life amenities” (Dovlo and Nyonator, 1999).

There was also expressed frustration over delayed promotion and the rigid system of seniority. Dodani and Laporte (2005:488) allude that “continuing disparities in working conditions between richer and poorer countries offer a greater ‘pull’ towards the more developed countries”. For instance, the higher the gap between the real wage at home and abroad, the greater the rate of emigration. To add on this, a dataset compiled by the International Labour Organization (ILO) shows that “workers in high-income countries earn a median wage that is almost five times the level of that of workers in low-income countries adjusted for differences in purchasing power” (Freeman and Oostendorp, 2000). Indeed, according to Prescott (1998), the typical worker in a rich country such as Switzerland or the United States is 20 or 30 times more productive and, therefore, richer than the typical worker in a poor country such as Haiti or Nigeria. Endowments, natural resources, capital per worker, and usable knowledge all account for these differences in productivity and income. This shows that investment in education and training brings about growth in productivity.

As a result, among the identified “push” factors behind people’s decision to migrate are poor condition of services, low wages or salary, misplacement of talent, human rights abuse, underemployment, political instability, lack of research facilities, inefficient institutions, disregard for local talent, discrimination in appointment and promotion, corruption, limited access to quality education, and desire for a better urban life (World Migration, 2003). Similarly, push factors that compel a student to study abroad are particularly economic or social factors that limit educational opportunity. In Africa, factors such as low level of development, high domestic political

instability and religious or ethnic fractionalization, jobs opportunities at destination countries, selective immigration policies, wage gaps, geographical distance, former colonial links, and linguistic proximity between countries of origin and destination are the main factors driving highly skilled migration (Docquier et al., 2007; Marfouk, 2007).

Again, many political and security issues contribute to the decision of skilled Africans to move elsewhere. The Red Terror in Ethiopia, interminable conflict in Somalia, genocide in Rwanda, civil war in the DRC, and human cruelty in Sierra Leone are extreme examples. Military coups, political persecution, arbitrary arrest, poor human rights practices, intolerance of political dissent, absence of academic freedom, illegal regime change, and favoritism based on ethnic or religious affiliation add to the brain drain. All these conditions exist somewhere in Sub-Saharan Africa today and in a few countries most of them prevail. A country with a weak economy, high unemployment, significant corruption, low wages, periodic famine and/or substantial poverty is a prime candidate for a brain drain. A country that is unable to create a sufficient number of new jobs and has a limited capacity to absorb qualified personnel is especially vulnerable. (Shinn, 2008).

Ngoma and Ismail (2013: 747) say attractive “pull” factors which encourage migration are factors virtually absent in developing countries but readily available and obtainable in destination countries. In addition, Mazzarol (2002) explained that pull factors are referred as perceived benefits of the destination country or institution and include personal recommendations, cost, the overall environment, geographic proximity, and social links). Some of the most important and frequently mentioned pull factors are better economic prospects, higher salary and income, better career expectations, better research facilities, modern educational system and better opportunity from higher qualification, prestige of foreign training, intellectual freedom, better working condition and better employment opportunities, relative political stability, presence of a rich scientific and cultural tradition, availability of experienced and supporting staff, technological gaps, and allocation of substantial fund for research (Kainth, 2009). For instance, Montsho (2022) indicates that “three of the top five reasons for emigration suggested that 25.68% of South Africans with higher education and 32.91% of high-income earners, cited better job opportunity as the rationale for their consideration, whilst 8.36% suggested overall better opportunity and 5.42% cited a better life or standard of living as the reason”.

In addition, low salaries for professionals are often cited as a major reason for the brain drain. New medical graduates in Kenya earn about \$1,000 per month. In some developed countries, they could earn \$14,000 monthly. In a few African countries a physician earns as little as \$100 per month. A related concern is the lack of professional opportunity, benefits, and personal development. This includes issues such as training and research opportunities, morale and job satisfaction, and human resource and management policies. For example, Hall (2005) argued that problems of access to research and weak institutional support structures are additional key factors besides higher income that motivates researchers and scientists to move abroad. Furthermore, relations between the universities and national government are sometimes hostile. This is especially a problem when universities are under the tight control of the government and the university administration has minimal involvement in making education policy. The university leadership may then lose its sense of direction and be unable to cope during crisis situations (Shinn, 2008).

Also, most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa do not have particularly friendly working environments, strong budgets, clear policies, or generous research funds (Shinn, 2008). There is often no national policy for and little investment in science and technology. Some of the problems concern everyday living. Professionals become discouraged if they cannot afford decent housing. Poor supervision and limited career advancement opportunities add to the frustration. Poorly equipped institutions where computers and access to the Internet are limited pose a serious handicap. Libraries that house a modest number of mostly out-of-date books, laboratories with broken or obsolete equipment, and medical personnel without modern equipment add to the brain drain. Inability to access professional literature is another issue. These problems are common to many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa.

However, Lee (2008) indicated that push-pull framework has little to say about influences at the individual level. Instead, such studies emphasize the importance of networks to explain the ins and outs of studying abroad or information from peers or influencers about the experience (Saliburg, et.al, 2008). In the same way, Shinn (2008) mentions that pull factors such as good security and better economic and social opportunities in countries that attract skilled people have essentially the same effect on skilled persons in all Sub-Saharan Africa. The impact of push factors varies, however, from one country to another. Countries like Somalia, the DRC, and Sudan are impacted more negatively by conflict and political instability than they are by

economic concerns. Others, such as Ghana, Kenya, Burkina Faso, and Zambia, are relatively stable but have faced serious economic push factors (Shinn, 2008).

Moreover, the decision by an individual to move abroad for the purpose of acquiring international education has traditionally been explained from the perspective of human capital theory (Shinn, 2008). According to this perspective, an individual will choose to migrate if (and only if) this means acquiring an experience or diploma (=human capital) that will improve future earnings. Therefore, a prospective international student's choice of a destination country for overseas study may usually be made based on the match of his or her personal needs, situations, networks, and factors related to academic requirements, educational services, educational advantages, or benefits, and living environment in a host country (Chien, 2015: 738).

2.3.2 Globalisation and International Education

Today the world is more connected than ever. Information, commodities, and money flow rapidly across national boundaries, a phenomenon often referred to as globalization. By its nature, globalization implies and does imply free movement of goods and ideas between and across borders, trade liberalization, greater and speedier returns, and repatriation of profits from quick yielding investments from the developing to the developed nations (Nwanunobi, 2015:179). According to OECD (2008, 2016), the global mobility of highly skilled individuals has become an important aspect of innovation and globalization and is acknowledged to contribute to the creation and diffusion of knowledge through direct interactions. Thus, the assumed increases in the volume, diversity, geographical scope, and overall complexity of international migration are commonly linked to advances in transport and communication technology and more generally to globalization processes. The more involved a country is in the global economy, the more human capital resources of who can be capable to handling the challenges in a global system (Liu and Wang, 2008:14).

Globalisation has emphasized the unevenness of development between countries and thereby made significant pressure for the movement of labour across borders. Some of this movement takes the form of the classic "brain-drain" with relatively skilled workers migrating to developed economies (ILO, 2001). The global economy has seen an increase in the global mobility of highly skilled individuals including students, scientists, and engineers with economic, technological, and

cultural factors making mobility more affordable and less irreversible than in the past (OECD, 2016). Therefore, growth in international student numbers may also be connected to globalization forces that stimulate and facilitate cross-border mobility in trade and people (Czaika and de Haas, 2014). Liu and Wang (2008:14) posit that source countries are also more likely to encourage student to study abroad. And students themselves also want to be more competitive in the global economy, overseas study become a must for its future workforce (ibid). Additionally, Kritz (2021) points out the growing prevalence of international migration and mobility means that more people are exposed to information and networks that enable them to learn about educational opportunities in other countries and gain access to scholarships and people who can facilitate study abroad.

Globalization of the workforce and careers creates incentives for students to pursue all or part of their higher education abroad to gain global competencies that employers seek (Farrugia & Sanger, 2017). Lowell and Findlay conclude that “globalisation is linking together labour markets creating labour flows spanning global cities that are rooted in hierarchies of labour demand”.

2.3.3 International Recruitment Strategies and Migration Policies

International student education is a large, growing, and lucrative industry in many developed countries. According to Onk and Joseph (2017: 25), starting at the end of the 20th century, services marketing became the forefront topic in marketing and advertising studies. They averred that “universities and colleges specifically began testing, producing recruitment, and advertising campaigns to attract the most eligible applicants to their campuses”. (Mazzarol, 1998 :163) adds that “as the global market expanded, universities in the United States and the United Kingdom started recruiting international students. Countries with growing economies, like Japan, India, Australia, and China, also began intensely researching and developing methods to attract talented students from the international pool”. Even as “countries, companies and universities compete globally for human capital, skill selective policies are seen as pull factors that can draw highly skilled foreigners to the country or as positive welcoming messages” Toma and villares-Varela (2019:53).

Hawthorne (2008: 1) maintains that students not only help to maintain domestic institutions ‘competitiveness, but they also represent a valuable pool of skilled immigrants for governments wishing to recruit —tried and tested individuals

into their labour forces. Piquet and Riano (2016) also allude that universities in many countries take an entrepreneurial approach to higher education, and several use global strategies to attract international students in the interest of increasing revenue. Indeed, “over the last decades, numerous Western countries have adopted policies to attract highly skilled foreign professionals, in an effort to improve their innovation environments and competitiveness in the global economy” Ricci, Crivellaro and Bolzani (2021). To add on this, Marginson (2017) notes that “higher education institutions call for favourable migration policies to attract and retain international students and highly skilled migrants, who may otherwise turn to other, more welcoming destinations”.

Moreover, Onk and Joseph (2017) details that the “United States’ educational advertising focuses more on actions than on themes. Since most universities in the United States function on their own, even when government owned, they typically have free reign on how to recruit international students to their campuses”. A study done in Incarnate Word University, tried to determine which methods of international student recruitment were most effective when used by United States institutions. The researcher gathered the names of the top 40 U.S. universities in international recruitment, and then surveyed them on their top used recruitment and retaining methods (Özturgut, 2013, p. 5).

According to this survey, eight methods of recruitment were identified above all others: Providing academic support and utilizing campus resources, attending and participating in international recruitment fairs and events, partnering with other organizations in recruitment efforts, using passive marketing such as online web-based advertising or brochures, utilizing alumni in recruitment methods, utilizing recruitment agents, and word-of-mouth (Özturgut, 2013: 6). Further, they state that several governments view international students as valuable future skilled migrants and devise measures encouraging them to remain after completion of their studies. Then, students and their families recognize the labor-market value of obtaining foreign qualifications. Thus, for the destination countries, international students constitute a source of talent that can help spur economic growth (Docquier and Rapoport, 2012).

Countries therefore have an incentive to attract talented students, who are likely to stay and work in the host country once they have completed their studies (Rosenzweig, 2008). For example, developed countries have now put in place immigration policies to attract those with skills in certain labour fields (Rizvi, 2005:

176). Rizvi says that these policies do not only recruit skilled migrants directly through application of a range of preferential measures, but also indirectly through international education policies. Toma and Villares-Varela (2019:54) allude that “these migration policies generally aim at attracting highly skilled workers by easing restrictions to entry (in comparison with those applicable to low-skilled migrants) and granting more generous post-entry rights, but also at retaining foreign students by facilitating their study-to-work transition”. “Prior studies argue that these skill-selective policies have become more common in the last decades in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (Czaika and de Haas, 2013 cited in Toma and Villares-Varela 2019:54), with two-thirds of OECD nations having implemented them or currently doing so” (Artuc et al., 2015).

In fact, international education has now become a major channel for the movement of highly skilled workers. Many students view an investment in international education as “their ticket to migration” (Rizvi, 2005: 7). Gwaradzimba & Shumba (2010) stipulate that the west has various strategies intentionally designed to drain human talent from emerging or developing countries through the introduction of structural adjustment programmes (SAPs), international scholarships and the selective immigration policies adopted by these countries. While the demand for an international education has risen to an all-time high, the factors that drive student flows continue to shift. Valuing the global perspectives and talents brought by international cohorts, higher education stakeholders around the world are devising new incentives to draw students to their shores (Institute of International Migration, 2019).

Recently, the concept of comprehensive internationalization has also become intertwined with global rankings and the notion that to be “world-class” and globally competitive, institutions also need to have a student body and faculty drawn from all over the world (Bhandari, Robles and Farrugia, 2018:8). This has led to the aggressive adoption of an international recruitment agenda by some institutions regardless of whether or not it aligns with broader institutional goals. Yet another incentive for institutions to recruit international students is the economic benefit that such students provide to their institutions and the national economy of the host country.

In the United States, for instance, international students brought an estimated \$39.4 billion dollars into the economy in 2016, largely through living expenses and

tuition payments, which flow to the institutions (Bhandari et.al, 2018:8). Full fee-paying international students also help offset the high costs of a college education for domestic students (Shih, 2017). In fact, U.S. higher education is one of the country's top export industries. Other countries also see a large economic benefit, including Australia (\$24.7billion U.S.), Canada (\$15.5billion U.S.), and the UK (\$31.9 billion U.S.) (Global Affairs Canada, 2017; Maslen, 2018; Universities UK, 2017).

Facing the global knowledge economy and demographic change, international student receiving countries, such as Canada, the U.S and the UK, have been using visa and immigration policies as a tool to attract international students and retain the best. These countries have demonstrated their openness to an ever-larger number of international students by streamlining entry process, enhancing student experience, and promoting flexibility for status change (She and Wotherspoon, 2013). For example, in November 2016, Canada adjusted its immigration process to better retain international students in the workforce, by giving additional points to applicants for residency who hold job offers and whose degrees were obtained in the country (Hemmadi, 2016). To add on this, Canada addressed its commitment to a high skill economy and outlined the strategies to tackle the skill challenge in its Innovation Strategy (Industry Canada 2002) and economic plan b, where the government highlighted the measures to attract the best international students through financial incentives, branding campaigns and immigration programs. Since the mid-2000s, the government has launched a series of policy initiatives to expedite the processing of study permit applications and enhance access for foreign students to Canadian labour market during and after their study.

All three countries seek an overall control on immigration. Most explicitly, Canada's Post-Graduation Work Permit Program, the US's OPT program, and the UK's Post Study Work scheme set probationary periods to test international students' adaptation to the local labour market and to make sure that only those highly skilled who have succeeded in being integrated into the receiving society are able to eventually fulfil their intention to stay (She and Wotherspoon, 2013). Moreover, emerging destinations like China and Japan have recently stepped-up initiatives to attract global talent. In China, the cohort of 442,773 internationally mobile students hosted in 2015/16 are benefiting from new opportunities to undertake internships, smoother pathways to residency permits, and a variety of programs which enable graduates to stay in-country to work (Institute of Migration, 2018:4). Several cities —

including Beijing, Shanghai, and Shenzhen have put policies into place to address local skills gaps and create opportunities for international students in high-technology and e-commerce programs to transition easily into the workforce (Sharma, 2017).

Similarly in Japan, a large recruitment effort by the Japanese government and institutions in targeted regions offers both educational and employment opportunities to prospective students. Subsidized company internships, job search assistance, additional Japanese language courses, and a more streamlined process for work visas are among the incentives for both graduates and employers (ICEF: 2017).

2.3.4 Other Drivers of Migration

Besides the push and pull factors described earlier, some scholars have cited other reasons for deciding to study abroad which include poor facilities, lack of good quality of education, language, political instability, corruption, need to join family/relatives, sexual identity, improved communication, gender inequalities, climate pressure, limited career structures, poor intellectual stimulation, and lack of research funding.

Corruption has been identified as one of the drivers of international migration in recent studies. The literature surrounding migration and its causes identifies a lack of economic opportunities and a lack of security as two key drivers of legal and illegal migration (Sirkeci 2009; Poprawe 2015). There is ample evidence that corruption has an impact on economic opportunities and security, suggesting that it is an indirect driver of migration (Rothstein & Holmberg 2011; Lambsdorff 2005). According to Dimant et. al. (2013), “where corruption is rampant, jobs are granted not because of merit but because of political connections. This cronyism can lead to higher levels of unemployment and lower returns to human capital (for example, if vacancies are not filled and people with the right qualifications are not hired because they lack the relevant contacts). This in turn slows economic growth and acts as a push factor for emigration, especially for the skilled labor force”. This brain drain can trigger a vicious cycle for a country as the emigration of highly educated individuals further slows economic growth and slower growth encourages more emigration (Schneider, 2015).

Whealtland (2015) writes that many ways in which corruption can be said to be a driver of international migration exist. The desire to move abroad is often driven by a lack of faith in local opportunities”. Whealtland adds that if corruption and nepotism are perceived to undermine meritocracy, it is a plausible reaction to turn

towards opportunities elsewhere, especially among the highly skilled. Moreover, research into corruption and its effects as a driver of migration tends to identify a difference in the impact that corruption has on the migration of different societal groups. Highly skilled individuals who are better off and educated are more likely to migrate than those who are worse off in either area” (Wheatland, 2015:3).

A study conducted for 111 countries during 1985–2000 examined the influence of corruption on emigration by dividing migrants into two groups, skilled migrants, and average migrants. It finds that corruption acts as a push factor for emigration, particularly for skilled migrants, by eroding the quality of people’s working and living conditions and lowering the returns to education (Dimant et.al, 2013). Because highly educated workers demand higher pay for higher skills (skill premiums), corruption has three to four times the effect on skilled migrants as on average migrants (Schneider, 2015). To add on this, if the inequality generated by corruption leads to an increase in progressive tax rates, this could act as a disincentive for those with higher educational qualifications” (Dimant.et.al, 2013). Also, if jobs are granted based on political connections rather than merit, those with higher levels of educational attainment will lose motivation for work and may decide to emigrate to countries that are less corrupt (Cooray and Schneider, 2016).

Language is very important to those who decide to migrate internationally. “Previous literature has shown that both fluency in the language of the destination country or the ability to learn it quickly play a key role in the transfer of existing human capital to a foreign country and generally boost the immigrant’s success at the destination country’s labor market” (Fasih, 2018). Adsera and Pytlikova (2012) add that “better language proficiency means easier assimilation in the host country and greater returns to human capital as well as better job opportunities and job matches, among other things. In addition, language skills surely influence a number of non-economic outcomes such as social integration, the size of the migrant’s social network, his or her political participation and civic engagement, as well as educational attainment, health outcomes and family life”.

Recent studies also indicate that it is easier for a foreigner to acquire a language if her native language is linguistically closer to the language to be learned (Chiswick and Miller, 2005; Ishording and Otten, 2011). This may imply that “the ability to learn and speak a foreign language quickly might be an important factor in the potential migrants’ decision making. Besides, a “widely-spoken” native language in

the destination country can constitute a pull-factor in international migration” (Adsera and Pytlikova (2012). For example, In Africa, the main language of instruction used in most educational systems is English (Crystal, 2003; De Klerk, 2002; Lavoie, 2008 cited in Nyika, 2015) followed by French. In general, the former colonial language is the one used as the official language of instruction in the educational systems of African countries.

Furthermore, migration and education are decisions that are interconnected in many dimensions. According to Castelli, (2018), international migrants are often regarded as illiterate and poor people escaping poverty from remote rural areas. This stereotype is far from being true in most instances for both economic and forced migrants. Migrants in search of a better future usually have a more pronounced initiative, attitude, and boldness than the average person, with some skills and financial resources needed to plan and fund a long-distance journey as it is the case for international migration. Dustmann and Okatengo (2014) alludes that in most instances, they are more educated than their peers left behind in their origin country. Sometimes they are even more educated than their peers in the destination country (Fargues, 2018).

Moreover, Siar (2012 cited in Siar, 2013:3) conducted a qualitative study of Filipino expatriates in New Zealand and Australia revealed their motivations for migrating to these countries. The research participants— all of them highly skilled which included lawyers, medical doctors, academics, scientists in the physical and social sciences, and executives—indicated that although they appreciate the economic security that they enjoy in New Zealand or Australia, this has not been their sole motivation. Almost all of them mentioned professional and career advancement; better quality of life in terms of safety and security, social services, and work-life balance; and good opportunities for their family especially for the children as their main reasons for migrating. To add on this, Lorenzo et al. (2007) conducted a study and obtained from 48 focus groups of Filipino health workers, mostly women, some of whom also wish to leave the Philippines. Even though the survey is focused on nurses’ reasons, they are applicable to other occupations. The results also revealed that Filipino nurses are not just motivated by economic incentives but also by factors that may facilitate their professional and personal development such as the opportunity to improve their nursing skills, experience advanced technology, and chance to travel and learn from other cultures (Lorenzo et al. 2007).

Further, sometimes people migrate to join their families or relatives in the destination country, and this is defined as family migration. Migration Data Portal (2022) defines Family migration as “the migration of people who migrate due to new or established family ties, and it encompasses several sub-categories: reunification with a family member who migrated earlier (a person with subsidiary protection is also entitled to (re)unite with family members); family accompanying a principal migrant; marriage between an immigrant and a citizen; marriage between an immigrant and a foreigner living abroad; and international adoptions”. “Family migration is the main channel of migration to OECD countries. In 2015, more than 1.6 million migrants moved to OECD countries on the basis of residence permits for family migrants. Migration flows are typically decomposed into main categories of entry (labour, family, humanitarian, free movement, study, others) that correspond broadly to the main types of permits issued in OECD countries” (IOM, 2017:110).

Simpson (2017:4) noted that research consistently finds a strong, positive effect of migrant networks on predicting new migrant flows. That is, “migrants are often attracted to host countries with large populations of migrants (diasporas) from the same country of origin”. Simpson adds that “having a community of people who speak the same language and share the same culture leads to lower psychological costs associated with migration”. Networks may also reduce the economic costs of migration by helping migrants find employment and housing, as well as helping the migrant assimilate to their new location. Over time, as migrants assimilate to their new country, their reliance on the migrant community may decrease as they learn the host country’s culture and language, thereby reducing the net benefits created by the local migrant community (Simpson, 2014).

Moreover, environmental factors could exert substantially heterogeneous impacts on migration depending on the initial climatic and socio-economic conditions of the countries in question (Obokata et al. 2014; Berlemann and Steinhardt 2017). Many developing countries are predicted to be disproportionately affected by climate change due to their geography, agriculture-based economies, and lack of adaptive mechanisms (Beine and Parsons 2017). Particularly, climate change poses tremendous challenges to livelihoods based on agriculture around the world (Cattaneo and Peri 2015), and people seek out informal ways of coping including migration when formal mechanisms such as insurance and credit markets are ill-functioning or inaccessible (Lewin et al. 2012).

Conversely, “the impact of environmental factors may be marginal if people cannot afford to migrate or if there are alternative coping strategies available that would allow them to alleviate the adverse effects of environmental stressors” (Murakami, 2020). Additionally, Murakami, (2020) alludes that “migration is costly both financially and psychologically. “Studies have shown that people in the lowest income quantile do not necessarily migrate in the aftermath of natural disasters, as they lack the means to finance such migration.” While environmental stressors may increase incentives to migrate abroad, these may not materialize if individuals are credit constrained” (Murakami, 2020).

Finally, Safety. Siar (2013) notes that even though wages are an important factor affecting the decision of highly skilled people to move abroad, it is not always the most important factor. Evidence of this is also shown in a study of Vujicic et al. (2004) on the effect of wage differentials between a source country and a receiving country on the migration decisions of health professionals. Data were obtained from a synthesis report on the migration of health professionals in six African countries (Cameroon, Ghana, Senegal, South Africa, Uganda, Zimbabwe) published in 2003 by the World Health Organization Regional Office for Africa. A striking result is that while South Africa is much better off than the other African countries in the sample in terms of wages relative to the destination countries (United States, Canada, United Kingdom, Australia), the percentage of health professionals in South Africa who still wish to migrate is close to that of Ghana where the wage differential is much higher.

Siar (2013) also notes that the reason has not been well explored by the authors, but it may be connected to safety and security issues in South Africa particularly for the White South Africans after the end of the apartheid in the 1990s”. The study also shows violence and crime to be the second most-cited reason of South African health professionals for wanting to leave their home country, and this may be related to South Africa’s social and political climate in the post-apartheid years and how it has impacted White South Africans (Siar, 2013).

Similarly, forced or volunteer migration of LGBT people is not a new phenomenon. Several countries have a quite restrictive policy on sexual identity and LTGB people (lesbians, gay, transgender, and bisexual people) face psychological and even physical violence, forcing them to hide their sexual identity (Castelli, 2018). For example, Ushie, Izugbara and Wekesah (2020) claim that “in Africa, colonial-heritage laws have been applied to proscribe and criminalise same-sex relationships,

behaviours, and expressions. These laws stipulate penalties for same-sex relationships ranging from 10 years to life imprisonment and the death penalty (Ushie, Izugbara and Wekesah 2020). To add on this, “some countries, including Uganda, Nigeria, and Togo, have passed these kinds of punitive laws. Others, like South Africa, have reviewed their constitutions to permit homosexuality” (Ushie, Izugbara and Wekesah 2020). Nevertheless, mainstream public sentiment remains largely anti-homosexual and overshadows constitutionally guaranteed rights in Africa. Hence there are several instances of civil harassment, killing and mistreatment of people who identify as or are suspected to be lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT), among other varieties of sexual and gender minorities (Ushie, Izugbara and Wekesah 2020).

Hence, most LGBT people first experience internal migration, often leaving rural areas for more tolerant urban areas - the Great Gay Migration (Weston, 1995 cited in Houdart and Fagan, 2014). Houdart and Fagan (2014) stipulate that in countries where prejudice against sexual minority is high, some LGBT people migrate to neighboring countries sometimes only marginally safer and legally stable. Finally, more well-off sexual minorities migrate towards countries offering greater legal recognition and protection (Houdart and Fagan, 2014). Finally, Houdart and Fagan allude that “the conjunction of rapid advances in LGBT rights in many countries, and of a wave of backlash against anti-gay laws and policies in other countries could lead to increasing Pink migration throughout the next decade”. This would have consequences on the way transit and host countries ready themselves to welcome this unexpected and specific wave (Houdart and Fagan, 2014).

2.4 Global International Student Migration Trends and Patterns

The face of the global higher education sector has changed drastically, with students from emerging markets increasingly opting to pursue an education overseas. This megatrend has had a considerable impact, not just for source markets, but also for key destination countries (Laad and Sharma, 2021). Choudaha and Chang (2012) state that international student recruitment is becoming integral to the financial health of many higher education institutions worldwide, in addition to remaining an important means of attracting talent and expanding campus diversity. Indeed, student migration “is tending to increase with the expansion of trade and is part of the globalisation process: first, because language skills are increasingly essential for positions of

responsibility and skilled jobs; and second, because cultural experience acquired abroad is frequently viewed as an additional advantage by employers” (OECD, 2003:26).

Apart from the direct financial benefit that enrolment fees bring to institutions of higher education, foreign students constitute a potential reserve of highly skilled labour that is familiar with the rules and practices prevailing in the host country” (OECD, 2003:26). OECD (2003:27) adds that “a number of OECD countries, including Switzerland, Germany, and Australia, and more recently Canada, have relaxed the rules for foreign students wishing to change their visas in order to enter the labour market after completing their studies. In some OECD member countries, the number of foreign students is very high. This is especially true in the United States, but also in the United Kingdom and Germany, which respectively hosted 475 000, 223 000 and 187 000 foreign students in 2000, in all fields and at all levels of study combined”.

In 2017, 4.6 million international students were enrolled worldwide, three times the number in 1999 (OECD, 2017). Between 1998 and 2017, international student flows increased from 2 million to 5,3 million (OECD, 2019); African students in countries other than theirs are also growing in number (Efionayi & Piguet, 2014; Terrier, 2009). Before the world experienced the effect of Covid-19, international student mobility had already reached 5.6 million according to UNESCO and was on pace to reach more than 8 million students by 2025 (Böhm et al., 2004). Laad and Sharma (2021) noted that Anglophone countries alone enroll 2.5 million-3 million international students per year out of a total of 5 million students studying abroad. Therefore, more than half of these students were enrolled in educational programmes in six countries: the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Australia, France, Germany and the Russian Federation. Prominent sending countries of international students include China, India, Germany, Republic of Korea, Nigeria, France, Saudi Arabia and several Central Asian countries (UNESCO, 2019).

Nonetheless, English-speaking countries are among the largest hosts of international students, with the United States enrolling about one-quarter of all the world’s globally mobile students, more than double the number of international students enrolled in the UK, the next largest host (Project Atlas, 2017). Taken together, 50 per cent of the world’s international students enrol in five English speaking countries (United States, UK, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand) (Project Atlas, 2017). Traditional study destinations such as California, New York, Texas,

Massachusetts, Washington D.C., and Illinois continue to be the most popular destinations for international students in the U.S (Chang and Choudaha 2021:12). IIE Open Doors (2011) adds that, with more aggressive institutional outreach effort, states such as Delaware (+27%), Oregon (+19%), Arkansas (+18%), Alaska (+17%), and South Dakota (+15%) all saw impressive rates of growth from 2009-10 to 2010-11. The shift is driven by a new generation of international students who are considering a wider range of options, in addition to an increasing number of U.S. institutions that are proactively recruiting international students.

As the number of international students has grown over the last 20 years, the destinations of these students have shifted, reflecting increased global competition among countries that want to attract international students to their borders. In 2020, one in every five globally mobile students (or 20%) studied in the US (Project Atlas, 2020). The Middle East and North Africa (MENA) is the second largest sending region of international students to the United States after Asia, accounting for 9 percent of international students.

Saudi students in the United States have increased substantially over the past ten years. In 2006/07, fewer than 8,000 studied in the United States, rising to a peak of 61,287 in 2015/16 as large numbers received scholarships from the Saudi government to sponsor their U.S. studies (Institute of international migration (IIE), 2018:11). Kuwait is emerging as one of the MENA region's top senders of students overseas, with 21,930 of the country's students abroad in the 2016 reporting year (UNESCO, 2017c). The top destination is the United States, hosting 9,825 Kuwaiti students in 2016/17).

While the World Bank estimates that the highest numbers of skilled workers are from Europe, Southern and Eastern Asia, a large proportion with respect to its population of skilled individuals come from developing regions such as the Caribbean, Central America, and Africa (Africa times, 2015). According to IIE (2018:12), In 2018–2019 academic year, the number of students from sub-Saharan Africa enrolled in U.S. colleges was 40,290, with Nigeria, Ghana, and Kenya ranking first, second, and third, respectively. In 2014, there were 31,113 students from Sub-Saharan Africa, or 4 percent of the 886,052 international students in the country. The number of African students in the United States pursuing degree studies has shown an increase over the last twenty years. The total number of international students in the country

increased to over one million by the 2015/16 school year and peaked at 1,095,299 in 2018/19 (Oluwole, 2021 (Business insider Africa)).

To add on this, 2017 statistics report noted that there were 1 495 South Africans were studying in the United Kingdom, more than 2 000 were in the United States and about 2 600 were in China. France had 29 000 Moroccan students, followed by students from Algeria and Tunisia. There were more than 17 000 Nigerian students in the UK followed by students from Egypt and Kenya. In the US there were about 12 000 Nigerian students followed by students from Egypt and Kenya. And in China there were 6 500 Ghanaian students followed by students from Nigeria and Ethiopia.

According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS cited in Woldegiorgis and Doven speck, 2015:107), the trend of African students going out to other regions for higher education studies has been rising since the 1990s. Marshall (2013) alludes there were 380,376 African students on the move in 2010, representing about a tenth of all international students worldwide and 6% of all African students”). In terms of destination, most African students travel to France, UK, USA, China, Germany, Malaysia, Italy and Australia. Doherty and Evershed (2018) pointed out that international student flows to the UK and Australia have increased recently. However, only a few African migrants migrate to these countries; instead, most potential African migrants have expressed their willingness to migrate to Western countries and other African countries (Sanny, Logan, & Gyimah-Boadi, 2019). Regarding African students, most of them are willing to study in Europe and North America (Efionayi & Piguet, 2014). China is also an attractive destination to international students due to its recent rapid economic transformation (Cui, 2006).

Migration patterns also included an increasing number of Africans migrating to Europe as workers, students, or dependent family members. Indeed, even after gaining independence most countries in northern and Sub-Saharan Africa remained oriented towards the former colonial powers because of established economic relations, but also cultural and linguistic ties (European Commission, Joint Research Centre, 2018:7). European countries attracted (and continue to attract) considerable numbers of African students, many of whom did not return to their home countries after finishing their studies, but remained in Europe or moved on to Australia, Canada, or the United States (European Commission, Joint Research Centre, 2018:7).

This point is reinforced by Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2001) stating that some international students prefer to migrate to

former colonial powers because of their familiarity with the language and culture and other destinations are influenced by geographical proximity and having support networks in the host country to help with adjustment to the new life and with finding temporary employment. For example, every year, thousands of young Africans head overseas to study in Europe, the United States of America (USA) and Asia because of the limited access and lack of quality in higher education at home. After completion of their studies abroad, faced with the choice of myriad opportunities for professional and financial success or a return to recession, while some return, many opt to stay on. Further, other factors contributing to this impressive growth, include demographic trends, rising affordability and household incomes, poor quality of local education provision, improved accessibility of international education, premium salaries commanded by foreign graduates, and a greater desire to emigrate to Anglophone countries (Laad and Sharma, 2021).

Similarly, African Community of Practice (2016:4) asserts that the United States is the most popular destination for students from Sub-Saharan Africa. A report from the New York-based Institute of International Education concludes that ambitious African youth see the United States having better higher education and access to numerous scholarships for talented students. Tellingly, outside the African Continent, the United States is by far the most popular destination country for potential students from Sub-Saharan Africa, with high quality education being the main draw card.

Current trends suggest that student mobility has become multidirectional. Students from the East (and those from generally lower-income countries in what is often referred to as the “Global South”) are no longer only traveling to the West (and higher-income countries in the “Global North”). Instead, these students now also often travel to other countries in the East. Shinn (2008) alludes that Statistics on international students’ migration are often confusing and contradictory. Nevertheless, there is general agreement on the trend lines. Although there are significant changes on both sides of the value chain (supply and demand), the broader global student mobility trends will remain largely consistent. Most countries have implemented reforms aiming to lower the barriers to migration of highly skilled individuals, beyond education purposes, and most countries operate funding programmes to support inward, outward, or return mobility (OECD Library, 2021).

2.5 Experiences of Migrants at their Place of Destination

According to the OECD (2014), migrants represent 22% of entries into growing occupations in the United States and 15% in Europe, particularly in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) and healthcare sectors. This global “race for talent” (Frank et al. 2004 cited in Ricci et.al., 2021), however, presents critical issues that make many countries unable to fully leverage on the skills of talented foreign human capital (e.g., Beckhusen et al. 2013; Tesfai 2017). The result is that substantial numbers of highly skilled migrants face “brain waste”, deskilling, and adverse outcomes on the labor market (Ricci et.al.,2021 Many traditional immigration countries such as United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand give preference to people with higher education, skills, and professional training that they can transfer to their countries (Siar, 2013).

However, “although the education and skills of highly skilled migrants are recognized at the time of entry, it is not uncommon for them to experience ‘deskilling’ or to be deployed to positions much lower than their education, training, or experience, when they start to participate in the domestic labor market” (Siar, 2013). Mosogu (2020, 12) alludes that most experienced professionals who immigrate to the United States for instance, often begin their careers as unskilled workers, it takes them about ten years before they become skilled workers in the United States. Furthermore, it was also proven to be the case that the employment of highly skilled African immigrants was positively correlated to their years of residence in the United States. When African immigrants move to the U.S, they are “penalized rather than rewarded for educational attainment” (Thomas and Tesfai, 2019: 1).

Mosogu (2020: 12) explains that “this can be attributed to the fact that most of their educational credentials do not cross over when they migrate. Hence, there is a need to start afresh when it comes to the types of jobs that they can get”. Further, Andemariun (2007) stresses the challenges faced by skilled African immigrants during the job search. Andemariun notes that the lack of recognition of their credentials and experiences in the workplace results in them seeking non-traditional kinds of work such as opening their own small businesses either in the United States or abroad. Furthermore, he notes that companies might be hesitant to hire workers due to the fear of these employees might not be “unfamiliar with American business norms”. Bauder (2003) posits that “from a human rights perspective, deskilling is a form of brain abuse. Siar (2013) adds that “deskilling not only results in economic losses for

migrants, but also in psychological and health problems”. Affected migrants suffer when they are not reaping the full rewards of their human capital”.

Concerning wage discrimination, studies indicate that migrant workers often receive lower wages than native workers for the same kind of work, even if differences in education levels are taken into account (Zanker-Hagen, 2015). In support of the above views, Amo-Agyei (2020) state that The Report on the Migrant Pay Gap: Understanding wage differences between migrants and nationals – analyses wage data of 49 countries that are available the latest year prior to the COVID 19 crisis. Amo-Agyei (2020) writes that “it shows evidence on how dire the situation actually is with regard to pay – so vital to the daily life of workers and their families”. The report finds that in the years before the pandemic wage inequalities between migrant workers and nationals were of very high levels in many countries and widening in some. International Labour Organization (ILO) report (2020) reveals that “migrants earn nearly 13 per cent on average less than national workers in high-income countries”. For example, “in some countries such as Cyprus, Italy, and Austria the pay gap in hourly wages is higher, at 42 per cent, 30 per cent and 25 per cent respectively.

In Finland, it is lower than the average, at 11 per cent and in the European Union is almost 9 per cent (ILO, 2020). ILO further alludes, the migrant pay gap that in the last five years has widened in some high-income countries. In Italy for example, migrant workers earn 30 per cent less than nationals according to the latest data, compared to 27 per cent in 2015”. In Portugal, the pay gap is 29 per cent compared to 25 per cent in 2015, and in Ireland 21 per cent compared to 19 per cent in 2015 (ILO, 2020).

Van Tubergen (2006) claims that immigrants have higher unemployment rates than natives”, and this limits both their earnings and their social integration into networks of native colleagues, thus seriously jeopardizing their chances for upward social mobility” (Fleischmann & Dronkers, 2010:338). Previous literature has “provided evidence about the barriers that may hinder employability and success on the labor market for highly skilled migrants” (Ricci et.al., 2021). Friedberg (2000) explain that the most common problems are the lack of portability of migrants’ human capital, the discrepancy between migrants’ skills and local needs (Chiswick and Miller, 2009), the difficulty to access information and support (e.g., Riaño, 2011), specific labor policies and practices, stereotypes, and prejudices (Al Ariss 2010), the discrimination against

certain groups (Zschirnt, Ruedin and Didier, 2016) or the juridical status of migrants in the receiving country (e.g., Lowell and Avato, 2014).

On the contrary, in 2018, immigrants accounted for 17 percent of all civilian employed workers. However, they represented much higher shares of workers in occupations that typically require a college degree, including 45 percent of software developers, 42 percent of physical scientists, and 29 percent of physicians” (Batalova and Olsen- Medina 2020) This means that Unemployment rates in general were very low in 2018. Batalova and Olsen- Medina (2020) add that “college-educated immigrant workers are more likely than their native-born counterparts to be in high-tech, science, and engineering occupations”. Migration Policy Institute further states that “in 2018, 12 percent of college-educated immigrants were employed in computer and mathematics occupations versus 5 percent of their U.S.-born counterparts”.

The top five occupational groups for immigrant college graduates were management (15 percent), computer and mathematical occupations (12 percent), health practitioners and technicians (12 percent), business and financial operations (10 percent), and education and related occupations (9 percent). For U.S.-born college graduates, the top five occupation groups were management (17 percent), education and related occupations (14 percent), business and financial operations (11 percent), health practitioners and technicians (10 percent), and sales and related occupations (8 percent) (Batalova and Olsen- Medina 2020).

Moreover, in “Immigrating to North America: The Kenyan Immigrant’s Experience”, Kabuiku notes that African immigrants experience acculturative stress when it comes to being able to integrate successfully into a host’s community (Kabuiku, 2017). African immigrant professionals face high-level expectations in both their professional and personal lives. This stems from the workplace demands (some of which, they might not be accustomed to) as well as external pressures such as familial commitments, material possessions, and social status (Kabuiku, 2017). The ability to effectively integrate into a new work community is predetermined on the activities that are pursued to make the African immigrant feel at home (Kabuiku, 2017). Furthermore, Van Horne, Lin, Anson, and Jacobson (2018), revealed that students in the United States consistently reported lower levels of social satisfaction and feelings of being welcome.

Furthermore, Lee (2015) identified many examples of racial discrimination in the United States. The author noted that most of the students from Asia, Africa, Latin

America, and the Middle East experienced at least some discrimination, whereas none of the students from Europe, Canada, or Australia experienced any discrimination. Lee (2015) labeled this discriminatory experience as neo-racism or “new racism” on the basis of culture and national order. Further, “some studies such as the one conducted by have identified that in certain developed countries executives are allegedly more racist when recruiting staff than their counterparts in some other countries” (ILO, 2001). For example, in one European study, 28% of (non-European Union) foreigners between the ages of 25 and 49 are unable to find work, the rates being as high as 35% for Turks and Pakistanis and 60% for recent immigrant groups such as the Somalis.” (European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (1999).

2.6 Summary

The chapter has provided tremendous insights of the literature that is related to brain drain as a result of studying abroad. Understanding the history of education prior and post colonization in Africa and the exodus of international migration out of the continent was very important to highlight to understand the determinants that influenced the decision of migrants specifically from Africa and other developing countries to migrate to developed countries. These determinants of migration consisted of push and pull factors, globalisation, and recruitment migration strategies such as immigration policies used by western countries to attract potential migrants to their countries. This chapter also covered the trends and patterns of global international student migration that captures the statistics and their choice of destinations.

CHAPTER 3

BRAIN DRAIN, POLICIES AND PREVENTION MEASURES AND STRATEGIES

3.0 Introduction

A no return of highly skilled professionals has been a major concern for developing economies for an extended period since it is believed it will result in brain-drain. The consequences of brain drain have been vigorously studied and debated by migration scholars from the 1960 onward. In this chapter, brain drain of highly skilled professionals will be discussed and analysed, evaluating positive and negative impacts resulting from brain drain. Finally, this chapter will explore strategies and policies that can be implemented to curb/alleviate the brain drain in developing countries.

3.1 International Education and Brain Drain

In recent years, the topic of brain drain has become an unavoidable topic among policy analysts. The term was first used by the British Royal Society and related to the exodus of scientists from Great Britain to the United States and Canada during the 1950s and 1960s (Cervantes and Guellec, 2002) but today, the term “brain drain” designates the international transfer of resources in the form of human capital and mainly applies to the migration of relatively highly educated individuals from developing to developed countries (Docquier and Rappoport, 2006: 2). Docquier and Rappoport add that in the non-academic literature, the term is generally used in a narrower sense and relates more specifically to the migration of engineers, physicians, scientists, and other very highly skilled professionals with university training.

Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2010: 211) note that the term “brain drain” is often used interchangeably with such terms as “human capital flight” (Sako 2002: 5); “quality migration” (Todisco et al 2003 24); “skilled international migration” (Findlay 1996: 3); “intellectual migration” and “skilled international labour circulation” (Zezeza 1998: 21); “professional transient” (Appleyard 1991: 2); “brain mobility” and “migration of expertise”, and “reverse transfer of technology” (Dowty 1986: 157). Other usages recently emerging from third-world scholars include “intellectual colonization” (Oduor 1994: 1); “intellectual desertification” and “brain hemorrhaging” (Sankore 2005: 9). In

a nutshell, brain drain refers to a permanent loss of highly skilled workers or students.

The brain-drain term is without controversies and there are scholars such as Hart (2006) who prefers to use the term “High Skill Migration” as opposed to “Brain Drain.” According to Hart, High Skill Migration (HSM) is the migration of persons with increased levels of skill and education who, if they stayed could contribute significantly to the development of the country. According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in Freitas, Levatino, & Pécoud (2012: 1), ‘highly skilled’ people are those who already completed tertiary education, which in most countries corresponds to a university degree.

The students also considered as skilled migrants because it assumes that student represents a potential human source for the sending country (home country). Smaller, less developed, and poorer countries are most likely to experience this flight of human capital (Johnson (2008; 2). For example, many of the High Skilled Migrants going to the U.S. are not from countries affiliated with the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). The National Science Foundation averred that, approximately 70% of the U.S. science and engineering workforce are from non-OECD developing countries (Hart, 2006). The countries in the global North that benefit the most from the “Brain Drain” do not have a problem acknowledging that it exists, but they do very little to correct it (Hart, 2006).

As debates on migration of a no return of African students from abroad continue, the central key question asked is whether brain drain has a positive or negative impact on developing countries. As stated earlier, brain drain has been the subject of highly controversial debates with three distinctive schools of thought. One examines it from the perspective of highly detrimental effects on the developing countries arising from the loss of their brightest minds, and a second argues that the problem is overdramatized and draws attention to the beneficial consequences of the migration for countries losing their professionals (Ohdiambo, 2013:511). Among several arguments advanced by proponents of this second school of thought is that individuals who left their countries for better lifestyles abroad are now reversing the brain drain and transforming it into ‘brain circulation’ since a cycle of study and work abroad may be followed by a return to the home country.

Their argument is that the migrants return home to establish business relations while still maintaining their social and professional lives with the foreign

countries (Saxenian, 2005). Some have also argued that remittances obtained from the Diaspora constitute a source of funds for development and hence the positive impacts of brain drain. As Woldetensae (2007) clearly puts it, while the importance of remittances for African countries is not disputed, it does not substitute the adverse effects of the outflow of skilled personnel and brain drain. The third school of thought argue that it neither benefits the receiving nor the sending countries as many professionals who live in developed countries find themselves in poorly paid jobs that have no relevance to their training or academic achievements and in the long run lose their competencies and are unable to make any contributions. For Africa, the phenomenon has resulted in a major development constraint in the sense that the educational level of individuals that are leaving the continent to other parts of the world is high and many of these people subsequently do not return to their home country afterwards (Sako, 2002).

Rizvi, (2005) elucidates that the issue of the impact of brain drain is very complex and has been hotly debated and so are questions of how policy makers should address the problem. Africa in general and sub-Saharan Africa, in particular, is experiencing an exodus of highly trained, qualified, and competent human resources to other developed countries – threatening the overall development, thereby impeding service delivery on the continent. This phenomenon is signifying the large-scale emigration of educated, skilled and qualified individuals from developing countries to developed countries due to reasons such as improved opportunities and facilities, conflicts, health-related hazards, or other reasons (Kana, 2010; Baruch et al., 2007). Because of brain drain, numerous African countries have been left without the critical skills pertinent to addressing their ever-growing socio-economic development challenges (Ehrhart et al. 2014). Several African countries are currently losing skilled academics, engineers, scientists, medical doctors, nurses, accountants, among other skills, to developed countries that can offer lucrative compensations. This implies that Africa is losing critical skillsets that negatively impact the continent's socio-economic development and growth aspirations (ibid).

Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2010) also assert that the movement of highly skilled people from one country to another is currently a hotly debated issue among policymakers because the brain drain is not an exclusively an African problem; it is a global phenomenon. To some extent, every country in the world loses highly educated and skilled individuals to other countries. However, its magnitude, direction and

causes differ from one country to another (Sako, 2002). In the African continent, countries like Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, and South Africa are affected by brain drain (Olumide and Ukpere, 2012: 2422). Oduba (2000) posits that, about 80% of Indian computer programmers migrate to the USA, depriving the Indian economy about US\$ 2 billion a year in innovations. China, Haiti, Portugal, just to mention a few, in the other continents is also affected (Olumide and Ukpere, 2012: 2423). For example, since the last 30 years, Asia has also been facing a huge brain drain of professionals, executives, technicians, and other highly skilled personnel to well-paid jobs in developed countries. Additionally, Latin America and the Caribbean where almost 80 percent of college graduates from Haiti, Belize, Grenada, and Guyana are currently living in the USA. Moreover, approximately 30 percent of the labour force from El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama works in the USA (Ozden, 2006). Furthermore, in 2015, in an open letter in *Le Monde*, the heads of 10 successful French start-ups pleaded with Silicon Valley expatriates to return to a revived Paris full of new opportunities. China is another country from which hundreds of thousands of educated professionals have left for education and work experience (African community of Practice 2016:2).

Nonetheless, the negative consequences/impacts of brain drain appear to outweigh the positive ones (Benedict & Ukpere, 2012; Gibson & McKenzie, 2010). It is argued that the loss of qualified and competent professionals to developed countries had a widespread impact on the economic, political, social, demographic, technological and scientific progress of Africa leading to a widening gap in the contribution of Africa to the livelihood of the society that produced those professionals. This phenomenon has a damaging effect on the sustainability and global competitiveness of African universities (Mutula, 2009) and this will be shown in later on in the discussion.

3.2 Brain Drain in Kenya, Nigeria, and South Africa

The brain-drain from developing countries has been lamented for many years but knowledge of the empirical magnitude of the phenomenon is scant owing to the lack of systematic data sources (William and Detragiache, 1998). Nigeria, Kenya, and South Africa are the top three sub-Saharan African nations, and yet intellectuals from these nations frequently immigrate to western nations (Rukema 2021:22). However, it should be kept in mind that not all African nations experience a large brain drain.

Congruent with Nwaogu and Ryan (2015:112), Rwanda is one of those countries because it retains its best and brightest while luring in talent from abroad. World Migration Report's investigation in this area revealed that Rwanda is at the top of the list of African nations able to retain its top ability, some way ahead of Morocco, Kenya, the Ivory Coast, and South Africa (WMR, 2021). In a similar vein, Rwanda once more tops the list of top international tourist destinations, beating out Seychelles, Ivory Coast, The Gambia, and Mauritius. With an emphasis on Kenya, Nigeria, and South Africa, the preceding discussion will be about brain drain in these 3 regions.

Kenya

Along with other African Sub-Saharan nations, Kenya has seen a rapid influx of educated individuals leaving for the industrialized world. This has caused both a brain-drain and a brain waste situation in the nation. According to Gwaradzimba and Shumba's (2018) research, brain drain has had substantial repercussions in Kenya. Kirigia et al. (2016) list the high cost of living in Kenya as one of the factors contributing to the country's brain drain. According to Mwangi and Mwenda (2015), Kenya and Africa as a whole frequently lament their failure to retain intellectuals since they are more readily drawn to other nations.

This has caused many of Kenya's top writers, political activists, physicians, and other professions to leave the country in search of better opportunities elsewhere. According to Odhiambo (2013:500), one of the main causes of this flight continues to be the manner and environment in which parents nurture their children. In other words, most parents express their desire for their children to live overseas to their children. This is a tricky issue because many Black people believe they cannot succeed without mentioning a white man (Rukema:6). Chanda and Sreenivasan (2016:222) criticize parents who praise their kids by saying they did it "like a mzungu" or "like a mzungu." Children learn that living in nations with a majority of white people means having a prosperous and happy life as they grow up in this context. Thus, this situation causes brain drain in Kenya, which also poses a threat to the nation.

Another important factor contributing to brain drain in Kenya is political unrest. This is due to the fact that the majority of educated people have left the country due to previous political instability. According to Black and Castaldo (2019:49), the unfavorable political climate has forced writers like Ngugi Wa Thiong'o and political activists like Koigi to leave the nation. Many Kenyans migrate to safer countries around

the world for safety reasons, including organized gangs, post-election violence, and general insecurity. This is also the case for educated people. The high unemployment rate is another reason educated people leave Kenya. According to Alabi (2015:127), Kenya's high unemployment rates have prompted many young people to drop out of college, with only a small number of them finding jobs locally. The majority of these individuals choose to pursue employment and even higher education outside of Kenya.

Despite Kenya's long-term economic progress, several authors have said that the country's poor economy drives a lot of its educated citizens abroad (Crush & Fayne, 2019). In truth, Kenya continues to have high living expenses, low living standards, high taxes, and interest rates, as well as lesser earnings, making it difficult for someone to establish himself locally (Odhiambo, 2013:513). Many educated Kenyans feel squeezed when poverty, corruption, and bureaucracy collide. Since these issues are deeply ingrained in communities and seem to discourage sincere effort toward achievement in life, whereby undeserving individuals are rewarded while those who meet required standards look on, this is true in job allotments and tenders, these issues seem to be factors that cause people to leave the country (Kirigia et al., 2016:89). Therefore, the majority of educated people will choose to travel overseas in search of level playing fields.

In Kenya, there is also a brain drain because of unfavorable working conditions. Despite this, people frequently travel abroad with the expectation that the working conditions will be superior to those in their home country. This is due to the government's failure to keep its commitment to raise workers' salaries. According to Kirigia et al. (2021), you might discover that the government rarely upholds its end of pay augmentation agreements. Most educated people are thus compelled to relocate to other nations where conditions are better. When wages are low, many educated workers will leave their positions in search of ones where they can make more money. According to Uwaifo (2011:114), the low wage in Kenya drives many workers abroad in search of better income depending on their qualifications. They become dissuaded from working locally and instead decide to travel abroad in pursuit of better opportunities. Demystifying the brain drain in Kenya therefore seems crucial. Kirigia et al. (2021:89) underscores that the brain is a vital organ that is frequently mentioned in relation to memory, intellect, knowledge, and skills. Thus, when discussing the transfer of talented and skilled citizens, brain drain is a common topic of discussion.

Kenya has seen an increase in incidences of educated individuals in critical STEM fields leaving the nation for employment or research overseas (Kaplan & Thomas, 2018; Rapoport, 2016). Such human capital movements are simply viewed as a loss without a changed governance perspective (Arnold (2011:351). One distinguishing characteristic is that the median age of these skilled emigrants is substantially lower than that of the destination countries. While the median age is barely 20 in Kenya and other parts of Africa, it is 40 or more in the more desirable wealthy economies of Europe, North America, and Japan (Gwaradzimba & Shumba, 2018). Africa's demographic trajectory, in contrast to these economies, is still anticipated to favor sustained annual population growth rates of roughly 2% with a youthful majority, well beyond the year 2050. (UN, 2019).

Therefore, a continuation of these migrations is expected. As a result of this uncomfortable reality, Batista et al. (2017:42) advise Kenya and other African nations to look for creative adaption techniques in the spirit of a hyperconnected global village. In a word, fresh thinking is required to benefit mutually from cross-border collaboration and the leveraging of regional capabilities. Crush and Fayne (2019) contend that by enabling digital platforms, regulations, and practices for interactive real-time trading, this cooperative paradigm can only get stronger. However, among educated Kenyans, there is a tendency to deconstruct legacy thinking. Odhiambo (2013:515) confirms that many governments view updating legacy systems as the initial point of action to benefit the most from the Digital Transformation. This claim makes the case that legacy mindset impedes change more than legacy systems do. Legacy thinking is territorial, linear, and limited since it considers specialists who relocate abroad to be a brain drain considering distance. According to Eise and Foster (2018) in a related context, educated people have emancipated thinking that is non-linear, borderless, dynamic, and systemic. In other words, educated people think openly.

This demonstrates how thinking outside the box can capitalize on the benefits of the digital revolution by putting in place enabling policies, incentives, and requirements to connect with and draw on the diaspora's vast experience and benefits from global exposure. Ikenwilo (2017) contends that the remittances in the GDP matrix cannot adequately represent the vast potential present in the diaspora. Wocke and Klein (2020) suggest that educated people and specialists alike adopt a new mindset of global citizenship to stay relevant and competent. This implies that educated people must work hard in their profession to be globally exposed and

competitive. Uwaifo (2011:116) adds that IT-driven data analysis and data management technologies, including programming algorithms, mathematical modeling, and many facets of software engineering, should be among the unifying aims of advanced scholarship and specialized training.

Additionally, Kirigia et al. (2021:89) acknowledge that Kenya offers investment prospects, a resource bank of varied human and natural capital only waiting for the right framework conditions and long-term partnerships to blossom. This demonstrates, in Shaw's opinion (2020), how Kenya is home to a sizable and highly skilled diaspora, including the person responsible for the UK's intricate transportation planning project. The free environment of borderless online democracy allows for win-win interactions with the diaspora, but territorial legacy thinking restricts states to blaming brain drain. Additionally, Nwajiuba et al. (2017) add that in the near future, 5G and cooperative telepresence would increase prospects for Kenyans with higher education because their thoughts will be freed from national boundaries. Finally, Dzvimbo (2020) urges African political leaders to diversify their perspectives in order to increase knowledgeable influence. This necessitates policy adjustments that take advantage of the digital revolution to access the wealth of mentorship opportunities and transferrable skills present in the diaspora, despite physical isolation.

Nigeria

Nigeria, a nation in western Africa, is a symbol of regional progress. But the country experiences constant, horrifying insecurity, which is one of the main causes of the exodus of many educated Nigerians (Rukema 2021:8). Such circumstances have sparked a crisis of kidnapping for ransom, with offenders amassing millions of cash over time (Adebusoye, 2020). Since the late 1980s through the early 1990s, there has been a flood of middle-class and highly educated Nigerians leaving the country (Adam & Page, 2015). Due to the development of visa programs to cover labour deficits in industrialized countries, this trend that was previously only applicable to particular occupations is now open to everybody (Beine et al., 2019).

Following a time of economic growth in the 1970s and 1980s fueled by the discovery of oil wells in Nigeria, this was brought on by an economic downturn (Docquier et al., 2009:300). By the middle of the 1980s, medical professors began to emigrate to the West and the Middle East, and the students they taught also left for postgraduate study in the West (de Haas, 2005). In line with Wocke and Klein (2020),

the economic slump of the late 1980s led workers, notably in the healthcare industry, to scramble for better opportunities.

In addition, the United Nations acknowledges that there are other problems, including a high unemployment rate, a weak health sector, a low standard of living, and few to no work possibilities (UN, 2006). Regarding unemployment, the author illustrates how difficult it is to find employment in the nation, which makes educated people pessimistic about leading fulfilling lives there. Ratha et al. (2021) point out that the majority of Nigerian graduates are forced to fight for the few career opportunities that are available, with the majority getting employed through corruption or connections. Abedian (2011) discovered that educated Nigerians consider leaving the country and moving to Canada if that is where they have always wanted to go. If they did not, they would not have this intention of moving back, which is a belief that 90% of educated Nigerians, if not all of them, share. Such pessimistic views are reinforced by the fact that young, educated Nigerians have the most negative perceptions of the way their country is progressing in the entire continent, with 95% of them believing that things are not going well and only 28% of them feeling optimistic (Burns & Mohapatra, 2018). (Adepoju, 2018).

If the world does not wake up and invest in Africa, young, educated people will always look for a better life overseas, which can prevent educated young Africans from feeling that they must leave their native nations in order to pursue their goals. According to Black and Castaldo (2019:49), when young educated people leave their country in search of a better life, they do not just contribute to a brain drain. In fact, this has become ingrained in the brains of many educated young Nigerians, who believe that the only way to improve their lives is to leave their nation and move abroad. This circumstance, according to Russel et al. (2010), demonstrates how so many educated young Africans desire migrating overseas even though their immigration could result in a serious disaster.

However, because they view it as the Holy Grail, many educated young Nigerians craving to immigrate to South Africa as well as to Europe and the US. According to the World Migration Report, Nigerians who are already living in South Africa want to go to the US or Europe as well (WMR, 2021). Furthermore, educated young Africans will account for up to 42% of all young people in the globe by 2030, showing that it is in everyone's best interests to keep these young people educated so they can contribute positively to Africa (Sanders et al., 2020; UN, 2006).

In fact, moving abroad may seem appealing, but nothing is promising there, in the opinion of some Nigerians who believe they can resolve their home issues and instill a love of their nation in the future generation. Therefore, challenging the justification for going overseas can assist individuals in realizing that they are promoting the advancement of one nation at the price of their own (Rogers, 2016; Shinn, 2018).

A significant brain drain has occurred in the Nigerian health industry. Tebeje (2005) reports that medical professionals have cited local poor working conditions and low pay as reasons for emigration to countries with better working circumstances, pay, prospects for career advancement, and an all-around enhanced quality of life. Shaw (2020) also highlights the periodic strikes that have resulted from a lack of healthcare resources and inadequate funding for the health sector, citing these as contributing contributors to Nigeria's brain drain. However, the World Development Report stated that only 3.6% of Nigeria's yearly budget of N8.8 trillion was set aside for healthcare in 2019. (WDR, 2020). According to research done in the Nigerian health sector in 2017, 88% of doctors were investigating employment options abroad (Adepoju, 2021:37), which means that on average, 12 doctors move to the UK every week (Adam & Page, 2015).

Additionally, Black and Castaldo (2019:45) discovered that push factors, such as the desire for a better life, which was cited as the primary motivation for looking for greener pastures, also existed. Better job conditions were regarded as a very significant reason for relocation, too Abella (2016:12). Nigeria's poor economic performance, lack of security for people and their property, and the country's bad leadership continue to be the key reasons why Nigerians emigrate to Canada recently. Immigration laws have been introduced within a context that supports the environment. These act as compelling draws for the highly educated and competent Nigerians (Bhagwati, 1976:691).

However, throughout the 1970s and 1980s, there was a brain drain from the Nigerian education sector. The United Nations claims that this happened because of the nation's economic growth brought on by the finding of oil wells (UN, 2006). In other words, given the migration of teachers and lecturers from Ghana and India into public secondary schools and colleges, Nigeria became a destination for economic migrants. The government's imposition of austerity measures led to a decrease in financing for the education sector. According to Beine et al. (2019), this situation has resulted in

massive student protests, a mass departure of expats, and a net export of educated and skilled professionals from Nigeria.

Adepoju (2021:27) added that ineffective leadership is a further element that has contributed to brain drain. Similarly, Nigerian students are interested in visiting developed countries when they finish their studies. Adepoju (2018) listed several additional reasons that contribute to brain drain in Nigeria, including widespread unemployment, low wages, terrible working conditions, widespread poverty, political, religious, and communal unrest, and a lack of high-quality education. Additionally, Adebusoje (2020) supports the idea that Nigeria's brain drain extends beyond educated individuals to include the entertainment sector, whose creative minds have emigrated to other countries.

When we consider all of the aforementioned elements, we discover that the growth of Nigeria is significantly impacted by the migration of educated individuals to western nations. Medical schools and residency training facilities are supported by the Nigerian government, which, according to Doulo (2004:14), demonstrates how an investment can benefit the host nation. Abella (2016:24) cites the Mo Ibrahim Foundation's estimate that it would cost an African nation between \$21,000 and \$51,000 to train just one doctor to highlight this situation. One of these nations, Nigeria, has lost more than \$2 billion since 2010 as a result of training doctors who later emigrate (Johnson, 2005:2). 10% of medical physicians in some countries, like the UK, are from African countries; by hiring these doctors, the government saves roughly \$2.7 billion (Meyer & Brown, 1999).

Additionally, Mwajiuba et al. (2017) reveal that more than half of the medical professionals listed with the Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria (MDCN) work outside of the country. In addition to the UK, nations like the USA, Canada, Australia, and South Africa also woo Nigerian talent, with Saudi Arabia conducting recruitment drives there (Onsando, 2017). All of this suggests that the migration of educated people into the field of practicing physicians will jeopardize the growth of future human resources for health (Dia, 2019). Due to a lack of medical specialists, a small number of Nigerians travel abroad for treatment each year and spend billions of Naira (Ikenwilo, 2017; Mahroun et al., 2016).

Despite this, Nigeria has one of the poorest health rankings among African nations. According to Rogers (2016: ix), the nation has the second-highest rate of HIV-positive individuals and the greatest rate of malaria-related fatalities. Despite a steady

drop in maternal death rates since 1990, Nigeria still trails behind other countries in this area (Abedian, 2011). The loss of human capital assets, lost revenue from the tax revenue lost due to emigration of labor, and lost capital spent in the subsidised public education of emigrated labor are other repercussions of educated brain drain that have been highlighted (Ratha et al., 2021; Rogerson, 2018).

South Africa

South Africa is not an exception to the international transfer of educated people's human capital resources, which is referred to as "brain drain." South Africa is a young democracy that has seen some of its highly educated residents leave for more established and prosperous nations. More and more educated and competent residents are boarding planes and moving abroad despite the hefty expense of emigration, especially if your family is accompanying them, leaving South Africa with a deficit (Crush & Fayne, 2019). Dzvimbo (2020) reports that as of October 2020, the country had experienced a 70% increase in brain drain in inquiries about the relocation process during the preceding two years, with a focus on New Zealand, Australia, and the UK.

This is problematic for a number of reasons, not the least of which being that South Africa has to retain those with specialized skills in order to maintain its competitiveness on a global scale throughout the fourth industrial revolution. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the number of educated people leaving each year may be larger than the stated figure of 23 000, even though there isn't enough hard data to definitively determine the entire extent of educated emigrants (Dzvimbo, 2020). Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2018) claim that the majority of educated South Africans are fleeing their nation for political and social reasons rather than economic ones, citing load shedding, safety concerns, and security as some of the main causes. According to Kaplan and Thomas (2018), who take a different tack on the issue, the majority of qualified and experienced people who abandon ship are in their 30s and 40s and do so with the intention of advancing their education and finding better employment either in the country they are currently living in or once they return home.

A declining tax base, which is significantly supported by the middle to upper classes, the group from which the majority of fleeing South Africans are drawn, is one of the brain drain's most worrying repercussions on the nation. Only a small number of South Africans, according to Jean du Toit, head of tax technical at Tax Consulting

SA, "pay to the tax pool" (Dzvimbo, 2020). In support of this, Kaplan and Thomas (2018) acknowledge that between 2017 and June 2020, this population segment decreased from 6 million to 2,7 million, representing a 55,73% decrease. According to research by Ratha et al. (2021), the middle class and above are responsible for paying almost 90% of the income tax that individuals are required to pay under the 2020 budget review. This demonstrates to World Migration Report how the nation's personal income tax base appears to have more or less decreased by halves, and it is likely that a significant portion of that decline took place after February 2020. (WMR, 2021).

3.3 Impacts of Brain Drain: Expected Positive and Negative Effects of Brain Drain on Sending Countries

3.3.1 Loss of the "Best and Brightest" and Low Quality of Services

Another palpable consequence of brain drain is the shortage of qualified and essential manpower in the critical sectors such as education, health, science, technology, and business. Srivastava (2021) writes that "talented people are born, raised, and educated in their country, and when it comes time to work and give back what they were provided, they leave". For instance, developed countries more often than not select out the best Africa has to give in terms of socio-economic and educational background. Even though it has not been empirically proven, there is a general belief that brain drain tends to pull the "best and the brightest" from their home countries, the very people most equipped to help improve living conditions at home. Adepoju, van Naerssen, & Zoomers (2008 cited in Boyo, 2013: 45) explain that the process of recruitment through the immigration system in the West is highly selective. They also note that in general, "migrants are a selected population compared to the non-migrant populations of their societies of origin: they are healthier, better-educated, more enterprising, with sufficient funds to defray the costs of travel". In other words, western countries are literally selecting out the best and brightest Africa has to offer in terms of educational and socio-economic background.

Bhagwati and Hamada (1974) explain that the departure of doctors, teachers, engineers, scientists, and other highly skilled workers decimates the human capital and fiscal revenues of sending countries. It is believed that "the best and brightest" can migrate, leaving behind the "weak and less imaginative", resulting in a slow death for Africa (Gwaradzimba and Shumba, 2012: 226). To add on the above assertions, (ECA/IDRC/IOM, 2000) also supports that Africa is losing its best and brightest to the

industrialized world and is losing a significant proportion of wealth needed to establish a foundation for economic growth. Africa needs a large middle class to build a large tax base which, in turn, will enable the continent to build good schools and hospitals and provide a continuous supply of electricity.

Emeagwali (2004: 1) cited in Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2012:226) argues that few people do not realize that Africans who immigrate to the US contribute 40 times more wealth to the America than to the African economy. According to the United Nations, an African professional working in the USA contributes approximately US \$150,000 per year to the US economy (Emeagwali 2004). It is further argued that Africa's ongoing development efforts will continue to be undermined as long as the current phenomenon of human capital flight/brain drain continues (Selassie 2002). Emeagwali (2004: 1) also contends that it will be impossible to achieve an African renaissance without the contributions of the talented: "the best African musicians live in France, the top African writers live in the United States or Britain and the soccer superstars live in Europe". The brain drain problem has also contributed to Africa's growing marginalisation in the global economy (Selassie 2002) cited in Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2012:226).

Further, the strength of any nation depends to a large extent on its productivity, which in turn depends on the well-being of the population. Adepoju (2008) noted that the absence of competent individuals has a direct and negative effect on the quality-of-service delivery to the public in the home countries. He maintained that in the educational sector, the outflow of proficient academics and teachers has resulted in the fall of the quality of education received. Boyo (2013:45-46) writes that at all levels of education, whether primary, secondary or tertiary, the quality of education has been compromised.

Odunsi (1996) elucidates that the increase in the teacher-student ratio has limited the amount of time and attention devoted to each student. Also, at the tertiary level, the mass exodus of academics limits the program options for students because academics specialized in certain disciplines are not available to teach those courses or programs consequently, it is likely that educators with average competencies may replace emigrant faculty members. The danger of this of course, is that students are deprived of the best educational experience possible and in some cases, this leads to the production of "half-baked" graduates who are unequipped with the necessary skills and knowledge to enter the labor market (Boyo, 2013:46.)

In the healthcare area, the scourge of brain drain has led to inadequate healthcare delivery services (Adepoju 2008). Sub-Saharan Africa in particular faces the greatest challenges, with 11% of the world's population and 25% of the global disease burden; yet the region has only 3% of the global health workforce and accounts for less than 1% of health expenditures worldwide (WHO, 2006). Thus, it is common to point to the medical brain drain (MBD) as one of the major factors leading to the under-provision of healthcare staff in Africa and, ultimately, to low health status and shorter life expectancy (Bundred and Levitt, 2000). For example, Malawi in southern Africa had about 100 doctors and 2000 nurses to serve a population of 12 million people. The hospital beds in many poor countries are full and overflowing. Staff is unable to keep up with the seemingly endless flow of patients near death WHO, 2006). Indeed, the impact of brain drain on Africa's healthcare system has been evident. These trained healthcare workers are known to emigrate in large numbers out of the continent for better opportunities (Duvivier, Burch, and Boulet, 2017).

According to the World Health Organization's Global Health Workforce Statistics, Chad had 0.00 physicians per 1000 people in 2017, Burundi had 0.1 per 1000 people in 2017, and Zambia had 1.2 in 2018. On the other hand, Zimbabwe had 0.2 physicians per 1000 people in 2018, Guinea had 0.1 per 1000 people in 2016, Eswatini had 0.3 physicians per 1000 people in 2016, and 0.9 physicians per 1000 people in South Africa (2018). Comparatively, Europe, the United States of America, and other developed countries had between 3 and 4 physicians per 1000 people within the same timeframes. BMJ (2011;343:7031), alludes that the estimated government subsidized cost of a doctor's education ranged from \$21 000 (£13 000; €15 000) in Uganda to \$58 700 in South Africa. The overall estimated loss of returns from investment for all doctors currently working in the destination countries was \$2.17bn (95% confidence interval 2.13bn to 2.21bn), with costs for each country ranging from \$2.16m (1.55m to 2.78m) for Malawi to \$1.41bn (1.38bn to 1.44bn) for South Africa. The ratio of the estimated compounded lost investment over gross domestic product showed that Zimbabwe and South Africa had the largest losses. The benefit to destination countries of recruiting trained doctors was largest for the United Kingdom (\$2.7bn) and United States (\$846m) (BMJ (2011;343:7031).

By contrast, North and South America, which together have 14% of the world's population but only 10% of the global disease burden, employ 37% of the global health workforce and contribute over 50% of the pool of global health expenditure (Misau,

Al-Sadaat, Nabilla and Gerej. 2010). As of 2006, more than 25% of doctors in the US are foreign trained, and US had an estimated ratio of 25.6 doctors per 10,000 population (ibid). Misau et.al (2010) observed that, in comparison, the small country of Lesotho in southern Africa has 0.5 doctors per 10,000 populations, and an adult HIV prevalence rate of 28.9%, in addition to tuberculosis, malaria, and the host of other lower respiratory and gastrointestinal illnesses that plague that part of the world. They also note that Uganda had only one doctor per 24,700 inhabitants, and Zambia needs 15,000 physicians for its health care system to work properly, but only around 800 are registered.

Coloma (2012) averred that in the Caribbean, the situation is worse — even dire. For example, according to World Bank data, 77 percent of Guyanese emigrants possessed a university education, while nine other countries in the English-speaking Caribbean had a similar proportion of university educated emigrants — 89.9 percent in the case of Surinam, 82.5 percent in Jamaica, 78.4 percent in Trinidad and Tobago, and, in the case of the poorest country in the entire hemisphere — Haiti — up to 81.6 percent of emigrants are university educated. What makes the situation in these countries so dire is that in some cases — Guyana, for example — well over 50 percent of the country's stock of university-educated workers has migrated and can be found abroad in the Global North, mostly the US and Canada. The scale of exported brainpower from this region is nothing less than astounding, with an inestimably negative impact on the productive capacity and development prospects of the countries in the region (Canterbury, 2010).

The UN Conference on Trade and Development has estimated that each migrating African professional represents a loss of US\$184 000 to Africa (Ogowe, 1996 cited in Eastwood, Connroy, Naicker and Rhule-Plange, 2005: 1894), and the financial cost to South Africa, 600 of whose graduates are in New Zealand, is estimated at \$37 million.¹⁴ Yet Africa spends \$4 billion a year on the salaries of foreign experts (The Lancet, 2000). In Ghana, as elsewhere, the employment of Cuban doctors (who often need support from interpreters) is widely seen as a drain on resources that could be used to train and retain Ghanaian health professionals. Meanwhile, Canada, Australia, the United States and Britain have saved a total of \$4.5 billion through the recruitment of African doctors (York, 2011). As a result of the emigration of Africa's best and brightest minds, the continent spends US\$4 billion every year to hire 100,000 foreign expatriates (Woldetensae, 2007 cited in Boyo,

2013: 48). Therefore, it is believed that the rate of loss of human capital in numerous African countries is placing the continent in a dire situation in terms of delivering quality public services to the larger community (Tettey, 2006). In line with this, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), in its recent report, supports the notion that the migration of young and highly skilled people can result in significant losses of human capital (IMF, 2016).

3.3.2 Impact on Development, Research, and Innovation

Among the effects of brain drain that has been echoed by several researchers is that it fuels a vicious downward cycle of underdevelopment. Maharaj (2010 cited in Gurmessa,2019:76) alludes that “the departure of human capital from the already ‘scarce region’ has hidden costs that jeopardise the development of the region (socially, economically, politically, and technologically) by reducing the already depleted social services and slowing down institutional building in the home countries such as the ones in Africa”. Docquier (2014) found that Brain-drain and the economic development of home countries are two interdependent processes. First, a brain drain affects development, and its effect becomes unambiguously negative when the emigration rate is high. Second, a lack of economic growth motivates college graduates to emigrate. Interactions between these two variables can be the source of vicious and virtuous circles linked to individual decisions to migrate.

According to Todisco et al (2003), brain drain represents a major development constraint both in terms of development opportunities and lost investment in that it drains sending areas of their human capital that took enormous resources to nurture and produce. Although some amount of mobility is obviously necessary if countries are to integrate into the global economy, the migration of huge numbers of students and skilled persons pose a threat of a “brain drain” which can affect growth and development (Odhiambo, 2013:265). For Africa, the phenomenon has resulted in a major development constraint (Sako, 2002) in the sense that the educational level of individuals that are leaving the continent to other parts of the world is high and many of these people subsequently do not return to their home country afterwards. As a result, developing countries may suffer from economic loss, which reduces their development even further and their production of more skilled people. Romero (2013: 186) defines the drain effect as the fall in the stock of human capital that follows skilled emigration.

(Sako 2002: 5) also affirmed that the country with an outflow of emigrants loses

critical human capital in which it has invested resources for education and specialised training and for which it is not compensated by the recipient country. In essence, Africa is giving developmental assistance to the wealthier western nations, making the rich nations richer and the poor nations poorer (Emeagwali 2004). Furthermore, the divergent paradigm elucidates that the loss of talent through brain drain severely impacts and causes substantial setbacks for the renaissance of Africa (Baruch et al., 2007; Benedict & Ukpere, 2012; Gibson & McKenzie, 2011; Kana, 2010; Nabawanuka, 2011; Nunn, 2005; Shinn, 2002; Tessema, 2010; Canibano & Woolley, 2010).

More specifically, brain drain reduces the already low quantity of skilled manpower available in African countries and needed for their development, it reduces the numbers of dynamic and innovative people (whether they are entrepreneurs or academics), it increases dependence on foreign technical assistance, it slows the transfer of technology, it widens the gap between the African and industrialised countries, and it negatively affects the continent's scientific output and income lost in tax revenues and in potential contributions to gross domestic product. The result of this exodus means that the vicious circle of poverty in less developed countries is far from ended.

Moreover, behind all innovations, there are creative human minds. "Immigration policies in the U.S. through its H1B program, in UK and Canada through their point systems target to attract the selective skilled groups who can meaningfully contribute to the development. Indeed, immigrants make noticeable contributions to science and innovation. For example, the majority of the Nobel laureates in physics and chemistry" (Moser et al. 2014 cited in Enkhtaivan, Bolortuya, Jorge Brusa, and Zagdbazar Davaadorj. 2021), more than 25% to innovations and entrepreneurship (Kerr and Kerr 2020), about 40% of Ph.D. degrees in STEM, and more than 50% in engineering and computer science (Kerr, 2019) are attributable to foreign-born immigrants in the U.S. African Development (2021) suggest that, for Africa to achieve accelerated, inclusive, and sustainable socio-economic growth through science, technology, and innovation (STI) driven manufacturing, development, and industrialisation, there is a need for highly skilled and talented Africans. Skilled Africans are key resources to the continent successfully implementing robust policy and infrastructural frameworks in industrialisation and innovation.

Gurib-Fakim and Signe,2022) report that Africa contributes just 2 percent of

world research output, accounts for only 1.3 percent of research spending, and produces 0.1 percent of all patents. McGregor (2008) reports that the investigation revealed that Africa produced 68,945 publications over the 2000-2004 period, or 1.8% of the world's publications. McGregor adds that within Africa, South Africa produced 20,762 publications or 30% of the total and Egypt 13,942 or 20%. This was just over half of all African publications, while the top eight countries - including Morocco (5,463), Nigeria (4,040), Tunisia (3,930), Kenya (3,231), Algeria (2,766) and Tanzania (1,368) - produced 80% of the continent's publications (Mcgregor,2008). By comparison, the European Union generated 38.8% of publications, the US 33.6%, China 4.7%, Latin America 3.5%, India 2.4%, and other countries 15.2%. It is without a doubt that, without growth and the improvement that could have been provided by the skillful and educated people who left, the country then can no longer attempt to compete globally and are left isolated from the rest of the world” (Srivista,2021:6). (Srivista,2021:6) concludes that “this isolation can slow development and progress even further and cause a nation to grow even poorer”.

3.2.3 Stimulus to Domestic Education

Some Scholars have indicated that at some optimal level of emigration (greater than none but not too much), sending countries benefit. Lowell and Findlay (2001:7) posit that “the possibility of immigrating to higher wage countries may stimulate individuals to pursue higher education in anticipation of finding better-paid work abroad”.

3.2.4 Transfer of Technology and Knowledge

When highly skilled people move abroad, they usually still retain connections and networks back to their home country. Lowell and Findlay (2001: 10) allude that “when these networks are fostered, they can yield a flow back of knowledge and new technologies that can boost source country growth”. Whether emigrants are permanent or temporary, backward linkages to their source country can increase the available knowledge and technology that boost productivity”. Conversely, Srivastava (2021) says that “developed countries have a technological advantage over developing countries, sometimes by a margin of years or even decades. For example, where nearly everyone in a country such as the United States is connected to the internet, often via a device they can carry in their pocket, they have a connection to nearly everyone else with such a device”.

Meanwhile, “many developing countries suffer from massive power blackouts, where citizens must work and play in darkness or via kerosene lamps” Srivastava

(2021). These citizens are isolated, putting them at a disadvantage in the fast and ever moving worlds of various sectors of economics and life, from scientific research to business transactions. Srivastava (2021) averred that even “medical technology is also far behind in many of these places. The more citizens must worry about illness and death, and the inability to either pay for treatment or even an inability to access treatment, the more motivated a highly educated citizen is to leave for a more developed country”.

3.2.5 Remittances

A brain drain can have benefits for home countries. On one side, “the migration of educated people from low-middle income countries to OECD countries constitute a net loss of human qualified resources for the origin countries and a gain for the host country” (Castelli, 2018). On the other hand, “the financial and ideational remittances from destination countries may also have an impact on the education of non-migration children and adolescents in their origin countries” (Fargues, 2018). Migrants' remittances are the most tangible and least controversial link between migration and development of the homeland. Kapur (2004 cited in Bailey and Mulder, 2017) terms remittances as the new ‘development mantra’ as the flow of remittances to many countries in the Global South has overtaken the share of development aid these countries receive. In countries with established migration traditions, remittances are important for reducing the incidence and severity of poverty (The African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF), 2018: 7).

Findlay and Lowell claim that “most international migrants choose to migrate with the intention of sending part of their earnings back to the country of origin to help support their immediate or extended family” (2001: 9 cited in Nunn, 2005:34). The World Bank (2003) has estimated that these flows are significant; being the second most important source of foreign currency for developing countries and exceeding aid flows. When migrants send home part of their earnings in the form of either cash or goods to support their families, these transfers are known as workers’ or migrant remittances and have been growing rapidly in the past few years and now represent the largest source of foreign income for many developing economies (Ratha,2011:76). To Support this, specific uses of remittances for selected countries in 2009 has been estimated by Ratha et al. (2011 cited in Komla, 2018:8) and it revealed a greater proportion of remittances received in SSA were spent on human and physical capital investments like education, health, land, construction of new and

rebuilding of old houses. A significant fraction was also invested in establishing businesses.

Among the selected Sub-Saharan African countries, Nigeria is the highest recipient of remittance inflows. Nigeria received 3% of the remittance inflow of these selected Sub-Saharan African countries, followed by Ghana at 0.8%, Senegal at 0.7%, Kenya at 0.6%, Somalia at 0.5%, Mali at 0.3%, and South Africa at 0.2%, approximately (Usman, Ozdeser, Çavuş, Şıglu, and Aliyu, 2022:2177). To add on this, some African economies have been more dependent on remittances than others: remittances accounted for 15 percent of GDP in The Gambia and Lesotho, and 12 percent in Cabo Verde and Liberia. Although Nigeria received by far the largest amount of remittances in the region in 2018, \$24.3 billion, the monetary transfers accounted only for 6 percent of GDP (Batalova and Ecstrada, 2019).

One of the main benefits of remittance flows is that they can stabilize household income, thereby improving living conditions and increasing well-being. Remittances appear to be responsive to income shortfalls and, in that way, have the potential to smooth household income (Choi and Yang, 2007). Zeleza (1998) also state that remittances promote development by improving income distribution and quality of life by loosening production and investment constraints faced by households in the sending countries; after all, migration decisions are part of family strategies to raise income, obtain funds to invest in new activities, and insure against income and production risks.

Moreover, accumulation of human capital through better health and higher educational attainment is another important benefit of remittances. UNICEF (2013) posits that health and education are not only human rights, but also the basis for the realization of all other rights. They are used as tools to measure the level of economic and human development of an area (Komla, 2018:10). Tellingly, the connection between education and health has been established. Center on Society and Health (2015) postulated that education has been proven to create opportunities for better health while good health forms a basis for effective studies (education)). They are thus crucial to the transformation of an area (Komla, 2018:10).

A broad literature has shown how the human capital gains of household members who emigrate and the remittance flows that follow can significantly improve health outcomes and health care access in receiving households by easing financial constraints (Dorantes-Amuedo, 2014:5). For instance, remittances have been

associated with lower mortality rates, higher birth weights, and improved living and sanitary conditions in the receiving household through the acquisition of durable goods, such as refrigerators, stoves, and washing machines (ibid). Data from the World Bank (2017) also show infant mortality rate in SSA has consistently declined over the past 50 years. Male and female adult mortality rates have also witnessed a substantial decline.

Similarly, remittance flows have been shown to have positive impacts on educational investments in children left behind. A review of these indicators in SSA shows that the number of children enrolled in primary education increased by 75% between 1999 and 2012. Adult literacy marginally increased from 53% in 1990 to 59% in 2012 (UNICEF, 2015). Even Amakom and Iheoma (2014) research conducted on 18 Sub-Saharan countries using 2SLS method found primary school enrollment and secondary school enrollment rose by 4.2% and 8.8%, respectively, for every 10% rise in remittances. Additionally, Lu and Treiman (2007 cited in Komla, 2018: 14) argued that in South Africa, children from remittance recipient households [Blacks] were 30% more likely to have some secondary education compared to non-migrating households without remittances. Remittance recipient households were also 73% likely to have some secondary education and 130% likely to have educational levels beyond secondary school.

However, other authors have tried to separate the potentially positive impacts of remittance flows on the educational investments in children from the disruptive effect that the emigration of a father or mother might have on the educational attainment and performance of children left behind. When the household head migrates, some of the older children might have to quit school and start working to help support the household (Dorantes-Amuedo, (2014). McKenzie and Rapoport (2011) corroborated the above assertions in their research and pointed out that remittances had negative effects on school attendance and attainment in rural Mexico for boys between 12 and 18 years and girls between 16 and 18 years.

This is because of children having to take up roles of migrated adults, lack of effective supervision of children, and incentive for older children to also migrate and find low skill jobs. Cattaneo (2010) also observed that remittances have no significant results on education in Albania. Cattaneo argued that it may be due to the low perceived returns to education in the region because of the low quality of education, and directives from remittance senders to use the money on specific allocations

instead of education.

Conversely, Todisco et al (2003) argue that remittances can also be regarded as a form of hidden aid which the developed world devolves. Conversely, countries of origin, meanwhile, benefit from remittances, which make up about three times the amount of foreign aid they receive (Ngoma and Ismail, 2013). For instance, in 2018, remittances to sub-Saharan Africa increased by about 10%, to \$46 billion. Afro barometer data show that one-fifth (21%) of Africans in surveyed countries rely on such monies from abroad (ibid). These facts may not point to an easy solution, but they are surely relevant to any policy designed to work for both origin and destination countries. Ammassari & Black (2001: 13) also corroborates with the sentiments that remittances are beneficial at both the micro and macro levels and contends that the value of migrant remittances can significantly exceed that of national export earnings to poor nations.

Finally, Emeagwali (2004) cited in Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2010), spoke strongly against remittances and emphasized the need to eliminate poverty in Africa, and not merely reduce it by sending money to relatives. He reiterated that in any country, human capital is much more valuable than financial capital because only a nation's human capital can be converted into real wealth.

3.3 Prevention Measures and Strategies to Address Brain Drain

Trained professionals are needed in every country. However, some of them decide to migrate from less developed countries (country of origin) to more developed countries in search of jobs, high salary, a better standard of living and quality of life, safety, stable political conditions, and access to advanced technology. In as much as the migrants send money home and these monies contribute to the economy of their country, a no return of highly skilled professionals especially from developing countries is detrimental and a drain to the economy and capacity building. As the human flight capital accelerates especially of those people who are trained and deemed highly skilled in their respective countries, policy makers must come up with strategies to discourage the brain drain.

African brain drain is a significant problem that requires attention because it represents a loss for many African countries and regions. All developed policies, either by each nation, by the African Union, or SADEC aim to combat the outflow of educated elites from Africa to western nations. Asogu and Nwachukwu (2018:22) acknowledge

that, if nothing is done, the number of migrants from sub-Saharan African nations may rise from 8 million in 2020 to 34 million by 2050. This suggests, according to Eise and Foster (2018), that the exodus of young, educated workers has a significant negative impact on a region where human capital is already in short supply. Accordingly, Adebusoye (2020) contends that African institutions must make international study a mandatory component of their curricula while promoting temporary migration that enables these highly educated persons to return to their home nations. In fact, the trend can be reversed by developing sound strategies and putting them into action. According to Bhagwati (1976), the governments of some African nations have plans in place to aggressively combat the decimation of higher education. However, certain solutions to the ongoing issue of brain drain have been proposed, such as effective leadership, widespread employment, better pay and working conditions, as well as a program for rewarding hardworking employees (Nwaogu & Ryan, 2015).

For instance, Martin, Terouanne and Neher allude that half of the foreign-born graduate students in France, UK and USA remain there after completing their studies. For instance, in 2017, a record 276,500 foreign graduates received work permits under the Optional Practical Training (OPT) program, up from 257,100 in 2016, according to data obtained from U.S (Pew Research Centre, 2018). This numbers may indicate that, had the developing countries provided more world class training and opportunities for career advancement and employment, the migratory flow might have been reduced (National Science Board, 2022). But Dodani and LaPorte (2005) argue that in reality this might not make much difference. On the positive side however, foreign-born graduates acquire expensive skills which are not available within their countries. On the negative side, these skills and knowledge never migrate back to their own countries (Dodani and LaPorte (2005).

Many educated Africans who have immigrated or plan to immigrate to Western nations have stated their doubts about returning to their home continent or sending their children to be reared there. In support of this, Piabuo and Tieguhong (2017:23) note that there is widespread mistrust of the African political class and its capacity to stop the continuous decline in both the work and educational sectors. In order to promote the economic prosperity and growth of the continent and its countries, it is important to mobilize efforts that can create an enabling environment by enhancing current policies. Chimenya and Qi (2015:32) explain that economic growth reduces the rate of migration, as the disparities in salaries, quality of facilities

and investment in research and development are reduced. When the powerful attraction of much higher levels of income and quality of life no longer obtains, highly skilled people are less likely to uproot themselves from their home environment and culture to move and live in a totally new one.

Additionally, Rapoport (2016:125) argues that the nations must make significant investments in infrastructure growth and aggressively combat corruption. Ariu and Squicciarini (2013) asserts that it has been recognized that the governments of the African nations must resolutely combat corruption and make investments in their foundational infrastructure. They further note that skilled natives will tend to leave corrupt countries and move to less corrupt ones where employment is meritocratic; second, foreign talents might not be attracted to a corrupt labour market, in which access to high-paying and prestigious jobs is determined by political affiliations or nepotism. Consequently, corrupt countries might experience a prolonged loss in human capital, driven by an unfair labour market where string-pulling and connections matter more than skills and performance (Ariu and Squicciarini, 2013).

African nations should also actively take use of the enormous number of educated youth and use them as an incubator for the growth of labor, industry, and technology (Rogerson, 2018). Additionally, it was recommended that governments strengthen the policies and programs that, via collaboration with foreign partners, can easily control the emigration of human capital from each nation. For example, Beine et al. (2019) reveal that Canada expressed interest in collaborating with Nigeria in May 2018 to help the Nigerian government stop unregulated migration. Conversely, countries such as South Korea, India, Ireland, Taiwan, and China and have been very successful in slowing down the rate of migration of their highly skilled citizens and have come up with strategies to attract back those abroad, in effect reversing the brain drain.

Chimenya and Qi (2015:31) indicate that countries like Taiwan and South Korea have rapidly achieved a high level of development, partly through utilizing their skilled human capital in the Diaspora. They further note that China and India, on the other hand are currently experiencing the highest rates of economic growth and diversification in the world and the engagement of their successful citizens in the Diaspora is contributing to this growth and development (Chimenya and Qi, 2015: 31). According to Sameta (2013), South Korea focuses on attracting back its Diaspora scientists to help upgrade and boost its research institutions, such as the Korean Institute for Science and Technology. Returnees who joined KIST are allowed a great

degree of research and management autonomy to reproduce the environment experienced and enjoyed in the USA. They are also offered salaries, housing and working conditions similar to those they enjoyed while in the USA.

Moreover, the Taiwan government has also established a 'Science Park' and provided tax and financial incentives for returnees to establish high-technology firms (Chimenya and Qi, 2015). To support this, Harvard Business Review (2014:2) adds that the country forged business-friendly policies that encouraged entrepreneurs to stay and emigrants to return. It founded the Hsinchu Science-based Industrial Park in 1980, with the goal of replicating the density of talent found in Silicon Valley and other hotbeds of technological innovation. Noland and Pack (2007) state that much of today's prosperous and fast-growing high technology sector in Taiwan is attributed to firms established by returnee scientists and engineers.

Kristiaji (2019:49), some countries currently provide tax incentives, to stop talented and skilled individuals from remaining in a jurisdiction and becoming residents in other countries. This incentive is expected to prevent waves of brain drain. Every country offers varied trial and error programs to obtain an effective design (Agunias, Newland 2012). South Korea and Taiwan have pursued similar strategies to achieve the physical relocation of their highly skilled and successful citizens in the Diaspora to their home countries. For example, Chang (1992) reports that Taiwan has set up a government agency, the National Youth Commission, to encourage and coordinate the return. Some countries have experimented with tax incentives such as tax holidays for returnees. Canada tried but abandoned such a scheme

Further, the Brain Drain Tax is one of the proposed solutions for migration of highly skilled migrants. Jagdish Bhagwati is the leading proponent and the acknowledged father of most of the academic brain drain literature who is the well-known U.S. trade economist. Bhagwati initially proposed of a tax collected by the host country on immigrants from developing countries. The applicable rate was 15% (surtax) of the emigrant's income. The idea is that the tax collected by the home country's tax authority (in the context of the U.S., IRS) subsequently be transferred to the home country to compensate developing countries for the incurred losses (Kristiaji,2019:46). However, the Bhagwati tax proposal faces challenges in terms of administration.

Desai, Kapur, Mchale (2004: 681) show that Bagwathi Tax creates compliance costs for individual taxpayers, as well as barriers to working overseas. As

a matter of fact, developing countries still encounter challenges in taxing individual income. For example, in Indonesia the contribution from individual income tax other than withholding tax for employees only amounted to less than 1% of the total tax revenue during the 2013–2018 period ((Kristiaji,2019:47).On the contrary, a study conducted by Desai, Kapur, and McHale (2004, 683) on the simulation of the application of this tax for India shows that the potential revenue from the Bhagwati tax is substantial. Overall, brain drain tax is necessary to maintain the integrity of the domestic progressive income tax in developing countries that suffer from brain drain.

Another proposed solution is that source countries only send students abroad when the subject they want to study is not being offered at home (Johnson,2009:13). However, the source country will have to ensure that when these students return home; their newly acquired education can be put to good use. Otherwise, it will be no surprise if these students decide to stay in the receiving country and capitalize on employment opportunities there. Johnson (2009) adds that some have argued that the receiving countries should also be obligated not to allow immigrant students to enroll in courses that will not be useful in their home countries. However, this may in the end be an infringement on human rights. Furthermore, in the developed countries there are some professors who will not willingly chair a thesis or dissertation committee of a student who cannot participate in the research of the professor (Johnson,2009). If restrictions are placed on the types of topics students can study, then there is also the possibility of eliminating some profound research or discovery that these students could be contributing to the world (Grubel and Scott 1977).

Moreover, in the 21st century we find that the spread of technology knowledge has increased because of globalization. Thus, it's very important to understand that times have changed, and the migration of highly skilled individuals has become part of our everyday lives. However, it is very crucial to find ways in which these individuals can contribute their skills to their respective countries. For example, Dodani and LaPorte (2005) note that the turn of the 21st century has not only brought technology, but also modes by which scientists around the world can be connected in no time. For example, in this globalized world the physical location of a person may or may not have any relation to the ability to make an impact on human health. Health professionals in the developed world may have most of their work portfolios in the developing world (Dodani and LaPorte, 2005).

3.4 Summary

This chapter explored the concept of brain drain and its positive and negative impacts on both the sending and receiving countries which included but not limited to remittances, underdevelopment, and shortage of skilled migrants. Finally, this chapter ended up discussing the policies/solutions that could be implemented to alleviate brain drain/migration of the highly skilled. The following chapter reviews the theoretical framework that explains the decision-making process made by migrants to emigrate.

CHAPTER FOUR

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

4.0 Introduction

Migration systems theory (WST) and **rational choice theory (RCT)** are selected as they are considered relevant and appropriate for this study in terms of the reasons Sub-Saharan African graduates abroad are reluctant to go back to their home countries resulting in brain drain. These theories focus on the Migrants and their decision-making process at the micro level. At the same time, they seek to understand how these decisions are shaped by larger macro-level factors which include political, economic and social structures.

4.1 World Systems Theory (WST)

According to Wallerstein, "world-system is a social system, one that has boundaries, structures, member groups, rules of legitimation, and coherence. Its life is made up of the conflicting forces which hold it together by tension and tear it apart as each group seeks eternally to remold it to its advantage. It has the characteristics of an organism; in that it has a lifespan over which its characteristics change in some respects and remain stable in others. Life within it is largely self-contained, and the dynamics of its development are largely internal" (Wallerstein, 1974: 347). A world-system is what Wallerstein terms a "world economy", integrated through the market rather than a political center, in which two or more regions are interdependent with respect to necessities like food, fuel, and protection, and two or more polities compete for domination without the emergence of one single center forever (Goldfrank, 2000).

Wallerstain (1974) further explains a world-system as a "multicultural territorial division of labor in which the production and exchange of basic goods and raw materials is necessary for the everyday life of its inhabitants." This division of labor refers to the forces and relations of production of the world economy as a whole and it leads to the existence of two interdependent regions: core and periphery (Martinez-Vela, 2001:4). These are geographically and culturally different, one focusing on labor-intensive, and the other on capital-intensive production. (Goldfrank, 2000).

Faist (1997) notes that the world system theory has a macro level and sociological approach, and its origin lies in the dependency theory. Wallerstein draws heavily from dependency theory, a neo-Marxist explanation of development processes, popular in the developing world, and among whose figures are Fernando Henrique Cardoso. Dependency theory focuses on understanding the “periphery” by looking at core-periphery relations, and it has flourished in peripheral regions like Latin America. It is from a dependency theory perspective that many contemporary critiques to global capitalism come from. WST consists of economically advanced countries, called core countries, and economically disadvantaged countries, called peripheries.

Nonetheless, in the beginning neither world system nor dependency theory was interested in international migration. But in the late 1970s, the position changed dramatically when various “guests” were not going back home (Borta, 2007:26). One particular concern of these theorists was their interest with the “brain drain.” They argued that the emigration of skilled and educated workers certainly damaged the prospects for development in poor countries by depriving them of essential human capital (Borta, 2007:26). Borta adds that the World System theorists attributed to it as another symptom of the unequal terms of trade between developed and developing countries and one more means by which global capitalism developed under-development.

By poaching and recruiting, the most fruitful workers from developing countries, core nations drained off an important resource for future economic prosperity. Worse than that, the brain drain in fact was a subsidy of wealthy nations by the poor because the last ones covered the costs of feeding, clothing, educating, and maintaining the emigrants until they reached productive age (Massey et.al, 1998). Therefore, peripheral countries provide resources, cheap labor, and economic gain for core countries in order for the core country to maintain its standard of living (Collins,2013:9). The economic inequality between developing(periphery) and developed (core) countries determine and influence the flow of migrants from their developing countries.

Moreover, the core countries focus on maintaining their advantageous position in the world system where the upward movement of peripheral countries is extremely unlikely. There is the third type of countries that lies between core and periphery. Wallerstein calls them semi-peripheral states (Wallerstein, 2004). Therefore, world-systems theory views international migration in terms of a flow from

the periphery to the core. Peripheral countries are poor and weak, core countries are rich and powerful, and semi peripheral states are somewhere in the middle, rather diverse economically and politically (Wallerstein, 1974, 1976). In Constant and Tien's words (2009:7), this means that migrant flows are triggered when capitalist economic relations enter non- or pre-capitalist societies.

Moreover, WST centers upon the idea that there are dominant wealthy countries (core capitalist nations) and poor dependent countries (peripheral or semi-peripheral) and that global capitalism perpetuates these inequalities and reinforces a stratified economic order (Constant and Tien, 2009: 6). An example of interaction between societies is international trade. Trade between countries with weaker economies and countries with more advanced economies causes economic stagnation, resulting in lagging living conditions in the former (Wallerstein 1983; Amankwaa 1995 cited in Jennissen, 2007.). This is also an incentive for migration.

Therefore, the WST states that migration occurs when capitalism encroaches in non-capitalistic organized countries. In other words, existing social and economic structures will be destroyed by capitalistic world power and the resident's livelihood will be taken. Thus, becoming wageworkers make them prefer to migrate for better opportunities. In addition, Douglas et, al (1993: 444-445) emphasized that the penetration of capitalist economic relations into peripheral, non-capitalist societies creates a mobile population that is prone to migrate abroad. Thus, migration in this theory is a structural consequence of the expansion of markets within a global political hierarchy, and migration patterns reflect center/periphery to the center, in terms of linguistic dominance or cultural hegemony (Massey, 1999; Hooghe et al., 2008).

Moreover, a variety of sociological theorists has linked the origins of international migration not to the bifurcation of the labor market within particular national economies, but to the structure of the world market that has developed and expanded since the sixteenth century (Portes and Walton, 1981; Petras, 1981; Castells, 1989; Sassen, 1988, 1991; Morawska, 1990). In this scheme, the penetration of capitalist economic relations into peripheral, non-capitalist societies create a mobile population that is prone to migrate abroad (Massey et.al, 1993).

There are various types of links between core capitalist countries and countries in the periphery such as enduring ideological, intellectual, and cultural ties. World systems theory sees migration as a natural consequence of economic globalization whereby companies now operate across national boundaries

(Wallerstein, 1974). According to Hagen-Zanker (2008:8), the capitalist expansion has had profound consequences for migration issues, as not only the capitalist mode of production, but also the culture and stronger transportation, communication and military links penetrate peripheries. For example, military bases can easily expose the natives to the foreigners' way of living, their wealth, customs, culture, etc. Oftentimes military bases are the cause of intermarriages and further emigration from the home country (Constant and Tien, 2009, 8). Specifically for Africa and its former European colonizers, it is found that even after decades of decolonization, many European countries have kept some military bases in Africa for "just in case." France, for instance, has until now military bases along the Atlantic in most of its former colonies (ibid).

In addition, land consolidation, new capitalist farming methods and manufacturing plants have created a socially uprooted population with weakened attachments to their land and more prone to migration. A strong immigrant labour demand in global cities acts as a pull force to migration. According to this theory, migration follows the dynamics of market creation and structure of the global economy. Without a doubt, the theory explains the reason why countries maintain the interdependence between the former colonisers and the colonized, in that the former are searching for cheap labour whereas the latter are looking for finished goods

Further, the vestiges of colonization in the organization of the education system in former colonies, and specifically the dominance of European concepts in universities' structure of knowledge, is one of the factors contributing to the magnetism of the former colonies to their former colonial powers (Hooghe et al., 2008; Massey et al., 1998 cited in Constant and Tien, 2009:7). Nabawanuka (2011) corroborates the above assertions by stating that there is a disparity in the level of advancement of education between the developed countries and developing countries, forcing former colonies to continue to depend on their former colonisers and the developed world for advanced education.

Therefore, Massey et.al (1993:448) elucidate that world systems theory argues that international migration follows the political and economic organization of an expanding global market, a view that yields six distinct hypotheses. Firstly, international migration is a natural consequence of capitalist market formation in the developing world; the penetration of the global economy into peripheral regions is the catalyst for international movement. Secondly, the international flow of labor follows

the international flow of goods and capital, but in the opposite direction. Capitalist investment foments changes that create an uprooted, mobile population in peripheral countries while simultaneously forging strong material and cultural links with core countries, leading to transnational movement.

Thirdly, international migration is especially likely between past colonial powers and their former colonies, because cultural, linguistic, administrative, investment, transportation, and communication links were established early and were allowed to develop free from outside competition during the colonial era, leading to the formation of specific transnational markets and cultural systems. Furthermore, since international migration stems from the globalization of the market economy, the way for governments to influence immigration rates is by regulating the overseas investment activities of corporations and controlling international flows of capital and goods. Such policies, however, are unlikely to be implemented because they are difficult to enforce, tend to incite international trade disputes, risk world economic recession, and antagonize multinational firms with substantial political resources that can be mobilized to block them.

Moreover, political, and military interventions by governments of capitalist countries to protect investments abroad and to support foreign governments sympathetic to the expansion of the global market, when they fail, produce refugee movements directed to particular core countries, constituting another form of international migration. Lastly, international migration ultimately has little to do with wage rates or employment differentials between countries; it follows from the dynamics of market creation and the structure of the global economy.

In a nutshell, it can be concluded that the world systems theory (Wallerstein 1974 cited in Hagen-Zanker, 2008:7), takes a historical structural approach, stresses the role of disruptions and dislocations in peripheral parts of the world, as a result of colonialism and the capitalist expansion of neoclassical governments and multinationals and thus takes account of structural factors that other theories neglect.

4.2 Rational Choice Theory

According to Ogu (2013:90), the rational choice theory, also known as choice theory or rational action theory, is a theory for understanding and often modelling social and economic as well as individual behaviour. It is the main paradigm in the currently dominant microeconomics school of thought. It is also central to modern

political science, as well as other disciplines such as sociology and philosophy (2013:90). Levin and Milgron (2004:1) explain that the spread of RTC grew out of an intellectual convergence that began during the 19th century. On one hand, utilitarian philosophers were seeking an objective criterion for a science of government in which they suggested that if policies were to be decided based on attaining the “greatest good for the greatest number,” they would need to find a utility index that could measure of how beneficial different policies were to different people. On the other hand, thinkers following Adam Smith were trying to refine his ideas about how an economic system based on individual self-interest would work (Levin and Migron, 2004).

Adam Smith is considered the originator of rational choice theory. In Smith’s 1776 essay “An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations,” he proposed that human nature’s tendency toward self-interest resulted in prosperity. Smith’s term “the invisible hand” referred to unseen forces driving the free market. However, but the theory was not adopted into sociology officially until the 1950s and 1960s. Towards the 1950s and 1960s, sociologists George C. Homans, Peter Blau and James Coleman promoted rational choice theory in relation to social exchange. These social theorists stated that a rational calculation of an exchange of costs and rewards drives social behavior (Online MSW programs, 2022).

Rational choice theory’s basic premise is that individuals act rationally while making a decision; when confronted with a dilemma, they rationally choose between a set of alternatives, within the opportunities offered or constraints imposed to them by the environment (Sabharwal and Varma, 2016: 178). According to Scott (2000:3), in rational choice theory, individuals are seen as motivated by the wants or goals that express their 'preferences'. Thus, RTC is an economic principle that states that individuals always make prudent and logical decisions. Sabharwal and Varma, 2016: 178) allude that “rational decision-making theory assumes that people will weigh the costs and benefits of the expected outcomes of a decision and have all the necessary information in order to make the final choice”.

They further explain that rational choice typically involves the following steps: (i) identify the problem, that is, to know what the decision would achieve; (ii) generate alternatives, that is, come up with multiple alternatives by collecting necessary information and listing pros and cons of each alternative; (iii) select a solution, that is, rank the various alternatives and their consequences in importance to select the best

one; (iv) implement the solution, that is, take the action to execute the decision; and (v) evaluate the decision taken, that is, determine if the action got the desired outcome. It is proposed that the option with the highest value is selected. These decisions provide people with the greatest benefit or satisfaction given the choices available and are also in their highest self-interest (Levin and Migron, 2004). Levin and Migron (2004) further continue to say that this theory assumes that all people try to actively maximize their advantage in any situation and therefore consistently try to minimize their losses.

This approach is relevant to the African graduates overseas specifically Nigerians, Kenyans and South Africans who are reluctant to go back to their home countries after completing their studies in that, “individuals rationally decide to immigrate, by evaluating the costs and benefits and eventually choosing the option that is anticipated to bring most earnings (Tunali, 2000). Similarly, Ryo (2013) explains that migrants are seen as rational actors, as their decision to immigrate is the result of a cost-benefit evaluation. Much of the current literature on international students’ postgraduate migration intentions/decisions emphasizes the role of macro-level push-pull factors such the state and its institutions, and micro-level push-pull factors such as social ties, as well as personal, economic, and professional factors (Alberts and Hazen, 2005; 2). However, individuals are not only motivated by push and pull factors but their personal wants and goals and are driven by personal desires.

Conversely, Muntanyola-Saura (2014) argues that RTC does not take into account any “unanticipated consequences”, given that humans are considered to be able to accurately predict the outcomes of their decisions/choices. Another argument against rational choice theory is that most people follow social norms, even when they’re not benefitting from adhering to them (OnlineMSW Program, 2022). Also, some critics say that rational choice theory doesn’t account for choices that are made due to situational factors or that are context dependent. However, Crossman (2020) writes that since it is not possible for individuals to attain all the various things that they want, they must make choices related to both their goals and the means for attaining those goals. Individuals must anticipate the outcomes of alternative courses of action and calculate which action will be best for them. In the end, rational individuals choose the course of action that is likely to give them the greatest satisfaction.

The WST and RCT complement each other as the former views the world as a whole but shaped by uneven relations such as economic political and social levels.

This means that there is a gap in living standards between developing countries and the richer economies in Western countries that have contributed to differentials in wages and influencing the migration of highly skilled individuals. Therefore, the slow economic growth in their developing countries and limited opportunities both in urban and rural areas has forced them to move abroad for “greener pastures”.

Borta (2007:19) writes that this is since economies became vulnerable to changes in the world market due to the structural inequality. Persisting situation of the acute balance of payment deficit, high external debt burden, declining terms of trade, increasing costs of imports, growing poverty and the International Monetary Fund/World Bank supported programmes of economic restructuring, liberalisation, and adjustment, have pushed for further migratory aspirations (Afolayan, 2001). Thus, as RTC suggests, people will make decisions not only driven by the push and pull factors but also the benefits that come with migration. In this case for instance, rationally deciding to emigrate to richer economy, complete their studies there with the hope to find a job that will enhance his/her own living standards but also of their family back at home through remittances.

4.3 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the migration theories that explain the micro and macro decision making process made by migrants immigrating to their destination of choice. It revealed that World System theory views migration as result of not only because of the globalization of the economic factors but also history that entails cultural factors. On the other hand, rational choice theory explains that migrants weight the costs and benefits of migration. The following chapter highlights the methodology used by the researcher to answer the research objective.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the approach the researcher employed to undertake the research and it explains the methodology which is composed of the research paradigm, design, population, sample and selection procedures, methods of data collection, data collection, data analysis techniques.

5.1 Research Paradigm and Philosophy

A research paradigm is “the set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed” (Kuhn, 1970). Although there are several paradigms or worldviews (e.g., post positivism, constructivism, participatory action frameworks, or pragmatism), they are all essentially philosophical in nature and encompass the following common elements: axiology—beliefs about the role of values and morals in research; ontology—assumptions about the nature of reality; epistemology—assumptions about how we know the world, how we gain knowledge, the relationship between the knower and the known; methodology—shared understanding of best means for gaining knowledge about the world; and rhetoric—shared understanding of the language of research (Creswell 2009; Lincoln et al. 2011 cited in Kaushik and Walsh, 2019). Each paradigm has a different perspective, and their elements are briefly discussed next and the appropriate one is selected for guiding this study.

5.1.1 Post- Positivism Perspective

Positivism (also known as logical positivism) holds that the scientific method is the only way to establish truth and objective reality. It emerged from the rejection of many central tenets informing the positivist paradigm (Phoenix, Osborne, Redshaw, Moran, Stahl-Timmins, Depledge, Fleming & Wheeler, 2013: 6). Gupta & Awasthy (2015 :6) alludes that positivism bear a resembles to post-positivist paradigm or philosophy in that “it encourages a concern for an objective form of knowledge that specifies the precise nature of laws, regularities, and relationships among phenomena measured in terms of social facts”. That noted, these two paradigms do share some common

ground. For example, ontologically, they both emphasise reality as being external. Epistemologically, knowledge is understood as being “objective (Gupta & Awasthy 2015 :6). “These paradigms differ in how issues of ontology and epistemology are negotiated. Specifically, post positivism developed from the perception that when it came to researching human experience, a phenomenon characterised by multiplicity and complexity, dualistic thinking is often inadequate. Thus, post-positivism assumes that all observations and measurements have a degree of error, and that researchers cannot operate outside of their biases” (Gupta & Awasthy 2015 :6).

5.1.2 Constructivism Perspective

Honebein (1996 cited in Adom, Ankrah and Yeboah (2016:2)) describes the constructivism philosophical paradigm as an approach that asserts that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. The basic assumptions guiding the constructivist paradigm are that knowledge is socially constructed by people active in the research process, and that researchers should attempt to understand the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it (Schwandt, 2000). The constructivist paradigm emphasizes that research is a product of the values of researchers and cannot be independent of them. The answers to the paradigm-defining questions for the constructivist approach are as follows (Adom, Ankrah and Yeboah, 2016:2).

5.1.3 Participatory Action Framework Perspective

Reason and Bradbury (2001: 1) define PAR as “a participatory, democratic process concerned with developing practical knowing in the pursuit of worthwhile human purposes.” Simply stated, this is a systematic approach that seeks knowledge for social action (Fals-Borda and Rahman 1991 cited in Ozanne and Saatcoglu, 2008). “Participatory Action Framework seeks to understand and improve the world by changing it. At its heart is collective, self-reflective inquiry that researchers and participants undertake, so they can understand and improve upon the practices in which they participate and the situations in which they find themselves. The reflective process is directly linked to action, influenced by understanding of history, culture, and local context and embedded in social relationships” (Baum, MacDougall, & Smith, 2006). Action Research paradigm it allows research and practice to coexist and co-

work simultaneously in problem solving (Akdere. 2003). Creswell, (2009 :9) posits that this paradigm holds an assumption that investigations need to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda. The study should contain a reform agenda that may benefit the participant, the institution and the researcher's life. Additionally, the research needs to address specific issues as well as pertinent social issues of the day, such as "empowerment, inequality, oppression, domination, suppression, and alienation" (Creswell, 2009: 9).

5.1.4 Pragmatism Perspective

According to Frey (2018), the pragmatic paradigm refers to a worldview that focuses on "what works" rather than what might be considered absolutely and objectively "true" or "real." The pragmatic paradigm emerged out of the desire to focus efforts on solving practical problems in the real world through inquiry (Biesta and Burbules, 2003). Feilzer (2010) averred that pragmatism world view relies heavily on the tenets of modern science, including the experimental method as a model for human problem-solving. "The goal, then, of pragmatic research is to utilize human experience as the primary means for building knowledge and understanding the world, as opposed to relying on absolute truths" (Hildebrand, 2011 cited in Allemang, Sitter, and Dimitropoulos, 2021: 39). Hildebrand (2011) continues to say that pragmatist view knowledge as is explicitly linked with experience. Pragmatism recognizes the importance of the physical, psychological, and social worlds, including culture, language, institutions, and subjective thoughts (Hildebrand, 2011).

5.1.5 Appropriate Research Philosophy for this Study

Pragmatism paradigm was selected for guiding this study, as it "supports the adoption of different methods of inquiry to address problems in the most appropriate way, recognizing that methodologies are tools used to aid in understanding the world" (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). Indeed, pragmatism allows for the use and mixing of different data sources based on the premise that their consequences are developed in the processes of the ongoing inquiry. It, therefore, serves as a paradigm accepting of mixed and multi method research (Hall, 2013; Dewey, 2008).

5.2 Research Approach

There are three common ways of conducting research namely, qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Gurmessa (2019:136) states that using a single strategy such as a survey is a disadvantage as it lacks the rigour to unravel data that cannot be detected using the quantitative data collection approach. For example, the survey strategy aimed at the gathering of quantitative data has not always been good at tapping the subjective dimension of behaviours (de Vaus, 2001: 11). Thus, this study adopted a mixed method for data collection. Mixed methods may be defined as ‘research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study’ (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007:4). The major characteristics of a mixed methods design include its sequencing, priority, mixing and structure of the quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Creswell & Plano Clark (2011) explains that the researcher needs to decide which study to conduct first and why, the priority or ‘emphasis’ given to each study, and when to mix the qualitative and quantitative strands. In terms of structure, a mixed methods design can have fixed and/or emergent elements.

Umpteen reasons have been identified for conducting a mixed methods research study. A review of theoretical and empirical literature by Greene, et al. (1989) identified five purposes for conducting mixed methods research designs. These are triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation, and expansion. On the other hand, Bryman (2006) in a later review of 232 social science mixed methods papers identified 16 reasons for conducting mixed methods studies (Doyle, Brady, and Byrne, 2009:178). Many of the rationales identified in Bryman’s (2006) analysis are similar to those identified by Greene, et al. (1989) although somewhat more detailed in manner (Doyle, et.al, 2009).” The main rationales or benefits proposed for undertaking a mixed methods study are as follows: Triangulation: this allows for greater validity in a study by seeking corroboration between quantitative and qualitative data. Completeness: using a combination of research approaches provides a more complete and comprehensive picture of the study phenomenon” (Doyle, et.al, 2009).

Bryman (2006) and Creswell, et al. (2003) elucidate that the offsetting weaknesses and providing stronger inferences: many authors argue that utilising a

mixed methods approach can allow for the limitations of each approach to be neutralised while strengths are built upon thereby providing stronger and more accurate inferences). Answering different research questions: Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) argue that mixed methods research helps answer the research questions that cannot be answered by quantitative or qualitative methods alone and provides a greater repertoire of tools to meet the aims and objectives of a study.

Furthermore, Sale, et al. (2002) identify how a combination of research approaches is useful because of the complex nature of phenomena and the range of perspectives that are required. Explanation of findings: mixed methods studies can use one research approach (i.e., quantitative, or qualitative) to explain the data generated from a study using the other research approaches. This is particularly useful when unanticipated or unusual findings emerge. For example, findings from a quantitative survey can be followed up and explained by conducting interviews with a sample of those surveyed to gain an understanding of the findings obtained. Illustration of data: using a qualitative research approach to illustrate quantitative findings can help paint a better picture of the phenomenon under investigation. Bryman (2006) suggests that this is akin to putting 'meat on the bones' of dry quantitative data. Hypotheses development and testing: a qualitative phase of a study may be undertaken to develop hypotheses to be tested in a follow-up quantitative phase. Instrument development and testing: a qualitative study may generate items for inclusion in a questionnaire to be used in a quantitative phase of a study.

In addition, mixed methods approach, enables the researcher to build the knowledge on pragmatic grounds (Creswell, 2003; Maxcy, 2003) asserting truth is "what works" (Howe, 1988) and its relevance to group of individuals to be studied, as well as variables and units of analysis, which are most appropriate for finding an answer to the research questions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

Creswell, Fetters and Ivankova (2004:7) argue that mixed methods research is more than simply collecting both qualitative and quantitative data; it implies that data are integrated, related, or mixed at some stage of the research process. They further stipulate that the underlying logic to mixing is that neither qualitative nor quantitative methods are sufficient in themselves to capture the trends and details of the situation...when used in combination, both qualitative and quantitative data yield a more complete analysis, and they complement each other.

5.3 Research Design

Creswell & Plano Clark (2007: 58) explain a research design as the “procedures for collecting, analyzing, interpreting and reporting data in research studies”. It is the overall plan for connecting the conceptual research problems with the pertinent (and achievable) empirical research (Lellisa, 2018). In other words, the research design sets the procedure on the required data, the methods to be applied to collect and analyze this data, and how all of this is going to answer the research question (Grey, 2014). This study used sequential explanatory mixed methods design, consisting of quantitative and qualitative in which the data are collected over the period of time in two consecutive phases (Creswell, 2002, 2003; Creswell et al., 2003).

In this design, according to Plano Clark (2011) consists of first collecting quantitative data and then collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and results provide a general picture of the research problem; more analysis, specifically through qualitative data collection is needed to refine, extend, or explain the general picture (Subedi, 2016). As discussed earlier, this design consists of two distinct phases: quantitative followed by qualitative (Creswell, 2003). In this design, a researcher first collects and analyzes the quantitative (numeric) data. The qualitative (text) data are collected and analyzed second in the sequence and help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results obtained in the first phase ((Subedi, 2016). The second, qualitative phase builds on the first, quantitative phase, and the two phases are connected in the intermediate state in the study. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and their qualitative data and their analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participants view in more depth ((Subedi, 2016).

In quantitative research, the research relies on the statistical data. Bryman (2001) argues that quantitative research approach is the research that places emphasis on numbers and figures in the collection and analysis of data. Data (numbers, percentages, and measurable figures) can be calculated and conducted by a computer using a statistical package (Gorard, 2001, Connolly, 2007) which saves lot of energy and resources. Apuke (2017) says quantitative research involves the utilization and analysis of numerical data using specific statistical techniques to answer questions like who, how much, what, where, when, how many, and how.

Expanding on this definition, Aliaga, and Gunderson (2002 cited in Apuke, 2017:41), defines quantitative research methods as the explaining of an issue or phenomenon through gathering data in numerical form and analyzing with the aid of mathematical methods; in particular statistics.

Alternatively, qualitative research is focused on how people feel, what they think and why they make certain choices. Qualitative research is therefore concerned with aspects of reality that cannot be quantified, focusing on the understanding and explanation of the dynamics of social relations (Almeida, 2017; 370). Maxwell (2013) elucidates that qualitative research works with the universe of meanings, motives, aspirations, beliefs, values, and attitudes, which corresponds to a deeper space of relationships, processes and phenomena that cannot be reduced to the operationalization of variables. Conger (1998), states that qualitative research is important because of its flexibility to follow unexpected ideas during research and explore processes effectively for in depth and longitudinal explorations of social phenomenon.

Thus, in this the researcher collected quantitative data and analyzed it first which was the first phase. In the second phase of the qualitative data collection, the samples were taken from the quantitative samples, data collected and finally analyzed. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and results provide a general picture of the research problem while the qualitative data and its analysis will refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participants' views in more depth (Ivankova, 2002).

Qualitative Research Vs. Quantitative Research

Criteria	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Purpose	To understand & interpret social interactions.	To test hypotheses, look at cause & effect, & make predictions.
Group Studied	Smaller & not randomly selected.	Larger & randomly selected.
Variables	Study of the whole, not variables.	Specific variables studied
Type of Data	Words, images, or objects.	Numbers and statistics.

Collected		
Form of Data Collected	Qualitative data such as open-ended responses, interviews, participant observations, field notes, & reflections.	Quantitative data based on precise measurements using structured & validated data-collection instruments.
Type of Data Analysis	Identify patterns, features, themes.	Identify statistical relationships.
Objectivity and Subjectivity	Subjectivity is expected.	Objectivity is critical.
Role of Researcher	Researcher & their biases may be known to participants in the study, & participant characteristics may be known to the researcher.	Researcher & their biases are not known to participants in the study, & participant characteristics are deliberately hidden from the researcher (double blind studies).
Results	Particular or specialized findings that is less generalizable.	Generalizable findings that can be applied to other populations.
Scientific Method	Exploratory or bottom-up: the researcher generates a new hypothesis and theory from the data collected.	Confirmatory or top-down: the researcher tests the hypothesis and theory with the data.
View of Human Behavior	Dynamic, situational, social, & personal.	Regular & predictable.
Most Common Research Objectives	Explore, discover, & construct.	Describe, explain, & predict.
Focus	Wide-angle lens; examines the breadth & depth of phenomena.	Narrow-angle lens; tests a specific hypothesis.

Nature of Observation	Study behavior in a natural environment.	Study behavior under controlled conditions; isolate causal effects.
Nature of Reality	Multiple realities; subjective.	Single reality; objective.
Final Report	Narrative report with contextual description & direct quotations from research participants.	Statistical report with correlations, comparisons of means, & statistical significance of findings.

Source: Johnson, & Christensen, 2008, p. 34; Lichtman, 2006, p 7-8; Xavier University Library, 99/05/2022)

5.5 Population and Sampling

This section focuses on the population and sampling techniques the researcher will adopt the course of the study.

5.5.1 Population

Polit and Hungler (1999:37) refer to the population as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications. Babbie (2002:109) referred to the population sample as that group which is viewed as the most appropriate for data collection. In this study, the population consisted of Africans from the sub- Saharan Africa specifically Nigerians, Kenyans, and South Africans, both female and male who have graduated with masters or Doctorate from universities in the U.S and decided to stay in their host country upon completion of their studies. In addition, the target population was African graduates who had completed their masters or Doctorate degree and have been staying in the U.S for 5 years or more. However, since the population was difficult to locate, the researcher decided to include even Africans who have stayed a year or more in the host country after completing their studies.

5.5.2 The Eligibility Criteria

The eligibility criteria are a “set of predefined characteristics used to identify subjects who will be included in a research study. Inclusion criteria, along with exclusion criteria, make up the selection or eligibility criteria used to rule in or out the

target population for a research study” (Salkind, 2010). The eligibility criteria in this study were that the participants had to:

- be citizens in their country of origin
- have graduated from any credited university in their home country
- have graduated with a masters or doctorate degree from any accredited University in the U.S.
- Have stayed a year or more in the U.S after completion of their studies

5.6 Sampling Procedures

“Sampling is the selection of a subset of the population of interest in a research study. In the vast majority, of research endeavours, the participation of an entire population of interest is not possible, so a smaller group is relied upon for data collection” (Dana, Turner, Hao, Timothy, and Houle, 2020). In other words, sampling allows researchers to obtain enough data to answer the research question(s) without having to query the entire population saving time and money (My Dissertation Coach, 2020). Therefore, time was saved by choosing a sample to be studied rather than attempting to study the entire population of African graduates who decided to stay in the host country after completing their studies. Also, obtaining data from the population of African graduates who decided to stay in the U.S after completion of their studies would have been impossible to accomplish within the time-frame constraints available for conducting this research.

5.6.1 Non-Probability Sampling

According to Rahi (2017:3), non-probability sampling is the sampling approach in which the chance or probability of each unit to be selected is not known or confirmed. Bless and Smith 2000) indicate that it is a research sampling where samples are gathered in a process that does not give all the individuals in the population equal chances of being selected. This means that not all African graduates who decided to stay in the U.S upon completion of their studies were selected. The researcher selected the participants based on a non-probability sampling method confined within a few rationally chosen fundamental characteristics. One of the main traits of the non-probability sampling techniques is that it involves judgement by the researcher when selecting the participants instead of randomization.

As a result, non-probability sampling was chosen for this research as it enabled the researcher to choose the most relevant participants for this study. There are four types of non-probability sampling namely, convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, and snow-ball sampling. For this topic, under study, snowball sampling accompanied by purposive sampling will be utilized to locate key participants that fit the criteria and relevant to the study.

5.6.2 Snowball Accompanied by Purposive Sampling

Crossman (2019) refers snowball sampling as a non-probability sampling technique (which includes purposive sampling) in which a researcher begins with a small population of known individuals and expands the sample by asking those initial participants to identify others that should participate in the study. This sampling method is appropriate when the members of a special population are difficult to locate for example, migrant workers (Showkat and Parveen, 2017). In this study, the researcher identified four individuals who fit the criteria and were willing to participate. These individuals also knew other relevant willing participants who fit their criteria and helped the researcher to locate them. Those participants too referred the researcher to other individuals and so forth. Vogt (1999) corroborates the above assertions by stating that snowball sampling is a technique for finding research subjects and one subject gives the researcher the name of another subject, who in turn provides the name of a third, and so on.

Furthermore, purposive sampling is considered as helping the researcher to select the 'right' informants with the 'right' information. The researcher 'decides on whom to include in the sample' (Scheyvens and Storey, 1999: 43); with 'typical' characteristics of the target population. Since the relevant participants were difficult to locate, purposive sampling helped the researcher to find the potential participants through internet recruitment. These participants were chosen according to the criteria that have been set.

5.6.4 Sample Size

Lavrakas (2008) defines the sample size of a survey most typically as the number of units that were chosen from which data were gathered. In addition, "there is the designated sample size, which is the number of sample units selected for contact or data collection" Lavrakas (2008). In this study, the targeted sample size was 100 from

each country summing it up to 300 under quantitative data collection method. However, only 224 respondents participated: 59 South Africa, 79 from Kenya and 86 from Nigeria. Under the qualitative data collection, 21 respondents; 7 from South Africa, 7 from Kenya and 7 from Nigeria were given sent the online questionnaire.

5.6.3 Research Site

The study location is the U.S. The survey questionnaire from both quantitative and qualitative was administered online to collect data.

5. 7 Data Collection Method

Data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information on variables of interest, in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses and evaluate outcome (Kabir, 2016: 202). In deciding on the method of data collection, there are two categories for instance primary and secondary data (Douglas, 2015). Secondary data is every dataset not obtained by the author, or “the analysis of data gathered by someone else” (Boslaugh, 2007: IX) to be more specific. Secondary data may include data that has been previously gathered and is under consideration to be reused for new questions, for which the data gathered was not originally intended (Vartanian, 2010 cited in Martins, da Cunha and Serra, 2018:2). Sources of secondary may include books, records, biographies, newspapers, published censuses or other statistical data, data archives, internet articles, research articles by other researchers (journals), databases and so on. On the other hand, primary data is an original and unique data, which is directly collected by the researcher from a source such as observations, surveys, questionnaires, case studies and interviews according to his requirements (Ajayi, 2017). Ajayi continues to explain that primary data is collected with an aim for getting solution to the problem at hand.

For this research, the researcher decided two major sources of primary data collection: a survey and interview questionnaire through virtual networking platforms. Secondary data was collected through government publications, websites, books, journal articles, internal records (Ajayi, 2017).

5.7.1 (Online) Survey

Survey research is also defined as a method of descriptive research used for collecting primary data based on verbal or written communication with a

representative sample of individuals or respondents from the target population (Mathiyazghagan and Nandan, 2010: 34). Ajayi (2017) elucidates that survey method is one of the primary sources of data which is used to collect quantitative information about items in a population. Surveys are used in different areas for collecting the data even in public and private sectors. A survey may be conducted in the field by the researcher. In addition, Kerlinger (1973) considered survey research as social scientific research and focuses on people, the vital facts of people, and their beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motivations, and behaviour. It has been further clarified by Parten (1950 cited in Mathiyazghagan and Nandan, 2010: 34) that the social scientific nature of the survey research is revealed by the nature of its variables which can be classified as sociological facts, opinions, and attitudes.

In this study, an online survey was utilized whereby a questionnaire was coded and distributed to the participants who had been identified as relevant for the study. As stated previously that this study employed mixed research methods, there were two phases: Quantitative and qualitative phases. The Online survey falls under the quantitative survey. There are many online survey tools available on the web freely as well as proprietary versions. Capterra. and Google forms were used for this study. The Google Forms is a cloud-based data management tool used for designing and developing web-based questionnaires. This tool is provided by Google Inc¹⁰., and freely available on the web to anyone to use and create web-based questionnaires. Vasantha & Harinarayana, (2016) allude that “once the questionnaire is ready, it needs to be hosted on the web and one can generate automatic Web URL for the questionnaire and send the link to the intended participants (study sample) of the survey”. Vasantha & Harinarayana (2016) further posit that usually online forums, social networking sites such as Facebook and e-mail contacts are used for sending web questionnaire.

As a result, the researcher used virtual networking groups namely Facebook, twitter, and Instagram to identify the targeted population that fits the criteria of the research. On the virtual settings, the researcher searched for group pages and hashtags for example, “South Africans in the United States”, “Nigerians in the United States” and “Kenyans in the United States. Once the potential participants were identified in group pages or individually, the researcher contacted them by sending each a private message to check if they fit the criteria. Those participants who fit the eligibility criteria, with their consent and willingness to participate, the researcher sent

them a link to fill in the online survey and asked them to refer other potential participants they knew who fell under the same criteria (online and offline). These participants also shared online survey link on their social media pages. Further, some participants who were referred by other participants who the researcher had contacted through virtual networking platforms preferred to access the online survey link through electronic mail. Thus, some participants would email the researcher and ask that the online survey link be sent to them, or the researcher would ask the potential participants to provide their personal email so that the online survey link is sent to them. The survey questionnaire was anonymous, and participants were guaranteed that the information that they provide will be used for academic purpose only.

5.7.2 Open-ended (Online) Questionnaire

Similarly, to a survey, a questionnaire obtains information from intended participants. However, a questionnaire is different from a survey in that A questionnaire is defined as a specific list of questions with options for the audience to respond. Drag'n Survey (2014) averred that a questionnaire is often described as a collection of questions designed to collect information from participants for research purposes. Each question has a way for the respondent to give their answers. This could be in a form of a quantitative answer or a qualitative response. In this study, the researcher decided to employ an online questionnaire. The questionnaire falls under the qualitative method, and this means that it is phase two of the data collection. Initially, the researcher wanted to have an online interview with the participants so that she can be able to probe to further generate understanding of their answers. However, majority of them were hesitant and unwilling to have an interview hence the researcher opted for an online questionnaire where participants were made to feel that they can remain anonymous and therefore express their opinions sincerely and honestly as they can. The sample under qualitative data collection was derived from the quantitative survey. The questionnaire was a combination of both open ended and closed ended questions.

Moreover, the research participants sample was derived from the quantitative sample. In other words, the researcher re-contacted the relevant participants for the study from the quantitative sample. Therefore, the findings from quantitative survey were followed up and explained by conducting a qualitative online questionnaire to gain in-depth understanding of the findings obtained. Purposive sampling was employed.

5.8 Data Analysis

Marshall and Rossman (1999:150) describe data analysis as the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. It is described as messy, ambiguous, and time-consuming, but also as a creative and fascinating process. Broadly speaking - while it does not proceed in linear fashion -it is the activity of making sense of interpreting and theorizing data that signifies a search for general statements among categories of data (Schwandt, 2007:6). In short, data analysis is a method of putting facts and figures to solve the research problem.

5.8.1 First phase- Quantitative Analysis

After the researcher collected the data from research participants, she created an excel spread sheet in which rows and columns consisted of cases; participants were shown in the row and variables indicated in the column. The spread sheet was created based on the responses from African graduates who decided to stay in the U.S after completing their studies and consisted of general demographics variables and Likert scale items, the raw data was then imported in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. After the researcher made sure that the data was entered correctly and ready for analysis, she generated statistical results using appropriate statistical domain to get the results presented in Chapter 5. Thus, Data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 26.0. Data analysis was conducted using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics entailed the use of frequencies, percentages and measures of central tendency which involved the mean. Inferential statistics, specifically the one-sample t-test, was used to determine the significant Likert Scale responses from an indifferent point of neutrality (Test Value=3). Results of the quantitative analysis were presented using tables.

5.8.2 Second Phase-Qualitative Analysis

The researcher analyzed data using qualitative method known as conceptual analysis which is another form of content analysis. Content analysis is a technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages (Babbie,2001). According to the Mailman School of Public Health, Content analysis is a research tool used to determine the presence of certain words, themes, or concepts within some given qualitative data (i.e., text). Using

content analysis, researchers can quantify and analyze the presence, meanings, and relationships of such certain words, themes, or concepts (Mailman School of Public Health). Palmquist (1993) cited in Babbie (2001), the process of conceptual analysis compresses eight steps namely, deciding on the level of process of analysis, deciding how many concepts to code for, deciding whether to code the existence of a concept, deciding how to distinguish among concepts, developing rules for the coding texts, deciding what to do with the irrelevant information, coding texts and analyzing results.

Thus, first the researcher must decide on the level of process of analysis from the data set which the researcher has collected, choice of “content” need to clearly be defined and justified. Before initiation of data preparation, researcher needs to know the answers to the following questions: all the data collected be transcribed or not, should verbalizations be transcribed literally and should observations be transcribed as well. Answers to these questions are dependent on the objectives of the study. However, everything should be transcribed at the start to save time during analysis.

Secondly, one should decide on how many concepts to code. For instance, he/she should classify the content into themes which can be a word, phrase or a sentence. When deciding the unit of analysis, one theme should present an “idea”. This means the data related to the theme has to be added under that unit. Furthermore, unit or themes should be based on the objectives of the study. Thirdly, one should decide whether to code the existence of a concept. This is derived from three sources, the primary data, theories on similar topic and empirical studies. Since the qualitative content analysis can be based on both inductive and deductive approach, the categories and codes need to be developed based on the approach adopted. Thus, it is important to evaluate secondary sources to stimulate original ideas. To ensure consistency in the codes, the categories as per their properties with examples must be defined.

In this next step, the researcher must decide on how to distinguish among concepts. Pre-testing qualitative data is important. To ensure consistency, the researcher needs to code the sample of existing data. If the level of consistency is low, then re-coding has to be done again. Further, this step requires the researcher to develop rules for the coding texts. After the coding consistency in the previous stage, it is important to apply the coding process to the data. The following step the researcher has to decide what to do with the irrelevant information; After coding the whole data set validity and reliability should be checked.

The seventh step is coding texts. In this step, one must draw inferences based on codes and categories generated. It is important to explore the properties, dimensions and identify the relationship and uncover patterns to present the analysis. And finally, analyzing results; to present the results under each theme with conclusions, the results should be supported by secondary data and quotes from the developed code. Further, based on the analysis, the researcher can also present the results in the form of graphs, matrices, or conceptual frameworks. The results should be presented in such a way that the reader is able to understand the basis of interpretations.

In this study, the researcher analysed the qualitative data manually since there were only 21 respondents. The questionnaires were printed out and the researcher followed all the above steps of conceptual content analysis. In a nutshell, narrative theme analyses were employed to find major themes and patterns in the questionnaire by looking for similarities and differences among them. These themes were derived from objectives of the study. The results of the qualitative data are presented in Chapter 5 in tables direct quotes from the respondents. Roller and Lavrakas (2015) emphasis that the use of quotes or verbatims from participants is a typical and necessary component to any qualitative research report. They continue to say that it is by revealing participants' exact language that the researcher helps the user of the research to understand the key takeaways by clarifying through illustration the essential points of the researcher's interpretations.

5.9 Quality Measures-Validity and Reliability

Trustworthiness is the utmost importance in research. The methods used by quantitative and qualitative researchers to establish trustworthiness differ in many ways (Malak, 2012). Validity in quantitative research aims to "approximate the truth of an inference" (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002, p. 34). Shadish, Cook, and Campbell (2002) posit that when researchers claim something is valid, they are examining whether the inferences are true based on the data that was collected to support their claims (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). For quantitative researchers, the methods used to establish trustworthiness include internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity. Internal validity refers to the extent to which the

independent variable can accurately be stated to produce the observed effect (Hufford,2021). If the effect of the dependent variable is only due to the independent variable(s) then internal validity is achieved. This is the degree to which a result can be manipulated (Hufford, 2021).

Shadish, Cook, & Campbell (2002) defines external validity as the extent to which the causal relationships can be generalized to distinct samples of the population, settings, treatments, and outcomes). There are five external validity threats that can help explain why the causal relationship between two variables may be incorrect: interaction of the causal relationship with units, interaction of the causal relationship over treatment variations, interaction of the causal relationship with outcomes, interactions of the causal relationship with settings, and context-dependent mediation (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Perez, 2019:12).

For qualitative researchers, the methods used to establish trustworthiness include credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Malak, 2012). Validity is concerned with whether the research is believable and true and whether it is evaluating what it is supposed or purports to evaluate (Zohrabi, 2013). Mohamad et al. (2015) opined that validity relates to the appropriateness of any research value, tools and techniques, and processes, including data collection and validation. Validity also establishes the soundness of the methodology, sampling process, data analysis process, and conclusion of the study (Golafshani, 2003).

In this regard, Burns (1999:160) stresses that “validity is an essential criterion for evaluating the quality and acceptability of research.” To establish trustworthiness under the quantitative data, external validity method was used. Frost (2022) notes that external validity relates to the ability to generalize the results of the experiment to other people, places, or times. In a similar vein, Trochim (2022) defines external validity as an approximate truth of conclusions that involve generalizations. To put in more simple terms, Trochim (2022) notes that external validity is the degree to which the conclusions in your study would hold for other persons in other places and at other times.

Thus, the researcher took into consideration the relevant theories to guide her generalization that helped to elucidate the factors that matter. An effective assessment of the literature of a no return of highly skilled professionals was done to understand which process can work. To reduce biases, online surveys were used which allowed anonymity and avoided questions that may influence the participant to answer in a

certain way the researcher had expected. In addition, the sample included only African graduates specifically from South Africa, Nigeria, and Kenya, who have completed their studies in their home countries and decided to go to the U.S and upon graduation stayed. Only participants who have remained in the U.S for more than a year or more after graduating were selected to avoid biases that created a base for valid results and accurateness of the research. Moreover, the validity of the questionnaire was established using the researcher's supervisor to review it and statements and questions that were irrelevant to the research topic were removed.

Further, one of the main requirements of any research process is the reliability of the data and findings. According to (Nunan, 1999:14) reliability deals with the consistency, dependability, and replicability of "the results obtained from a piece of research". Obtaining the similar results in quantitative research is rather straightforward because the data was in numerical form (Zohrabi,2013). However, in qualitative approaches to research, achieving the identical results are fairly demanding and difficult. It is because the data is in narrative form and subjective. Lincoln and Guba (1985: 288) point out that instead of obtaining the same results, it is better to think about the dependability and consistency of the data. Therefore, in this case the purpose was not to attain the same results rather to agree that based on the data collection processes the findings and results are consistent and dependable. Merriam (1998: 206) believes that "the human instrument can become more reliable through training and practice."

Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Merriam (1998) show that the dependability of the results can be ensured using three techniques: the investigator's position, triangulation and audit trial. The investigator's position increases the reliability of the research and explain explicitly the different processes and phases of the inquiry. Therefore, the researcher should elaborate on every aspect of the study. He/She should describe in detail the rationale of the study, design of the study and the subjects. Triangulation is the use different procedures such as questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations to collect data. Collecting varied types of information through different sources can enhance the reliability of the data and the results. In this way the replication of the study can be carried out easily. In order to fulfill this audit trial procedure, the researcher should describe in detail how the data are collected, how they are analyzed, how different themes are derived and how the

results are obtained to fulfill this procedure. Therefore, this detailed information can help replicate the research and contribute to its reliability.

To establish reliability, the researcher first recorded the qualitative data manually in the table using Microsoft Excel Spread sheet and update the results as they came. Using tables to record data assisted the researcher with interpreting the results as per the record of every participant to see the progress of the research. To assess the dependability, the audit trial was used in which the researcher used her kept notes of every decision they have taken regarding the research. This included what they have observed and thinks of any records kept. In addition, audit trial guided the researcher on how to proceed with the study, how to choose their sample and to consider ethical concerns. This also helped in conceptualising the study, collecting data, choosing codes carefully, analysing data, interpreting the findings and reporting them. The researcher's supervisor followed up on how the research was conducted and how the researcher reached to their conclusion. This assisted in making the dependability and conformability judgements.

6.0 Ethical Consideration

Showkat and Parveen, (2017) refer to research ethics as “doing what is morally and legally right in research. They are norms for conduct that distinguish between right and wrong, and acceptable and unacceptable behavior”. Before the actual research thesis commenced, the researcher obtained a certificate of ethical clearance from the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN) Ethics Committee after they had checked that the research study materials and procedures were up to the institution's code of conduct. An informed consent form was also provided to the participants in which they had to choose whether they want to participate or not prior to completing the online survey and questionnaire; the participation was free and voluntary. On the informed consent form, the potential participants were provided with relevant information such as the information about the study, time it will take to fill the questionnaire and the supervisors and the researcher's contact details.

In addition, the respondent's confidentiality and anonymity was respected. Confidentiality means that proper safeguards are in place to protect the privacy of participants and their information from unauthorized access, use, disclosure, modification, loss, and theft whereas anonymity means that at no time will the

researcher or anyone associated with the project know the identity of the participants (Ryerson University, 2015). Therefore, the researcher let the participants know that the data collected would be kept confidential and also, they are free to stop filling the questionnaire anytime for any reason. The participants were also informed that they can withdraw their information by contacting the researcher. In some instances, the participants were known but all the identifying information was removed in the report. The researcher made sure that the information collected through the online survey and questionnaire does not contain any identifiable information. To protect any threats to data privacy, steps were taken to safeguard it. After the data was collected and analysed, it was securely stored on a google drive data storage where the files are protected with a password that only the supervisor and the researcher can access them. Finally, the researcher acknowledged all the sources used in her research and make sure of this; the Turnitin programme was used to test the similarity index.

6.1 Summary

This chapter explained methods and approaches that were followed by the researcher while conducting this research. It elaborated on the research paradigm and its philosophies, research design, population and sampling, research site, online surveys used for data collection, data analysis tools. It also provided a broad understanding of validity and in both quantitative and qualitative research and reliability in qualitative research. Finally, ethical considerations followed while conducting this study.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA PRESENTATION

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from both quantitative and qualitative data. This chapter begins with the demographic information of the participants, followed by reasons and choice to study abroad, their decision to remain in the host country after completing their studies, their experiences they encountered and their attitude and perceptions while living in the U.S. This chapter is followed by chapter six which provides an in-depth discussion of the research findings.

Demographic information of the participants

Table 1.1 Respondents age, gender, race, marital status, home country and highest qualification

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Age	18-23	1	0.4%
	24-29	39	17.4%
	30-35	102	45.5%
	36-41	58	25.9%
	42-47	20	8.9%
	Above 47	4	1.8%
Gender	Male	106	47.3%
	Female	112	50.0%
	Prefer not to say	6	2.7%
Race	Black	206	92.0%
	White	14	6.2%
	Colored	3	1.3%
	Indian	1	0.4%
Marital Status	Single	128	57.1%
	Married	81	36.2%

	Divorced	15	6.7%
	Separated	0	0%
	Cohabiting	0	0%
	Other	0	0%
Home Country	Nigeria	86	38.4%
	Kenya	79	35.3%
	South Africa	59	26.3%

Table 1.1 above shows the demographics and general characteristics of the 224 respondents. From the findings, 45.5% (36 Nigerians, 39 Kenyans and 27 South Africans) of the respondents were aged 30-35 years, 25.9% of the respondents consisting of 23 Nigerians, 20 Kenyans and 15 South Africans were aged 36-41 years, 8.9% which included 8 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 5 South Africans were aged 42-47 years, 1.8% (3 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan, 0 South Africans) were aged above 47 years and 0.4% (1 South African, 0 Nigerians and 0 Kenyans) aged 18-23 years. Moreover, half, 50.0% of the respondents comprising of 38 Nigerians, 46 Kenyans and 28 South Africans were female; 47.3% (46 Nigerians, 30 Kenyans and 30 South Africans) were male and 2.7% of the participants (2 Nigerians, 3 Kenyans and 1 South African preferred not to indicate their gender.

Further, majority of the respondents, 92.0% of the respondents who comprised of 85 Nigerians, 78 Kenyans and 43 South Africans were of the black race, 6.2% (1 Nigerian, 0 Kenyan and 13 South Africans) were white, 1.3% (3 South Africans, 0 Kenyan, 0 Nigerians) were colored and 0.4% (1 Kenyan, 0 Nigerians and 0 South Africans) Indian. In addition, the findings on the table above also demonstrate that 57.1% of the participants consisting of 46 Nigerians, 46 Kenyans and 36 South Africans were single, 36.2% (35 Nigerians, 26 Kenyans, 20 South Africans) were married and 6.7% (5 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 3 South Africans) were divorced. None of the respondents, 0% (0) were separated.

It is also evident from the findings that 38.4% (86) of the respondents indicated that their home country is Nigeria, 35.3% (79) indicated that their home country is Kenya while 26.3% (59) indicated their home country as South Africa. The nationality of the respondents as indicated on their passport was 38.4% (86) Nigerians, 35.3% (79) Kenyans and 26.3% (59) South Africans. Additionally, most of the participants,

64.7% who comprised of 49 Nigerians, 51 Kenyans and 45 South Africans had a master's degree as their highest academic qualification, 35.3% (37 Nigerians, 28 Kenyans and 14 South Africans) had a doctorate. Majority of the respondents, 63.4% (67 Nigerians, 57 Kenyans and 18 South Africans) had earned a bachelor's degree only from their home country, 17.9% (15 Nigerians, 20 Kenyans and 5 South Africans) had earned a bachelor's and master's degree, 13.4% (30 South Africans, 0 Nigerians, and 0 Kenyans) had earned a bachelors and honors qualifications, 3.1% (6 South Africans, 1 Nigerian and 0 Kenyan) had earned a bachelor's, honors and master's degree from their home country while 2.2% (3 Nigerians, 2 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) had earned a master's degree only from their home country.

Examining quantitative data, the age distribution of the respondents, follows the general pattern of migration. Studies conducted in the field of migration point to the fact that the majority of those who migrate in search of economic opportunities are young. It is worth mentioning that in developing compounded with the high level of unemployment, poverty, and insecurity in country like Nigeria, there are many reasons to believe that when young people are confronted with these challenges, the remaining option is migration. It is apparent that the level of unemployment in Nigeria, Kenya and South Africa is growing.

Analyzing graduate migration and gender dynamics, it was interesting to find out that the number of females who decided to remain in the US was higher than that of males. This figure shows the new trend and changing nature of migration. Traditionally males were believed to be active migrating individuals since they were considered as breadwinners of the family and those left behind. Furthermore, the findings of this study point to the fact that Nigeria is a big contributor to no returning graduates. This can be justified by a number of factors. Nigeria is the biggest populous country in Africa whom the majority are young. In addition, compounded by the economic challenges, the majority of youth is unemployed with 33% hard to secure job opportunity (Nigeria Stata, 2021). South Africa seems to have low rate of graduate not returning. While economic opportunities are dwelling among youthful population, there is a reason to believe that in South Africa there still some opportunities compared to Nigeria and Kenya.

Qualitative interview included 21 respondents. Under the age category, the age groups ranged from 18-23 to above 47 years. Majority of the respondents 62%

(5 Nigerians, 5 Kenyans and 5 South Africans) and ranged from 30-35 years, followed by 28.5% of respondents (3 South Africans, 2 Nigerians and 1 Kenyan) who were between 36- 47 years and 9.5% of respondents (1 South African and 1 Kenyan) ranged from 18-23 years. Moreover, a large number of participants were 62% males (5 Nigerians, 4 Kenyans and 4 South Africans) while there were 38% of female respondents (3 South Africans, 3 Kenyans and 2 Nigerians). Under the race category, there were 85.7% Black participants of which 7 were from Nigeria, 7 were from Kenya and 4 were from South Africa, followed by 9.5% of white respondents (2 South Africans) and 4.8% of coloureds which consisted of 1 South African.

Further, the findings reveal that the marital status of the 21 respondents interviewed; 52% of them were single and consisted of 4 Nigerians, 4 Kenyans and 3 South Africans while 48% of the participants were married and were made up of 4 South Africans, 3 Nigerians and 3 Kenyans. In addition, there were 21 respondents of which 7 came from South Africa, Nigeria and Kenya and each constituted 33.3%. There were also 7 Nigerians, 7 South Africans and 7 Kenyans interviewed making a total of 21 respondents. Lastly, 66.7% of the respondents (5 Kenyans, 5 South Africans and 4 Nigerians) possessed master's degree while 33.3% (3 Nigerians, 2 South Africans and 2 Kenyans) obtained their doctorate.

Table 1.2 Respondent's qualifications earned in home country and abroad (U.S)

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Qualifications earned from home country	Bachelors	142	63.4%
	Honors	0	0%
	Masters	0	0%
	Doctorate	0	0%
	Bachelors and Honors	30	13.4%
	Bachelors and Masters	45	20.0%
	Bachelors, Honors and Masters	7	3.1%
	Bachelors, Honors, Masters, and Doctorate	0	0

	Bachelors, Masters, and Doctorate	0	0
	Bachelors	0	0%
	Honors	0	0%
	Masters	143	63.8%
Qualifications earned from	Doctorate	35	15.6%
US/Abroad	Bachelors and Masters	4	1.8%
	Bachelors, Masters, and Doctorate	3	1.3%
	Masters and Doctorate	39	17.4%

The findings above show that 63.8% (47 Nigerians, 50 Kenyans and 46 South Africans) earned a master's degree only from USA/Abroad, 17.4% comprising of 23 Nigerians, 11 Kenyans and 5 South Africans earned a master's and doctorate from USA, 15.6% (12 Nigerians, 15 Kenyans, and 8 South Africans) earned a doctorate only from USA/Abroad, 1.8% who included 2 Nigerians, 2 Kenyans and 0 South Africans earned bachelor's and master's from USA/Abroad, and 1.3% (2 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan and 0 South Africans) earned bachelor's, master's and doctorate from USA/Abroad.

The above figures clearly indicate that participants have benefited from studying abroad with prospects of job opportunity back into their country of origin. It is also worth mentioning that while higher qualification such as master's degree is key, it is also important to remember the level of unemployment among graduate with master's degrees and doctorate is also growing. This may be the motivating factor for graduate not returning to their home country. This will be explored and discussed later in this chapter.

Table 1.3 Respondent's age on arrival in the host country and upon completion of qualification in the host country

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
	18-23	6	2.7%
Age on arrival in the host country	24-29	165	73.7%
	30-35	53	23.7%
	36-41	0	0%

	42-47	0	0%
	Above 47	0	0%
<hr/>			
Age when you completed your highest educational qualification in the host country	18-23	0	0%
	24-29	74	33.0%
	30-35	134	59.8%
	36-41	16	7.1%
	42-47	0	0%
	Above 47	0	0%

Table 1.3 shows the distribution of respondent's age on arrival in host country and upon completion of their studies in host country. The findings indicate that 73.7% (59 Nigerians, 58 Kenyans and 48 South Africans) of the respondents were aged 24-29 years on arrival in the host country, 23.7% containing 22 Nigerians, 20 Kenyans and 11 South Africans were aged 30-35 years on arrival and 2.7% (5 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan and 0 South Africans) were aged 18-23 years on arrival. It is also evident that 59.8% (58 Nigerians, 47 Kenyans and 29 South Africans) were aged 30-35 years upon completion of the highest education qualification in the host country, 33.0% (21 Nigerians, 23 Kenyans, 30 South Africans) were aged 24-29 years when they completed the highest education qualification in their host country and 7.1% (7 Nigerians, 9 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) were aged 36-41 years upon completion of the highest education qualification in the host country.

Table 1.4 Respondents by area of specialisation

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Area of Specialization	Science	41	18.3%
	Technology and Engineering (SET)	49	21.9%
	Business and Economics	33	14.7%
	Health and Medical Sciences	36	16.1%
	Social Sciences and Humanities	65	29.0%

The findings demonstrate that 29.0% consisting of 27 Nigerians, 25 Kenyans and 13 South Africans of the participants have specialized in social sciences and humanities, 21.9% (21 Nigerians, 16 Kenyans and 12 South Africans) in technology and engineering (SET), 18.3% (16 Nigerians, 13 Kenyans and 12 South Africans) in science, 16.1% (13 Nigerians, 10 Kenyans and 13 South Africans) in health and medical sciences and 14.7% (9 Nigerians, 15 Kenyans and 9 South Africans) in business and economics.

Examining the area of specialization of the respondent, the majority have qualifications in more specialized area with prospects of securing better job opportunity abroad. For instance, the quest for specialized field such as health, technology, business, and economics can easily secure job opportunity in developed country like that in the US.

Table 1.5 Whether respondents completed their highest qualification on time in the host country?

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
Did you complete your highest qualification on time in the host country?	Yes	204	91.1%
	No	20	8.9%

The table above demonstrates the distribution of the number of respondents on whether they completed their highest qualification on time. It is apparent that majority, 91.1% (75 Nigerians, 71 Kenyans and 58 South Africans) of the respondents completed their highest qualification on time in the host country; 8.9% (11 Nigerians, 8 Kenyans and 1 South African) indicated that they did not complete their highest academic qualification on time in the host country. It is understandable that completing qualification on time was one of the missions of graduate since most of them have gone on scholarship. This means they had financial support that assisted them in concentrating on studies.

Table 1.6 Respondents responses on how long it took to complete academic qualification in the host country

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
How Long did it take you to complete your academic qualification in host country?	1-4 years	181	80.8%
	5-10 years	43	19.2%
	11-15 years	0	0%
	16-20 years	0	0%

The results manifest that 80.8% (63 Nigerians, 65 Kenyans and 53 South Africans) of the participants completed their academic qualification in host country in a period of 1-4 years; 19.2% (23 Nigerians, 14 Kenyans and 6 South Africans) completed in 5-10 years.

Table 1.7 Respondents on whether they got a job after obtaining highest qualification in the host country

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
After Completing your highest qualification in the host country, did you get a job?	Yes	205	91.5%
	No	19	8.5%

On whether the respondents got a job after completing their highest qualification in the host country, 91.5% (78 Nigerians, 72 Kenyans and 55 South Africans) indicated that they got a job while 8.5% (8 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 4 South Africans) indicated that they did not get a job.

Table 1.8 Respondent's response on the nature of job they got after completing studies

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
What kind of job did you get after completing your studies in your host country?	Job related to my field of study	94	42.0%
	Odd jobs	51	22.8%
	Odd jobs until you found a job in your field of study	68	30.4%
	Self-Employed	6	2.7%
	Unemployed	5	2.2%

The table above shows the distribution of respondent's on the nature of job they got after completing their studies. The nature of the job according to 42.0% (37 Nigerians, 27 Kenyans and 30 South Africans) of the respondents related to their field of study; 30.4% (21 Nigerians, 30 Kenyans and 17 South Africans) secured odd jobs until they found a job in their field of study, 22.8% (23 Nigerians, 18 Kenyans and 10 South Africans) secured odd jobs, 2.7% (4 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan and 1 South African) became self-employed after completing their studies. Conversely, 2.2% (1 Nigerian, 3 Kenyans and 1 South African) were unemployed after completing their studies in the host country.

Table 1.9 Respondent's monthly income in host country for their highest qualification

	Response	Frequency	Percentage
What is your monthly income in the host country?	\$500-1500	5	2.2%
	\$2000-3000	78	34.8%
	\$4000-5000	94	42.0%
	\$6000-7000	40	17.9%
	\$8000-9000	2	0.9%
	\$10000-20000	0	0%
	\$20000 or above	0	0%
	Unemployed	5	2.2%

The findings above indicate that 42.0% (37 Nigerians, 33 Kenyans, 24 South Africans) of the respondents had a monthly income of \$4000-5000 in the host country, 34.8% (27 Nigerians, 25 Kenyans and 26 South Africans) had a monthly income of \$2000-3000, 17.9% (21 Nigerians, 14 Kenyans and 5 South Africans) had a monthly income of \$6000-7000, 2.2% (4 Kenyans, 1 South African and 0 Nigerians) had a monthly income of \$500-1500, another 2.2% (1 Nigerian, 3 Kenyans, 1 South African) were unemployed while 0.9% (1 Nigerian, 1 South African and 0 Kenyans) had a monthly income of \$8000-9000.

Table 2.0 Respondent’s monthly income in home country for their highest qualification

	Count	%
Monthly income offered in the \$500-1500	95	42.4%
home country for your highest \$2000-3000	116	51.8%
qualification		
\$4000-5000	13	5.8%
\$6000-7000	0	0%
\$8000-9000	0	0%
\$10000-20000	0	0%
\$20000 or above	0	0%

Table 2.0 above shows the distribution of the number of respondent’s monthly income in home country for their highest qualification and slightly more than half, 51.8% (46 Nigerians, 35 Kenyans and 35 South Africans), of the respondents indicated that the monthly income offered in home country for their highest academic qualification is \$2000-3000, 42.4% (33 Nigerians, 40 Kenyans and 22 South Africans) indicated that the monthly income offered in home country is \$500-1500 while 5.8% (7 Nigerians, 4 Kenyans and 2 South Africans) indicated that \$4000-5000 is offered in home country for their highest academic qualification.

Table 2.1 Respondent's number of years worked in the host country

	Count	%	
	Less than a year	33	14.7%
	1-4 years	124	55.4%
How many years have you	5-10 years	56	25.0%
worked in host country?	11-15 years	6	2.7%
	16-20 years	0	0%
	Unemployed	5	2.2%

Majority of the respondents, 55.4% who include 46 Nigerians, 42 Kenyans and 36 South Africans have worked in the host country for 1-4 years; 25.0% who consisted of 25 Nigerians, 17 Kenyans and 14 South Africans have worked for 5-10 years, 14.7% (11 Nigerians, 16 Kenyans and 6 South Africans) have worked for less than a year, 2.7% (3 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan, 2 South Africans) have worked for 11-15 years and 2.2% (1 Nigerian, 3 Kenyans and 1 South African) are unemployed in the host country.

Table 2.2 Respondent's response whether they had family/relatives in the host country

	Count	%	
Do you have family or relatives in	Yes	107	47.8%
the host country?	No	117	52.2%

Table 2.2 demonstrates distribution of the number of respondents on whether they had a family or relatives in the host country. 47.8% (47 Nigerians, 33 Kenyans, and 27 South Africans) indicated that they have a family/relative in the host country while 52.2% (39 Nigerians, 46 Kenyans and 32 South Africans) indicated that they do not have a family/relative in the host country.

Table 2.3 Respondent's Reasons that contributed to their decision to move abroad and study in host country

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I Struggled to get a job in my country	121 (54.0%)	3 (1.3%)	1 (0.4%)	5 (2.2%)	94 (42.0%)
There are a lack of educational facilities in my country	65 (29.0%)	9 (4.0%)	11 (4.9%)	2 (0.9%)	137 (61.2%)
I was awarded a scholarship/financial assistance to study abroad	148 (66.1%)	3 (1.3%)	3 (1.3%)	2 (0.9%)	68 (30.4%)
Low wages/salaries in my home country	168 (75.0%)	13 (5.8%)	13 (5.8%)	1 (0.4%)	29 (12.9%)
Low standard of living in home country	154 (68.8%)	15 (6.7%)	15 (6.7%)	1 (0.4%)	39 (17.4%)
To progress in my current career path	208 (92.9%)	12 (5.4%)	2 (0.9%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.9%)
For personal benefit	210 (93.8%)	11 (4.9%)	2 (0.9%)	1 (0.4%)	0 (0.0%)
To progress to a higher-level qualification	211 (94.2%)	10 (4.5%)	2 (0.9%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.4%)
Political Instability in my home country	83 (37.1%)	12 (5.4%)	7 (3.1%)	10 (4.5%)	112 (50.0%)

The statement “I struggled to get a job in my country” as a reason for the decision to move abroad had 54.0% (50 Nigerians, 49 Kenyans and 22 South Africans) of the respondents who strongly agreed, 42.0% (33 Nigerians, 26 Kenyans and 35 South Africans) strongly disagreed, 2.2% (2 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan and 2 South Africans) disagreed, 1.3% (3 Kenyans, 0 Nigerians and 0 South Africans) agreed and 0.4% (1 Nigerian, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) was neutral.

From the responses, 61.2% (46 Nigerians, 51 Kenyans and 40 South Africans) strongly disagreed that one of the reason for their decision to move abroad was because there are a lack of educational facilities in their host country; 29.0% (32 Nigerians, 21 Kenyans and 12 South Africans) strongly agreed, 4.9% (5 Nigerians, 3 Kenyans and 3 South Africans) were neutral, 4.0% (1 Nigerian, 4 Kenyans and 4 South Africans) agreed and 0.9% (2 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) disagreed respectively to this reason. It is also evident that 66.1% (51 Nigerians, 60 Kenyans and 37 South Africans) of the respondents strongly agreed that they were awarded a scholarship/financial assistance to study abroad, thus being a reason for them to decide to move abroad; 30.4% (29 Nigerians, 17 Kenyans and 22 South Africans) strongly disagreed, 1.3% (2 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan and 0 South Africans) agreed, another 1.3% (3 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) were neutral and 0.9% (1 Nigerian, 1 Kenyan and 0 South Africans) disagreed.

Moreover, on “Low wages/salaries in my home country” as a reason for the decision to move abroad, 75.0% (69 Nigerians, 61 Kenyans and 38 South Africans) strongly agreed, 12.9% (9 Nigerians, 8 Kenyans and 12 South Africans) strongly disagreed, 5.8% (5 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 1 South African) agreed, another 5.8% (2 Nigerians, 3 Kenyans and 8 South Africans) were neutral and 0.4% (1 Nigerian, 0 Kenyans, o South Africans) disagreed. The findings also demonstrated that 68.8% (66 Nigerians, 53 Kenyans and 35 South Africans), 17.4% (11 Nigerians, 16 Kenyans and 12 South Africans), 6.7% (7 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 1 South African), 6.7% (11 South Africans, 3 Kenyans and 1 Nigerian) and 0.4% (1 Nigerian, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) of the respondents strongly agreed, strongly disagreed, agreed, were neutral and disagreed respectively that low standard of living in home country was a reason for the decision to move abroad and study in host country.

Furthermore, majority of the respondents, 92.9% (81 Nigerians, 70 Kenyans and 57 South Africans) strongly agreed that the reason that contributed for them to decide to move abroad and study in host country was to progress in their current career path; 5.4% (4 Nigerians, 6 Kenyans and 2 South Africans) agreed, 0.9% (2 Kenyans, 0 Nigerians and 0 South Africans) strongly disagreed, another 0.9% (1 Nigerian, 1 Kenyan and 0 South African) were neutral and none, 0.0% (0 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans, and 0 South Africans) disagreed. The findings also demonstrated that 93.8% (81 Nigerians, 70 Kenyans and 59 South Africans), 4.9% (4 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 0 South Africans), 0.9% (2 Kenyans, 0 Nigerians, 0 South Africans),

0.4% (1) and 0.0% (0 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) of the respondents strongly agreed, agreed, were neutral and disagreed respectively that they decided to move and study abroad for personal benefits.

It is clear from the findings that 94.2% (82 Nigerians, 71 Kenyans and 58 South Africans) of the respondents, who strongly agreed, made a decision to move and study abroad so as to progress to a higher level qualification; 4.5% (3 Nigerians, 6 Kenyans and 1 South African) agreed, 0.9% (1 Nigerian, 1 Kenyan and 0 South Africans) were neutral, 0.4% (1 Kenyan, 0 Nigerians and 0 South Africans) strongly disagreed while 0.0% (0 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans, and 0 South Africans) disagreed. Lastly, 50.0% (20 Nigerians, 49 Kenyans, 43 South Africans), 37.1% (60 Nigerians, 9 Kenyans and 14 South Africans), 5.4% (5 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 0 South Africans), 4.5% (9 Kenyans, 1 South African and 0 Nigerians) and 3.1% (1 Nigerian, 5 Kenyans, and 1 South African) of the respondents strongly disagreed, strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and were neutral respectively that political instability in their home country contributed to their decision to move and study abroad.

Furthermore, from a qualitative data point of view, scholarship opportunities, attraction from friends who were already in the US, quality of education in the US were central to the decision of graduates to migrate to the US. The statements read:

Respondent number 17: *“I moved to the U.S to study because I had received scholarship to further my studies”. –South Africa*

Respondent number 21: *“I decided to move and study in the US because my friends told me about employment opportunities they got after they completed their studies. I had hope that once I complete my post-graduate degree in America, it would maximize my chances of getting opportunities too.” -Kenya*

Respondent number 14: *“The U.S has one of the world’s best top universities and high standards of living and I think you can agree with me that most people, especially back at home wish to study abroad at some point in our lives because of the renowned education system here and this is a good investment for my future.” - Nigeria*

Table 2.4 Respondent’s reasons that contributed to their decision to stay in the host country

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Better opportunities than my country (96.0%)	215 (96.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (1.8%)	0 (0.0%)	5 (2.2%)
Better salary offer compared to my country (94.2%)	211 (94.2%)	4 (1.8%)	4 (1.8%)	1 (0.4%)	4 (1.8%)
Higher standard of living than my country (81.2%)	182 (81.2%)	18 (8.0%)	8 (3.6%)	0 (0.0%)	16 (7.1%)
Excellent delivery of services than my country (75.0%)	168 (75.0%)	16 (7.1%)	3 (1.3%)	1 (0.4%)	36 (16.1%)
Easy access of information in host country (51.8%)	116 (51.8%)	16 (7.1%)	5 (2.2%)	2 (0.9%)	85 (37.9%)
Better social life than my home country (46.0%)	103 (46.0%)	10 (4.5%)	15 (6.7%)	2 (0.9%)	94 (42.0%)

In table 2.4, participants were required to indicate their level of agreement/disagreement on some statements regarding the reasons contributing to African graduates’ decision to stay in the host country. The results indicate that 96.0% (83 Nigerians, 76 Kenyans and 56 South Africans) of the respondents strongly agree that better opportunities than my country contribute to their decision to stay in the host country; 2.2% (1 Nigerian, 3 Kenyans and 1 South African) strongly disagreed and 1.8% (2 Nigerians, 2 South Africans and 0 Kenyans) were neutral, 0.0% (0 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans, 0 South Africans) agreed and another 0.0% (0 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans, 0 South Africans) disagreed. Moreover, majority of the respondents, 94.2% (80 Nigerians, 77 Kenyans, 54 South Africans) indicate that better salary offer compared to their home country contributed to their decision to stay in the host country; 1.8% (4 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) agreed, 1.8% (1 Nigerian, 1 Kenyan and 2 South Africans) were neutral, 1.8% (3 South Africans, 1 Kenyan and 0 Nigerians) strongly disagreed and 0.4% (1 Nigerian, 0 Kenyans, and 0 South Africans) disagreed.

Additionally, 'higher standard of living than my home country' as a reason that contributed to African graduates' decision to stay in the host country had 81.2% (71 Nigerians, 62 Kenyans and 49 South Africans) strongly agree, 8.0% (9 Nigerians, 6 Kenyans and 3 South Africans) agree, 7.1% (5 Nigerians, 8 Kenyans and 3 South Africans) strongly disagree and 3.6% (4 South Africans, 3 Kenyans and 1 Nigerian) being neutral; 0.0% (0 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans, 0 South Africans) disagreed. Moreover, 75.0% (65 Nigerians, 56 Kenyans and 47 South Africans), 16.1% (11 Nigerians, 16 Kenyans and 9 South Africans), 7.1% (8 Nigerians, 6 Kenyans and 2 South Africans), 1.3% (1 Nigerian, 1 Kenyan and 1 South African) and 0.4% (1 Nigerian, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) of the respondents strongly agreed, strongly disagreed, agreed, were neutral and disagreed respectively that excellent delivery of services than their home country contributed to their decision to stay in the host country.

Evident from the findings is that 51.8% (49 Nigerians, 38 Kenyans and 29 South Africans) of the respondents strongly agreed that easy access of information in host country contributed to their decision to stay; 37.9% (26 Nigerians, 33 Kenyans and 26 South Africans) strongly disagreed, 7.1% (8 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 1 South African) agreed, 2.2% (1 Nigerian, 1 Kenyan and 3 South Africans) were neutral and 0.9% (2 Nigerians, 0 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) disagreed. Lastly, the findings also indicate that 46.0% (139 Nigerians, 34 Kenyans, 30 South Africans), 42.0% (38 Nigerians, 36 Kenyans and 20 South Africans), 6.7% (6 Nigerians, 3 Kenyans and 6 South Africans), 4.5% (3 Nigerians, 5 Kenyans and 2 South Africans) and 0.9% (1 Kenyan, 1 South African and 0 Nigerians) of the respondents strongly agreed, strongly disagreed, were neutral, agreed and disagreed respectively that better social life than their home country contributed to their decision to stay in the host country.

Examining qualitative data, three major factors came into play. It is evident that graduates who migrated to the US were young and single. While in the US some were able to marry those already in the US with permanent residence status. Other factor was the lack of job opportunity back home. Safety was also another major concern. It is important to note that there is a growing trend of insecurity in Kenya, South Africa and Nigeria. Kenya in recent year, experienced numerous terror attacks, same to Nigeria. In South Africa the growing level of criminality might also influence the decision of graduates not to return home. The statements below illustrate participants view and read:

Respondent number 10: “After I completed my studies, I got married and started a family. My husband also got a job here and I decided to enrol in a PhD program.” ~ Kenya

Respondent number 3: I did not want to go home because I had not secured a job yet and I knew how difficult is to get one. So, I decided to look for a job and got an internship that was related my program that allowed me to stay in the U.S while I looked for a job that pays well.” ~ Nigeria

Respondent number 16: “The well-being of individuals, employment earnings, civic engagement, safety, and environmental quality are much better in America than the compared to South Africa. I love it here.” South Africa

Respondent number 7: “As a member of the LGBTIQ community, I experienced a lot of challenges in my country. We are not protected against discrimination and it’s hard living in an unfriendly environment like that as you cannot live your truth, like you have to be discreet and respectful about your sexual orientation. I am not insinuating that America is perfect but I’m better off living here and not in my country.” ~ Kenya

Table 2.5 Respondent’s experiences after deciding to remain abroad upon completion of studies

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I get jobs related to my academic qualifications	119 (53.1%)	7 (3.1%)	20 (8.9%)	13 (5.8%)	65 (29.0%)
I feel lonely in host country	44 (19.6%)	20 (8.9%)	53 (23.7%)	5 (2.2%)	102 (45.5%)
I get better opportunities compared to my home country	184 (82.1%)	20 (8.9%)	9 (4.0%)	3 (1.3%)	8 (3.6%)
Easy access of information in host country	183 (81.7%)	14 (6.2%)	9 (4.0%)	0 (0.0%)	18 (8.0%)
I have a lot of stress in host country compared to when i am in my country	65 (29.0%)	37 (16.5%)	72 (32.1%)	7 (3.1%)	43 (19.2%)

I feel happier in my host	41	89		
country	74 (33.0%)	(18.3%)	(39.7%)	4 (1.8%) 16 (7.1%)

According to the findings, 53.1% (47 Nigerians, 34 Kenyans and 38 South Africans) of the respondents strongly agreed that they get jobs related to their academic qualifications; 29.0% (23 Nigerians, 28 Kenyans, 14 South Africans) strongly disagreed, 8.9% (8 Nigerians, 8 Kenyans, 4 South Africans) were neutral, 5.8% (5 Nigerians, 6 Kenyans and 2 South Africans) disagreed and 3.1% (3 Nigerians, 3 Kenyans and 1 South African) agreed. The findings also indicate that 45.5% (31 Nigerians, 34 Kenyans and 37 South Africans), 23.7% (27 Nigerians, 15 Kenyans and 11 South Africans), 19.6% (17 Nigerians, 20 Kenyans and 7 South Africans), 8.9% (9 Nigerians, 8 Kenyans, and 3 South Africans) and 2.2% (2 Nigerians, 2 Kenyans, and 1 South African) of the respondents strongly disagreed, were neutral, strongly agreed, agreed and disagreed respectively that they feel lonely in the host country.

Furthermore, it is also clear that majority, 82.1% (165 Nigerians, 69 Kenyans and 50 South Africans), of the respondents strongly agreed that they get better opportunities in the host country as compared to their home country; 8.9% (10 Nigerians, 6 Kenyans and 4 South Africans) agreed, 4.0% (3 Nigerians, 3 Kenyans and 3 South Africans) were neutral, 3.6% (6 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan and 1 South African) strongly disagreed and 1.3% (2 Nigerians, 1 South African and 0 Kenyans) disagreed. Majority of the participants, 81.7% (73 Nigerians, 65 Kenyans and 45 South Africans) strongly agreed that they experience easy access of information in host country; 8.0% (2 Nigerians, 5 Kenyans and 11 South Africans) strongly disagreed, 6.2% (8 Nigerians, 5 Kenyans and 1 South African) agreed, and 4.0% (3 Nigerians, 4 Kenyans and 2 South Africans) were neutral.

From the findings, it can be seen that 32.1% (35 Nigerians, 19 Kenyans and 18 South Africans), 29.0% (25 Nigerians, 26 Kenyans and 14 South Africans), 19.2% (8 Nigerians, 13 Kenyans and 22 South Africans), 16.5% (16 Nigerians, 20 Kenyans and 1 South African) and 3.1% (2 Nigerians, 1 Kenyan and 4 South Africans) were neutral, strongly agreed, strongly disagreed, agreed, and disagreed respectively that they have a lot of stress in the host country. Also evident is that 39.7% (35 Nigerians, 32 Kenyans and 22 South Africans), 33.0% (22 Nigerians, 26 Kenyans and 26 South Africans), 18.3% (21 Nigerians, 12 Kenyan and 8 South Africans), 7.1% (6 Nigerians, 7 Kenyans and 3 South Africans) and 1.8% (2 Nigerians, 2 Kenyans and 0 South

Africans) of the respondents were neutral, strongly agreed, agreed, strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively that they feel happier in their host country.

Examining participants response of their lived experience after deciding to stay in the US, it was evident that most of them had good experience and their expectations seemed to have been met and on the other hand, there were some who were not satisfied. The statements read:

Respondent number 17: *“I was offered a job after completing my studies and that was what I prayed for while studying for my degree. I didn’t want to go home yet but also did not want to have any trouble with my visa. When they offered me a job I was so grateful because it meant financial security and collaborating with many researchers in my field which is very important in academia” ~ Nigeria*

Respondent number 6: *“It feels great to have a job that affords me the life I’ve always wanted. There are so many opportunities in the U.S if you go to the right places and seek them. Just like my home country, America has its own challenges, but I would rather be here for now, and make more money while I still can than to be at home wondering if next month’s expenses will be covered by my monthly salary.” ~South Africa*

Respondent number 7: *“Despite being financially stable, I love the fact that I have the freedom to be and live authentically without hiding who I am. I love socializing with like-minded people who create a safe space and embrace me” ~Kenya.*

Respondent number 14: *“I miss home. Even though I have relatives to visit here, I miss my family, my mom, and siblings. I cry sometimes when I am alone because I know I can’t board a plane and see them whenever I want. Life here can be lonely but most of us are here to improve our lives and that of our families”. ~Kenya*

Respondent number 6: *“I have never lived in metropolis cities; I am a rural boy. After completing my studies, I got a job in a big city, and everything here is fast paced and I am not used to this lifestyle. I prefer a quiet place and where I reside is a complete opposite, it’s overwhelming me.” ~ South Africa*

Respondent number 12: *“Most of us know that America is diversified, multicultural and exceptional but being an African migrant living in America can be hard because they reduce you to the colour of your skin. It’s a harsh reality but we are used to it. When you are Nigerian, it is even worse because everywhere we go in the*

world, they discriminate us based on our nationality, but we have to stay strong and continue to work hard because we are resilient”- Nigeria

Respondent number 13: *“I have been trying to get my husband to America for almost a year and 4 months, but the USCIS has been giving me the run around and COVID-19 slowed down the process. It was such a draining period for me because we have been far away from each other for a while but fortunately, he will be joining me soon.”- South Africa*

Table 2.6 Respondent’s likelihood to stay in host country, move to another country or intention to go back home in the next five years

	Very Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Very Unlikely
I will move back to my home country	21 (9.4%)	55 (24.6%)	7 (3.1%)	141 (62.9%)
I will move to another country	5 (2.2%)	57 (25.4%)	15 (6.7%)	147 (65.6%)
I desire and intend to remain in the host country	199 (89.2%)	10 (4.5%)	3 (1.3%)	11 (4.9%)

The respondents were required to indicate their likelihood next course of action in the next five years. Majority of the respondents, 62.9% (60 Nigerians, 50 Kenyans and 31 South Africans) indicated that it is very unlikely that they will move back to their home country in the next five years; 24.6% (21 Nigerians, 14 Kenyans and 20 South Africans), 9.4% (2 Nigerians, 11 Kenyans and 8 South Africans) and 3.1% (3 Nigerians, 4 Kenyans and 0 South Africans) indicated that it is likely, very likely and unlikely respectively to move back in their home country. According to the findings, it is clear that 65.6% (57 Nigerians, 51 Kenyans and 39 South Africans) of the respondents indicated that it is very unlikely for them to move to another country; 25.4% (21 Nigerians, 21 Kenyans and 15 South Africans), 6.7% (8 Nigerians, 5 Kenyans and 2 South Africans) and 2.2% (3 South Africans, 2 Kenyans and 0 Nigerians) were likely, unlikely and very likely respectively to move to another country in the next five years. Majority of the respondents, 89.2% (80 Nigerians, 67 Kenyans, 52 South Africans) very likely desire and intend to remain in the host country; 4.9% (4 Nigerians, 4 Kenyans and 3 South Africans) very unlikely, 4.5% (2 Nigerians, 6

Kenyans and 2 South Africans) likely and 1.3% (2 Kenyans, 1 South African and 0 Nigerians) unlikely desire and intend to remain in the host country in the next five years.

Examining qualitative data, it was apparent that it was unlikely that the majority would like to move to another country or return home. The statements read:

Respondent number 11: *“I have close family here and I can’t leave them. I can only go back if we all decide to go back home which I don’t see it happening anytime soon, but we do go home and visit other family members”. ~ South African*

Respondent number 4: *“Yes, I intend to go back home after some time. For now, I want to gain all the experience and make money, then I can go back and apply all the knowledge I have gained here and contribute to my country’s development and work with the young people who are interested in technology”. ~Kenya*

Respondent number 8: *“I think about this a lot and maybe it’s because Nigeria is my birthplace, I grew up there and made amazing memories”, I will always love my country. However, after graduation it no longer served my best interests hence, I opted for a study abroad and after graduation I immediately got a job that has afforded me many opportunities.” Nigeria*

Table 2.7 Respondent’s reasons why they would want/not want to go back to their home country

	Responses	Frequency	Percentage
why would want/not want to go back to your home country?	Employment opportunities in the U. S	12	57.1%
	Higher wages	2	9.5%
	Close family in the U. S	3	14.3%
	Contribute to my country’s development	3	14.3%

Better Social life in the U. S	1	4.8%
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Table 2.7 shows the reasons why respondents would want/not want to go back to their countries and majority of them; 57. 1% (6 Nigerians, 4 Kenyans and 2 South Africans) mentioned that they had employment opportunities in host country while 9.5% (2 South Africans) said they are offered higher wages compared to their home country and another 14.3% (2 South African and 1 Kenyan) indicated that they cannot go back because they have close family members in the host country. In addition, 4.8% (Kenyan) of the respondents indicated that they will not go back home as their social life has become better than when they were in their home country and on the contrary, 14.3% (2 Kenyans and 1 Nigerian) intend to go back to their home country someday to contribute in the development of their countries.

Respondent number 11: *“I have close family here and I can’t leave them. I can only go back if we all decide to go back home which I don’t see it happening anytime soon, but we do go home and visit other family members”.* ~ South African

Respondent number 4: *“Yes, I intend to go back home after some time. For now, I want to gain all the experience and make money, then I can go back and apply all the knowledge I have gained here and contribute to my country’s development and work with the young people who are interested in technology”.* ~Kenya

Respondent number 8: *“I think about this a lot and maybe it’s because Nigeria is my birthplace, I grew up there and made amazing memories”, I will always love my country. However, after graduation it no longer served my best interests hence, I opted for a study abroad and after graduation I immediately got a job that has afforded me many opportunities”.* Nigeria

Table 2.8 Respondent’s responses on the Measures they think can be implemented to curb student brain drain in their home country

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Government should create more	14	66.7%

What measures do you think can be implemented to curb brain drain?	opportunities for the youth	Increase wages	3	14.3%
		Improve the standard of living	2	9.5%
		Eliminate Corruption	2	9.5%

The findings above show the measures respondents think can be implemented to curb brain drain and 66.7% (6 Nigerians, 5 South Africans and 3 Kenyans) said that the government in their home countries should create more opportunities for the youth, 14.3% (2 Kenyans and 1 South African) stated that there should be an increase in wages, 9.5% (1 Kenyan and 1 Nigerian) wrote that that there should be elimination of corruption and lastly, 9.5% (2 South Africans) of the respondents said there should be an improvement in the standard of living.

Respondent number 21: *“The government must intervene in creating job opportunities for graduates and not just precarious jobs, but well-paying jobs with benefits.” ~ Kenya*

Respondent number 17: *“There is a lot to unpack when it comes to this topic. In a nutshell, there needs to be transformation of socio-political regime in Nigeria. A lot has to change in our government to afford its citizens opportunities to survive and not want to travel and stay in other countries. Nobody likes being a stranger or a migrant and if it was up to me, I would be at home now but the circumstances a lot of Nigerians find themselves in, caused by the leaders we elected who don’t care about us and only care about pleasing their masters in the west force us to up and leave Africa and go overseas in search of greener pastures” ~ Nigerian*

Respondent number 6: *“People cannot be forced to stay in their home country, it is a violation of our rights as globalised citizens. We are free to migrate and live in any country we desire and fulfil us. Why should I live in a country that does not offer me better job prospects? I had intended to come back after my studies because I love home, but I weighed my options comparing both my host*

and home country, I chose America. Home will always be home and I get visit anytime I want". ~ South Africa

Table 2.9 Distribution of the number of respondent's comments/suggestions in so far as staying in the United States post-graduation

	Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Do you have any comments/suggestion in so far as staying in the U.S post-graduation?	Be open minded and network with different people to enhance your skills and get more opportunities	6	28.6%
	Work hard, save money and go home	2	9.5%
	Discrimination of black people	1	4.8%
	Lonely and stressful to live in America	1	4.8%
	None	11	52.3%

Table 2.9 above shows the respondents suggestions or comments in do far as deciding to stay in the U.S post-graduation. 28.6% (4 South Africans, and 2 Kenyans) of the 21 respondents suggested that people who decided to remain in the United states have to be open minded and network with different people to enhance their skills and get more opportunities and 9.5% (1 Nigerian and 1 South African) suggested that African immigrants should work hard, save money and go back to their home countries Moreover, 4.8% (1 Kenyan) indicated that living in the U.S can be lonely and stressful and the other 4.8 % (1 Kenyan) highlighted that the U.S is a hostile environment for black people. Lastly, 52.3% (5 Nigerians, 4 South Africans and 2 Kenyans) indicated that they have no comments/suggestion in so far as staying in the U.S Post graduation.

Respondent number 15: *“You have to make every experience what you want it to be. Work hard, don’t squander your money instead save it and go home and start a business.” ~ Nigeria*

Respondents number 11: *“Put yourself out there, talk to people and don’t be judgemental, that’s how you get opportunities and make lifelong friendships” ~ South Africa*

Respondent number 21: *“There is a lot to say about being a foreigner in America, good and the bad. Sometimes you can feel an anti-migration sentiment that is mostly hostile to black people; it will never feel like home. You get to experience subtle racism in the workplace but I would suggest that you surround yourself with like-minded people, mind your business and get your coins~ Kenya*

6.1 Summary

This chapter covered the empirical research based on both quantitative and qualitative online survey with 224 participants under quantitative and 21 respondents under qualitative data collection. The findings based on the quantitative and qualitative data have evaluated the factors that motivate African graduates’ decision to migrate and study abroad, identified the key reasons that influence African graduates to stay in the host country post-graduation, explored their experiences after deciding to remain in the U.S after completing their studies and investigated their attitude and perceptions of the U.S after they made a decision to remain there. The summary in the next chapter presents the overall key findings of the research study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

7.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and summarizes the key findings drawn from the data analysis in chapter five. It answers our research questions in order to determine whether the empirical evidence has helped us achieve our four aims namely; the reasons that contributed to African graduate's decision to move abroad and study in host country, reasons African graduates decided to remain in the United States after completing their studies, their experience after deciding to remain in the United States and the attitude and perceptions after they made a decision to remain in the United States of America.

7.1 Research Question one: What are the reasons that contributed to African graduate's decision to move abroad and study in host country?

There were several reasons based on the evidence that warranted African graduate's decision to emigrate to the U.S for studies and they were influenced mostly by economic and few personal factors. Under the quantitative data analysis (see table 2.3), the Likert scale statements, 'I was awarded a scholarship/financial assistance to study abroad', 'Low wages/salaries in my home country', 'Low standard of living in home country', 'To progress in my current career path', 'For personal benefit and 'To progress to a higher-level qualification had responses with means significantly less than 3. This means that the respondents significantly agreed/strongly agreed that these six reasons contributed to their decision to move abroad and study in the host country while the responses on the statements 'There are a lack of educational facilities in my country' and 'Political instability in my home country' had a mean that was significantly higher than 3 and this demonstrated that, overall, the respondents disagreed that the two reasons contributed to them moving abroad and studying in the host country. In addition, the Likert scale responses on the statement "I struggled to get a job in my country" were not significantly different from neutral, therefore, it can be concluded that on overall, the respondents were neutral on "I struggled to get a job in my country' statement.

On the other hand, table 3.1 under the qualitative research revealed that “To increase my opportunities” (employment, higher pay, career advancement, better life, etc.) (52.4%), “scholarship/financial assistance” (23.8%), “good quality of education” (14.3%) and “To progress in my higher qualification” (9.5%) have motivated the African graduates to pursue international education. There are similarities of factors stated by the respondents both in quantitative and qualitative data analysis. They are a combination of push and pull factors and seem to be a web of mutual causation.

From the empirical evidence based on the quantitative and qualitative data analysed, the researcher found out that there are similarities. Other than lack of educational facilities, lack of employment, and political instability, the scholarship, progress to a higher level of qualification, progress in career path and for personal benefit (that includes opportunities such as employment, high wages, etc.) are key factors that influenced African graduate’s decision to study abroad. This research study found out that economic factors are strong determinants that have contributed in the decision of African graduates to study abroad. Majority of them had a desire to acquire a high level of qualification which in turn advances their career and result in employment and remuneration. In addition, lack of unemployment and low salaries in their home countries also influenced their decision to migrate. Hence, most of them applied for scholarships offered by their home and host country to study further and few were financed by their families. These findings are consistent with the existing literature (World Migration, 2003; Marfouk, 2017). However, the findings contradict with previous literature that suggest that majority of people who decide to move and study in the U.S do so because of lack of educational facilities and political instability in their home.

It is evident from the findings that, the socio-economic status of an individual plays a huge role in one deciding to emigrate or not. Silva-Vargos (2012:2) explains that migration is not free and whatever the reason for moving, migrants need a certain minimum level of resources to finance their move. According to Horn, Jerome, and White (2008) students coming from families with an income in the upper tier (upper middle class) were most likely to study abroad. This means that, some respondent’s parents could afford to pay for their studies, and this is also beneficial because they knew that their cost-of-living expenses were covered.

Conversely, students with unfavorable socio-economic statuses result in a lower population of students studying abroad (Schnusenberg, de Jong, & Goel, 2012).

However, in this study, the data analysis showed that most respondents were granted scholarships/financial aid to study in the U.S. They took advantage of scholarship opportunities provided by their home countries and the host country to fund their education and this helped them access the American education easily which is well known to be very expensive. This is similar to Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2010) who noted that the western countries have intentionally implemented strategies to attract and drain human talent from developing countries through international scholarships and selective immigration policies.

Secondly, it is every international student's main goal to complete their studies and obtain the qualification they have studied for with the hope of being employed or better yet being recruited by companies eyeing for new talent that will contribute in profitability of their companies. Batalova and Medina (2020) found that prior to the major labor dislocations caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, university educated migrants (in the U.S) were almost as likely to be in the labor force as their native-born counterparts (75 percent and 74 percent, respectively). In many cases the acquisition of higher education rather than the pursuit of higher wages for instance, may be the main motive of migration: a hypothesis that is supported by the growing fraction of student migrations in the overall migration flows (Dustmann & Glitz 2011 cited in Browne, 2017: 8).

Indeed, when an individual has progressed to higher level of qualification and strives to advance their career path by gaining relevant and transversal skills that are highly valued by potential employers, chances of one being employable becomes high. This is confirmed by the existing research conducted by Pew Research Center based on the 2015 data found out that African immigrants tend to be more highly educated with university degrees and employed. As Dustmann & Glitz (2011) noted, the economic success of the immigrant in the destination country is to a large extent determined by his or her educational background, how transferable these skills are to the host country labour market and how much he or she invests in further skills after arrival. Differential returns to skills in origin and destination country are a main driver of migration. In a nutshell, the migration decision is based on a comparison of expected lifetime earnings in the current region of residence and in an alternative region, to which the migrant has the possibility to emigrate (Dustmann & Glitz 2011). Thus, Bakewell & Bonfiglio (2013) elucidate that economic prospects and education are closely related and hard to disentangle.

Lastly, the respondent's responses conclude that the opportunities found in the host country have a greater effect in their decision making to study abroad. Thus, it's substantiated to say, the push and pull factors listed are intertwined; lack of employment, lack of educational facilities in home country (especially for students pursuing STEM courses) and low wages/salaries push these African graduates to seek for opportunities elsewhere to obtain qualification that will assist them to access services in the host country that will assist in improving their lifestyles.

7.2 Research Question two: What motivates the choice of African graduates to remain in the United States after completing their studies?

The overarching aim of this study was to find out why South Africans, Kenyans and Nigerians decided to remain in the host country after completing their graduate studies and the findings show that various factors contributed to African graduates' decision to stay in the U.S post-graduation. The Likert scale under the quantitative data showed that the statements, 'better opportunities than my country', 'better salary offer compared to my country', 'higher standard of living than my country', 'excellent delivery of services than my country' and 'easy access of information in host country' had responses that were significantly agreed/strongly agreed on. In addition, the findings also indicated that "better opportunities than my home country" and "better salary offer compared to my home country" were the reasons that made them decide to stay upon completion of their studies.

Similarly, under qualitative data analysed, the findings show that a majority of respondents decided to stay in host country because of the better opportunities offered, followed by a better salary they are offered in the host country compared to their home country and high standard of living. On the contrary, the reason "better social life" was not significantly different from neutral under quantitative data analysed, therefore, the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed on this as a reason contributing to their stay abroad. This also aligns with the qualitative data analysed where only one respondent amongst 21 participants decided to stay in the host country because of a better social life.

Therefore, the majority of African graduates who decided to remain in the U.S post-graduation did so to access the opportunities which include but are not limited to employment and business opportunities, high wages compared to their home country, research and training opportunities and furthering their education

through scholarships offered in the host country. Similarly, to the reasons why they decided to study abroad, this study suggests that economic factors are also strong determinants that have motivated them to stay in the host country. Hence, it was very important for the researcher to establish the reasons they decided to go and study in the U.S first so that it can be easy to understand their motivation behind their decision to stay in the host country. From this study, it is evident that motivational push-pull factors of deciding to study abroad and deciding to remain after completion of their studies are intertwined. The push factors in their home countries motivated them to migrate to their host country and the host country pulls and offers them that which they think they lack in their home countries and help them improve their standard of living and that of their families.

Furthermore, limited job opportunities and unemployment are some of the push factors that contributes to migration especially among those with skills mainly in developing countries (Dzivimbo, 2003; The World Bank, 2003; Makakala, 2015). This has caused them to migrate to other countries that can offer them better employment opportunities (Anjou, 2018:124). It is without a doubt that, international students who have completed their education in the host country stand a chance to access employment easily compared to a migrant who did not acquire their education in the host country. The employers view international students who have attained their education in the U.S as having the knowledge of the system of the host country and familiar with the ways of living. In a nutshell, they have been acculturated therefore making them easy to work with and navigate through the work environment.

The findings where respondents said they decided to stay because of income differences between the host country and their home countries are also consistent with other research. In a study conducted by Glennie and Chappel (2010), they also found out that wages, employment, professional development, network, and socio-economic conditions are key motivators to stay in the host country. However, they explain that the priority given to each issue typically depends firstly on the skill and profession of the migrant, and secondly on how far they have progressed in their career (Glennie and Chappel, 2010). For example, Hagopian et al. (2004); Okeke (2012) posit that physician migration from sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has increased substantially over the past three decades and Bärnighausen and Bloom (2009) provide a good overview. Much of this literature agrees that the wage gaps between developing and developed countries play an important role in the migration of health

professionals from developing countries (McCoy et al. 2008 cited in Okeke, 2014;604; Adepoju, van Naerssen, & Zoomers; 2008; Boyo, 2013: 45). Empirical literature estimates of these wage gaps indicate that they are quite large (Clemens and Pettersson 2008). Additionally, Dovlo and Martineau (2004) go as far as to call remuneration (wages) the most important factor for retaining health workers. Evidently, the growing wage gap between African and OECD countries would continue to be an important factor in the incentive to emigrate. The general impression on the progress of African economies in generating gainful employment is so far muted. Some even go as far as to say that recent growth in has been generally a jobless growth in which case the prospect for the young and the unemployed can only be found in emigration. The demographic pressure of such magnitude could trigger waves of emigration from Africa as it narrows the resource base in the home country (Shimeless, 2010;13, Hatton and Williamson, 2003).

To add on the above assertions, the participants were also asked how much they earned in the host country and how much they think they would've earned in their home countries. Their responses indicated that there is a wage gap between the host country and their home countries. Although some of them do not earn much, but the findings show that the salary they earn in the U.S is more than what they would have been offered in their countries and this perpetuates brain drain. Equally significant is the finding that majority of those who migrated and decided to stay in the host country are young and they are supposed to represent the economically active group in their respective home countries. Instead, they decided to stay in their host country because of the opportunities that cater to their lifestyle and improvement of their well-being.

Not only health professionals decide to stay in the U.S, but important group of people in critical sectors like technology, education, research, science, business and so forth stay as well. Hence there is shortage of essential manpower in Sub-Saharan Africa, and this is supported by Naicker, Plange-Rhule, Tutt and & Eastwood (2009) claiming that the "inadequate health systems of Africa, especially sub-Saharan Africa, have been badly damaged by the migration of their health professionals". Therefore, when they migrate and settle, who is going to tend to the services that their people need in their own countries? This prompts African countries to hire people from abroad who are known to be "experts" and are paid more for their skills whereas the money could pay for instance, 2 or 3 people from the same country who have acquired the same skills. Thus, if there is shortage of skilled workers in home

countries, automatically the services are going to be poor, and corruption will thrive, and this is the situation in almost every Sub-Saharan country.

Hanson (2009) alludes that “Africa is widely considered among the world’s most corrupt places, a factor seen as contributing to the stunted development and impoverishment of many African states”. As a result, when the citizens realize that their needs are not being met, those with skills and money, eventually will decide to migrate and this turns into an ever-ending cycle of brain drain that is detrimental to the economic growth of Africa and family units. Further, few respondents also mentioned that they decided to remain in the host country because of family; some have reunited with their spouses or relatives whereas some have been married in the host country and have formed a new family. This confirms the study by International Migration Outlook (2017) suggesting that family migration has been the main channel of migration to the OECD area in recent years. More than 1.6 million family migrants received a residence permit in the OECD area in 2015, representing almost 40% of the total permanent migration inflow. In addition, in Europe, about 30% of intra-European movements are estimated to be associated with family reasons – around 400 000 people in 2015 alone.

The researcher wants to highlight that there are options for international students to extend their stay in the U.S after completion of their studies and many participants opted for them. Since the United States does not have a post-graduate work visa and does not offer a specialized pathway to permanent residency for graduates of U.S. schools, Optional Practical Training (OPT) allows graduates to gain hands-on, in-country work experience with U.S. employers in their fields of study (Fwd.US, 2021), which is mostly made up of STEM graduates. STEM graduates with master’s degrees made up roughly a third (34%) of all authorized OPT enrollees (ibid). Batalova and Israel (2021) also explain that, after international students have completed their academic or research programs, they may remain in the United States if they are eligible for family- and employer-sponsored green cards, the K-1 visa for fiancé(e)s of U.S. citizens, and some non-immigrant visas. Finally, the findings regarding the reason why some graduates do not go back to their home countries are in line with the world systems theory used in this study which stipulate that “brain drain is interpreted as an outcome of the structure of world capitalism, which creates conditions that produce economic growth for some countries and underdevelopment for others through the application of different modes of labour control, state

machineries, and distribution of political power. This is so because the capitalist world system is based on an international division of labour that determines the relationships among different regions as well as the types of labour conditions within each region” (Rizvi, 2005: 183”).

7.3 Research Question three: What is the experience of African graduates after deciding to remain in the United States?

From the results listed in table 2.5 under the quantitative data analyzed, table 3.8 and 3.9 under the qualitative data, the majority of respondents showed that they have had better opportunities after deciding to remain in the U.S. Statements under quantitative data analysed; ‘I get jobs related to my academic qualifications, ‘I get better opportunities compared to my home country, ‘Easy access of information in host country’, ‘I have a lot of stress in host country compared to when I am in my country’ and ‘I feel more happy in my host country’ are significantly agreed/strongly agreed on as positive experiences in the host country. To add on this, respondents under qualitative data analyzed also affirmed that they got better opportunities which were far the most highlighted experience, followed by high salary wages compared to their home country and lastly, one respondent indicated that he has a better social life in the host country.

Conversely, respondents on both quantitative and qualitative data analyzed indicated that they also had negative experiences after deciding to remain in the host country. Racism, loneliness, depression, difficulty adapting to the culture and immigration were experienced by the participants.

The findings suggest that the migrants have had positive and negative experiences. Under the positive experiences the participants had after deciding to remain in the U.S, a great number of African graduates indicated that they have had better opportunities compared to their home countries and better salary. For the respondents who were offered a job, their positions permitted them to acquire relevant skills. However, other respondents got employment that was irrelevant to what they studied for. This means that some migrants in this study are not gaining skills, instead they getting de-skilled These findings validated the previous literature by Siar (2013) stating that although the education and skills of highly skilled migrants are recognized in the host country, it is not uncommon for them to experience ‘deskilling’ or to be deployed to positions much lower than their education, training or experience, when they start to participate in the domestic labor market. Bauder (2003) adds that “from

a human rights perspective, deskilling is a form of brain abuse". "Deskilling not only results in economic losses for migrants, but also in psychological and health problems. Affected migrants suffer when they are not reaping the full rewards of their human capital" (Siar, 2013). While on the positive experiences, others mentioned that they feel happier than when they were in their countries. The assumption here based on the results is that, probably other participants were not working while in their home countries due to lack of employment, therefore, financially they could not provide for themselves resulting in stress/unhappiness. Another assumption is that some earned low wages while others were discriminated against in their home countries because of their sexual orientation. But when they were granted an opportunity to study abroad, life became easier compared to their home countries.

Conversely, other than loneliness, stress, and difficulty in adapting to the host's culture, racism seemed to be far greater negative experience felt by respondents in the host country. US studies fare a lot better in investigating the racism experiences of black Africans. This is in keeping with the previous research by Boafo-Arthur (2014a) where in a review of the research literature on the experiences of Black African Immigrant Students (BAIS) in US higher education, identifies racial prejudice and discrimination as the most serious issue affecting their adjustment, causing them a great deal of stress. The review shows that Africans suffered prejudice and discrimination based on their black skin color, culture and accent, and stereotypes about their countries of origin and their way of life, both from home students and other international students (including black home students) (Zewolde, 2021: 14).

Moreover, Berry (2017 cited in Albert, 2021) alludes that, establishing new roots and ties in the receiving country is one of the main tasks of immigrants in their process of socio-cultural and psychological adaptation. A failure to establish bonds with the receiving country can lead to social isolation and loneliness (Hurtado-de-Mendoza et al. 2014). Gitonga (20221) asserts that loneliness can be compounded by cases of rejection, discrimination, isolation, stereotyping, micro-aggression and so on in their new communities.

7.4 Research Question four: What is the attitude and perceptions of African graduate's decision to remain in the United States of America?

The respondent's perceptions of the U.S after deciding to remain there is that majority of them perceive it as land of opportunities and that could be because:

“employment rates of immigrants in the US are high compared to other countries (OECD, 2015). Few respondents also consider it safe compared to their home countries. For example, Lancaster (2018) posits that in South Africa, people feel unsafe and feeling unsafe constrains people’s movements. “Police crime statistics in South Africa show that since 2011/12, the country has seen substantial increases in the number of murders (31%), attempted murders (24%) and all major categories of aggravated robbery (37%) including carjacking (73%), street robbery (36%), house robbery (33%) and business robbery (26%) (Lancaster,2018). In addition, other participants said they feel happier compared to when they were in their home countries.

On the contrary, others indicated that being a migrant in the U.S is lonely and stressful. These finds are supported by a study conducted by Ponizovsky and Ritsner (2004:411), immigrants as a whole exhibit a higher level of experienced loneliness. Further, studies have consistently found elevated levels of stress-related malaise and broad-based morbidity, along with decreased levels of social support, among immigrant groups when compared to native populations (Penninx, van Tilburg and Kriegsman, 1997; Ponizovsky and Ritsner, 1999). Indeed, being an “immigrant is a risk factor for the development of psychological disturbances and that this is related to social isolation” (Sharpley, Hutchinson, McKenzie and Murray, 2001). But also, the findings regarding loneliness and stress could stem from being over worked and not having time to socialize or enough time for leisure. These migrant’s experiences after deciding to stay in the U.S post-graduation shaped their attitudes and perceptions. Despite the negative perceptions they had about the U.S, when they were asked whether their expectations were met after deciding to remain, majority replied “yes” and indicated that they have completed their studies and gained employment. Nonetheless, even though they have access to opportunities in America, some highlighted that it comes at a cost of one’s mental health.

7.5 Summary

This chapter has given implications of the findings based on the research questions drawn from the data results and shows that Sub-Saharan Africans; South African, Kenyans and Nigerians who are currently living and working in the U.S decide to study in the U.S to acquire a higher level of qualification that will result in employment opportunities, better salary and so forth. Despite being faced with challenges, the

findings also show their resilience possess by working towards their dreams and working hard. Lastly, this chapter showed that migrants tend to remain in host countries that offer them benefits that advances their career paths and assist in improving their standard of living.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0 Introduction

The following conclusions are reached following the summary of discussions presented in the previous section. Therefore, in this chapter the researcher gives a summary of the key research findings relating to the research objectives and questions and discussing the value and contribution thereof. Additionally, this chapter will review the limitations of the study; propose opportunities for future research and present recommendations.

8.1 Summary and Conclusions

The main purpose for this research study was to investigate the reasons why African graduates specifically from South Africa, Nigeria and Kenya do not return to their home countries upon completion of their studies. In line with this, specifically the researcher wanted to find out the reasons that contributed to their decision to study abroad, their motivation behind their choice to remain in the host country after completing their studies, their experiences in the host country and perceptions of the U.S after deciding to remain there.

To understand the reasons why African graduates remain in the U.S after graduation, it was very important for the researcher to first establish why they decide to migrate and study in the U.S in the first place. Thus, this study has documented major reasons of African Graduate's decision to study abroad. An analysis of the research data has indicated that African graduates specifically from South Africa, Kenya and Nigeria who completed their studies in the U.S and decided to stay in the host country were majorly motivated by scholarship, a desire to attain a higher qualification, advance in career path and finally get opportunities such as employment and remuneration in the host country. These findings are also supported by previous literature that has concluded that, because of improved international communications, decreasing real cost of air travel, a widening range of educational opportunities for foreign students, increased globalization of labor markets and other factors, more students choose to study abroad (Throsby, 1999; Liu and Wang, 2008; OECD, 2016). Moreover, the findings in this study are similar to Lorenzo et al. (2007) a study where he obtained from 48 focus groups of Filipino health workers, mostly women, some of

whom also wish to leave the Philippines. Even though the survey is focused on nurses' reasons, they are applicable to other occupations. The results also revealed that Filipino nurses are not just motivated by economic incentives but also by factors that may facilitate their professional and personal development such as the opportunity to improve their nursing skills, experience advanced technology, and chance to travel and learn from other cultures (Lorenzo et al. 2007 cited in Siar, 2013).

Even Shinn (2008) supports that an individual will choose to migrate if (and only if) this means acquiring an experience or diploma (=human capital) that will improve future earnings. Therefore, a prospective international student's choice of a destination country for overseas study may usually be made based on the match of his or her personal needs, situations, networks, and factors related to academic requirements, educational services, educational advantages, or benefits, and living environment in a host country (Chien, 2015: 738). Moreover, others cited the push factors to have influenced them to study in America and these were namely lack of employment, low wages, low standard of living, lack of educational facilities and political instability. This also is consistent with the previous literature elucidating that in most emigrant-producing countries, jobs are scarce, or salaries are too low, obliging people to seek wider opportunities for employment and higher wages elsewhere (Mutume, 2006; Massey, 1988).

Moreover, this study also investigated the reasons why African graduates specifically South Africans, Kenyans and Nigerians are reluctant to go back home after completing their studies in the U.S and this is the main objective of the research. From the findings in this study, the majority of the African graduates in the U.S who decided to remain after completion of their studies are between 30-35 years. Although close, however the findings in this study contradict that of Batalova and Lorenzi (2022) in which they indicated that "the median age of immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa was 39 in 2019, compared to 46 for the overall foreign-born population and 37 for the U.S. born". It should be noted that when the African graduates arrived in the host country as international students, majority of them were in the 24-29 age group. These are young people who need to be available and be economically active in their home countries. It is also important to note that the findings in this study shows that females migrate more than males which contradict most studies that were based on gendered patterns of migration in which they explain that migration is male dominated. Without a doubt, until recently more men migrated more than women. Woman were seen as

only companions to men, but this has changed since migration of women is increasingly becoming popular (Masanja, 2012).

Moreover, an analysis drawn from the data analysis has shown that the most important factors that contributed to African graduates staying in the host country were opportunities that include employment, better wages compared to their home country, higher standard of living compared to their home country, research training opportunities and scholarships. This is similar to pull factors that made them decide to migrate in the U.S in the first place. Thus, these findings are also consistent with Kanayo, Anjofui and Stegler (2019) who posit that “the desire for better lives and opportunities has forced millions of people to move away from their countries of origin”.

To add on this, the findings confirm Lee’s push and pull theory as well as the Capability Approach “that personal factors such as better education and getting employment tend to motivate people to explore more of their capabilities as they tend to migrate to areas where there are opportunities” (Anjofui, 2018). To corroborate the above assertions, a qualitative study conducted by Siar (2012) of Filipino expatriates in New Zealand and Australia for instance, emigrants revealed their motivations for migrating to these countries. All the research participants who are highly skilled and included lawyers, medical doctors, academics, scientists in the physical and social sciences, and executives showed they appreciate the economic security that they enjoy in New Zealand or Australia. Nonetheless, this has not been their sole motivation.

Almost all of them mentioned professional and career advancement; better quality of life in terms of safety and security, social services, and work-life balance; and good opportunities for their family especially for the children as their main reasons for migrating. Therefore, it should be noted that some people migrate to other countries with expectations of better living conditions, and access to employment and economic opportunities. Zimmerman (1996 cited in Kanayo, Anjofui and Stegler (2019) also support these findings in this study by categorizing the two forces that are necessary for migration namely demand pull and supply push factors. Zimmerman (1996) explains that “demand pull factors attract an individual to move to a certain geographical location with better working conditions, social security, and booming economy”. Other factors that contributed to their decision to stay in the host country

are excellent delivery of services, easy access of information in the home country and better social life in terms of freely expressing one's sexual identity.

Yet, not all the African graduates are offered opportunities in host country such as employment that is related to their academics. As a matter of fact, the positions some of them hold are low and they are overqualified for them compared to their qualifications and skills. These findings are also supported by the previous literature in which Perschova and Thu (2019: 10), Rafferty (2012) and Joon, Gupta & Wadensjö (2014:10) allude that "as the minority applicants are being overlooked during recruitment, some individuals become more likely to accept jobs that they are overqualified for or spend a longer time unemployed seeking better matched employment. They further claim that "the incidence of over-education is higher among migrants than among natives". But the mere fact that they are employed and earn an income while upgrading their skills to get opportunities that will enhance their career is important for a majority of them. It is equally disturbing to note that majority of the respondents in this study who were interviewed said they do not intend to go back to their countries. These findings have been validated by the previous literature that averred that the brain drain of highly skilled immigrants are driven by opportunities they find in the host country such as wages and employment (Glennie and Chappel, 2010).

Further, this study has assessed the experiences of African graduates in the U.S and found out that despite experiencing racism, loneliness, stress, and difficulty adapting to the American culture, they were also fortunate to get employed after completing their studies. In addition, others found that their remuneration in the host country was better compared to their host countries. In a study conducted by Norris and Gillespie (2009), they concluded that international students' experience of studying abroad had a career impact when it comes to future international work. Moreover, a study by Wiers-Jenssen (2008; 2013 cited in Nilsson and Ripmeester: 2016) showed that mobile students more frequently had jobs with international work assignments. Conversely, Taylor's (2016) findings indicated that many foreign-born students in the U.S face greater hurdles when applying for their first job. Taylor further explains that this comes with an "exception of students who have degrees in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics, international students are eligible to work for 12 months upon graduation". These findings validate the results found in this research study indicating that the majority of the participants with STEM degrees are

employed in the U.S. Nevertheless, even with acculturative stress factors they experienced, it is obvious that these migrants surveyed under this study are determined to work hard and have a better life and improve that of their families. Additionally, what also emerged in this study is that, in as much as few people's expectations were not met, the majority indicated that theirs were met stating that they were able to acquire the qualification they had migrated for, and it resulted in employment, better salary and other opportunities.

The study has also demonstrated the overall attitude and perceptions of the African graduates who decided to stay behind in the host country upon completion of their studies were positive. Other than indicating that they are not getting jobs related to their studies, loneliness and stress that comes with being an immigrant in the U.S, they stated that they were able to find more opportunities compared to their home country and find it safe and these became their pull factors which influenced them in deciding to remain. Many African immigrants hold a belief that coming to the US is an unquestionable route to a brighter future, with possibly and even a chance to earn more money (Altbach & Knight, 2007 cited in Banda, 2020). There are also similar findings to this study by Portes and Rumbaut (1990) who posit that unlike refugees who are forced out of their countries, immigrants and international students hold an ideal, positive image of life in the US.

To conclude this, a no return of skilled immigrants from more developed countries has prompted much discussion in recent years. While other scholars in different fields are in favour of the brain emphasizing that it benefits the sending countries, other feel that it imposes great problem for these countries. Even though this debate has not been settled yet by the brain drain analysts, mainly because its effects differ from country to country, without a doubt it is evident from the previous literature that the negative impacts outweigh the positive ones. The researcher is very cognizant of the fact that countries surveyed under this study are different. However, it is significant to note that the main reasons that African graduates in the United States specifically South Africans, Kenyans and Nigerians decided not to go back home post- graduation are influenced by strong socio-economic determinants that are caused by the push and pull factors in both their home countries and host country.

This study has revealed that the pull factors that have influenced them to remain in the U.S are the same for all countries, but the degree of responses vary. In addition, the push factors differ from country to country, including their order of

importance. Therefore, it can be concluded that the pull factors of the receiving country determine the migration flow of emigrants in “developing countries” and are very important in explaining the flow of migration while the push factors in source countries influence the desirability to emigrate in the first place. As previously stated, the push factors are different and depend on the stages of development and sociological differences in sending countries.

At the same time, the rational explanation that can be given to the similarity in non-return variables of South Africans, Kenyans and Nigerians is granted by the pull factors originating from the U.S. That is, the push factors from the source countries and pull factors from the host country are a web of mutual causation. The underdevelopment that is characterized by unemployment, low wages, lack of research funding to name a few urge the African students to use international education as a channel to seek for opportunities abroad once they have acquired their higher qualifications. Similarly, the growth policy created in the U.S to lure human capital to their shores as there is shortage domestically, creates a demand for highly skilled capital encouraging migration as well. This means that if there was adequate economic development in these countries, it would mean that their economies would have the capacity to absorb them because jobs and other opportunities would be available. Another point to make is that the findings in this study have shown that the differences between developing and developed countries such as unemployment, income, living standards and so on force those in developing countries to seek for better life elsewhere. Furthermore, the theories utilized in this study have confirmed the reasons international students do not return to their home countries.

In more general terms, this study has showed that a non- return of African graduates is a consequence of economic factors that have been coupled with few social and political factors that exists in their respective countries and destination country. Their decision to migrate is induced by an increase in remuneration and improved economic benefits in the destination countries. Their education and the skills they have acquired are their main resource and it is very important for them that these are also appropriately used and harnessed in the host country they chose to remain in. They enter these developed countries with the expectation that they will be able to use their education and training as well as gain new skills for professional development. As many African countries are losing their own skilled human capital, a no return to their home countries is a great concern. Even though there are positive

outcomes of a brain drain especially for the receiving country, a huge movement of the highly skilled people from these countries is detrimental, not only to the development and economic growth of their respective countries but to the migrant's mental health as well and that of their families left behind. Finally, this study has contributed to the existing literature of brain drain of international students specifically from South Africa, Kenya and Nigeria and has assisted in finding out why these students remain in the U.S after graduation. As a result, it is very crucial for these countries to look inward, address this problem and find ways to encourage their educated citizens can contribute to the development of their countries.

8.2 Limitations of the Study and Future Research

Even though there are not enough and clear data statistics of the number of South African, Kenyan, and Nigerian graduates who graduated from U.S universities and are currently living there, the findings cannot be generalized. This is because, the targeted sample size under the quantitative survey was 300 participants, instead the study only surveyed 224 participants; 59 South Africans, 79 Kenyans and 86 Nigerians because of the difficulty the researcher encountered locating appropriate participants for this study. Therefore, the researcher believes that it would have been better if the study covered more people under the quantitative survey. Additionally, under the qualitative questionnaire, only 21 respondents were surveyed. Similarly, the findings should not be generalized but should provide an understanding from the South Africans, Kenyans and Nigerians who participated in this study.

Furthermore, the study employed an online survey for both quantitative and qualitative data collection and the researcher could not probe for further clarifications on the answers the participants provided. The researcher suggests that future data collection method should include focus groups and in-depth interview to understand the reasons why international students who decide to study abroad decide to remain there after completing their studies. Finally, the study also targeted women and men from South Africa, Kenya and Nigeria who completed their first degree or post-graduate studies from their home countries and decided to further their studies in the U.S. The researcher suggests that a future study should focus on the causes of the migrant's acculturative stress such as loneliness, stress, and depression and what their coping mechanism is.

8.3 Recommendations

The emigration of highly skilled Africans to western countries is very important to address how African countries can slow down and even reverse the outflow of emigration of African graduates or skilled migrants to developed countries. However, the question this raises is, is there a solution to brain drain? Even though a human right to migrate is not absolute, to restrict people to emigrate freely for the betterment of their lives and that of their families would be unjust and undesirable. But still, brain drain is a problem that countries need to tackle and turn it into a beneficial one especially for the sending countries. Thus, the following recommendations are proposed based on the key results of the study nature and are for the sending regions in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).

8.3.1 Recommendation Aimed at Improving the Conditions in Sending Countries

- To encourage African students to remain in their home countries after graduation, governments in their respective countries need to convince these young individuals with the brightest minds that they have identified how they will develop their countries. The government needs to impress them by showing that they are ready to fulfil their important role in enhancing the economic development of the country. For this to be attained, governments need to work together, respect and listen to other institutions such as universities and research centres without serving their self-interests. Without a doubt, this might take long to change but it is worth working for in order to tackle brain drain. In addition, if governments want to retain their highly educated people in their countries, they must be given elite treatment and provided with opportunities that are worth staying in their home countries. For instance, those involved in research, should be granted immense support only if the results will be beneficial to their country and they should be compensated enough that they do not feel a need to look for other opportunities elsewhere. Thus, the governments of the sending countries should provide income and other conditions that are necessary for them to fulfil their objectives, at least to a minimum extent.

- It is recommended that governments should make their potential emigrants feel important by assuring them that their role in the development of their country is valued hence there is a need for them to be patriotic and nationalistic as an influence on them to stay and contribute to the development of their countries. The researcher wants to highlight that, usually being nationalistic is often mistaken to having a narrow mind but this should not incite against this approach. Instead, it should be seen as citizens of these respective countries being aware that a no return of highly skilled individuals from abroad can be detrimental to their country's development. In addition to being encouraged to be nationalist and patriotic, often at times students who decide to study overseas, acquire knowledge in these institutions that is not relevant to the problems/conditions that exists their home countries. Therefore, governments should encourage those who choose to study abroad especially for an advanced degree such as a PhD or post-doctorate to enrol in programs and conduct research topics that would cater for the needs of their countries so that when they return, they can create projects with the skills and knowledge they have acquired.
- There are already African graduates abroad who acquired their education in their home countries, decided to migrate and study overseas and upon their graduation, they never went back to their countries. Instead, they got themselves employment and are successful in their own right. However, governments in sending countries should try and persuade some of their lost brain power by recalling and re-attracting them back. Before that, governments should have established foundations that grant them essential necessities for projects they endeavour in but these projects should contribute to the economic development of their countries. These essential necessities may include but not limited to equipment, staff and so forth. Also, governments of these countries can come up with a plan of bringing back those who are distinguished African professionals from abroad by paying for their travel and offering them suitable employment and compensated adequately. But of course, to come up with this policy, it requires the governments of these countries to evaluate the cost-benefit to determine whether there are economic development benefits in

bringing back these individuals or not. However, if there is an over-supply, then it will not be beneficial from economic point of view.

- If governments cannot retain their potential highly educated migrants voluntarily, they could impose emigration tax that varies from each professional occupation that suits the country's national needs and services. The researcher believes that it is very important to improve the people's remuneration before developing this sort of a policy. Thus, a person whose tertiary education has been financed by their country's government and decided to further their education abroad but after graduating remained in the host country because of employment and wages that are higher compared to one's home country, should pay back the money that his/her country used to pay for their education with an interest.
- As it has been stated previously in this study that the majority of the participants decided to remain in the host country because of the economic factors such as employment and better wages compared to their home countries and so forth, it is recommended that the sending countries should accelerate economic growth and development. Even though the process of development is long and arduous, it is without a doubt that when a country is economically developed, it results in people being greatly demanded in different fields of professions. It is believed that this can be achieved if a country increase industrialization and creates huge industrial sectors that assist in bringing innovation and the development of experienced people. Not only will development help in innovation and job creation but will deter brain drain in these countries as the economy's need for competent manpower will increase.
- African countries need to find ways to restore security stability and let peace reign in their countries. When there is political instability, corruption, poor delivery of services and crime, people will yearn to migrate to countries that provide them with security, safety, and improved standard of living. Therefore, these governments need to find a way to make their environments where people feel safe and cared for.

- Finally, in as much as colonialism and neo colonialism has and continues to impact the development of many African countries, African governments or leaders need to work harder to retain and support their people and stop using colonialism amongst many other factors that are against the development of the continent as the scapegoat for their mediocrity and failure to deliver services that benefit their people. African governments need to create opportunities that accommodate their citizen's skills so that they can contribute more opportunities for the upcoming professionals. If they fail to do this, many countries will continue to lose their skilled human capital, and this is very detrimental to their countries and Africa as a whole.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A: Ethical Clearance



08 June 2021

Miss Mosa Nkoko (219036868)
School Of Social Sciences
Howard College

Dear Miss Nkoko,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00002744/2021

Project title: Between Hope and Uncertainty: A No Returning Journey of African Graduates from The United States of America To Their Home Countries. A Perspective of Nigerians, Kenyans and South African graduates living in the United States of America

Degree: PhD

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 31 March 2021 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

This approval is valid until 08 June 2022.

To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours sincerely,

Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

Appendix B: Informed Consent and Quantitative Survey Questionnaire-Phase 1



Informed Consent Document

Dear Participant,

- My name is Mosa Nkoko. I am a PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus. My student number is 219036868. The title of my research is: "Between Hope and Uncertainty: A No Returning Journey of African Graduates from the United States of America to Their Home Countries". The aim of this study is to find out the reasons that prevent African graduates in the United States from returning to their home countries. This research examines what motivates the choice of African graduates to remain in the United States after completing their studies, why are some of the African graduates reluctant to go back to their home countries after completing their studies, what is the experience of African graduates after deciding to remain in the United States, what is attitude and perceptions of African graduate's decision to remain in the United States of America. In addition, this research investigates which policies can be implemented to persuade them to go back and invest in their home countries. I am interested in interviewing you so as to share your experiences and observations on the subject matter. Please note that:
 - The information that you provide will be used for scholarly research only.
 - Your participation is entirely voluntary. You have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.

- Your views in this interview will be presented anonymously. Neither your name nor identity will be disclosed in any form in the study.
- The interview will take about 30 minutes.
- The record as well as other items associated with the interview will be held in a password-protected file accessible only to myself and my supervisor. After a period of 5 years, in line with the rules of the university, it will be disposed by shredding and burning.
- There will be no monetary gain for participating in this survey.
- If you agree to participate, please sign the declaration attached to this statement (a separate sheet will be provided for signatures)

I can be contacted at: School of Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal/Howard College Campus, Durban. Email: 219036868@stu.ukzn.ac.za; Cell: +2731595272
My supervisor is Dr. Rudigi Rukema Joseph who is located at the School of Social Science, Howard College Campus, Durban of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
Contact details: Email: Josephr1@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: +27 (0) 31 260 2440

The Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee contact details are as follows: Ms Mariette Snyman,, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Research Office, Email: hssrec@ukzn.ac.za; Phone number +27 (0) 31 260 8350/4557/3587.

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

DECLARATION

I hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire. I understand the intention of the research. I hereby agree to participate.

I consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded (if applicable)

I agree to participate in the research project under the conditions described above

- Yes, I agree to participate

- No, I don't wish to participate

SECTION A- DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND HENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

1. Age

- 18-23
- 24-29
- 30-35
- 36-41
- 42-47
- Above 47

2. Gender

- Female
- Male
- Prefer not to say

3. Race

- Black
- White
- Coloured
- Indian
- Asian
- Other

4. Marital and Family Status *

- Single
- Married
- Divorced Separated
- Cohabiting
- Other

5. Your Home Country *

- South Africa
- Kenya
- Nigeria

6. Your Nationality (As written on your passport)

- South African
- Kenyan
- Nigerian

7. Your highest academic qualification

- Masters
- Doctorate
- Other

8. Qualifications earned in home country

- Bachelors
- Honours
- Masters
- Doctorate
- Bachelor and Honours
- Bachelor and Masters
- Bachelor, Honours and Masters
- Bachelor, Honours, Masters and Doctorate
- Bachelors, Masters and Doctorate

9. Qualifications earned Abroad

- Bachelors
- Honours
- Masters
- Doctorate
- Bachelors and Masters
- Bachelors, Masters and Doctorate
- Masters and Doctorate

10. Age on arrival in the host country

- 18-23
- 24-29
- 30-35
- 36-41

- 42-47
- Above 47

11. Age when you completed your highest educational qualification in the host country

- 18-23
- 24-29
- 30-35
- 36-41
- 42-47
- Above 47

11. Area of specialization

- Science
- Technology and Engineering (SET)
- Business and Economics
- Health and Medical Sciences
- Social Science and Humanities
- Other

12. Did you complete your highest qualification on time in the host country?

- Yes
- No

13. How long did it take you to complete your highest academic qualification in the host country?

- Less than a year
- 1-4 Years
- 5-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years

14. After completing your highest qualification in the host country, did you get a job?

- Yes
- No

15. What kind of a job did you get after completing your studies in your host country?

- Job related to my field of study
- Odd Jobs
- Odd jobs until you found a job in your field of study
- Self-Employed
- Unemployed

16. What is your monthly income in the host country? *

- \$500-1500
- \$2000-3000
- \$4000-5000
- \$6000-7000
- \$8000-9000
- \$10000-20000
- \$20000 or above
- Unemployed

17. Monthly income offered in the home country for your highest qualification *

- \$500-1500
- \$2000-3000
- \$4000-5000
- \$6000-7000
- \$8000-9000
- \$10000-20000
- \$20000 or above
- Unemployed

18. How many years have you worked in the host country? *

- Less than a year
- 1-4 Years
- 5-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- Unemployed

19. Do you have a family/ relatives in the host country? *

- Yes
- No

SECTION B: VARIABLES RELATED TO BRAIN DRAIN

1. The following statements require information about reasons that contributed to African graduate's decision to move abroad and study in host country.

Reasons to Migrate		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I struggled to get a job in my country					
2	There are lack of educational facilities in my country					
3	I was awarded a scholarship/Financial assistance to study abroad					
4	Low wages/salaries in my country					
	Low standard of living in my home country					
5	To progress in my current career path					
6	For personal benefits					
7	To progress to a high level qualification					
8	Political instability in my home country					

2. The following statements require information about reasons contributing to African graduate's decision to stay in the host country.

Reasons to decide to stay in the host country		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Better opportunities than my country					
2	Better salary offer compared to my country					

3	Higher standard of Living than my country					
4	Excellent delivery of services than my country					
5	Easy access of information in host country					
6	Better social life than my home country					

3. The following statements require information about the experience of African graduate's after deciding to remain in the United States.

Experiences	Stro ngly Agre e	Agr ee	Neut ral	Disag ree	Stron gly Disag ree
1 I don't get jobs related to my academic qualifications					
2 I feel lonely in host country					
3 I get better opportunities compare to my home country					
4 Easy access of information in host country					
5 I have a lot of stress in host country compared to when I am in my country					
6 I feel happier in my host country					

4. What is the likelihood that over the next five years, you will:

	Stro ngly Agre e	Agr ee	Neut ral	Disag ree	Stron gly Disag ree
1 I will move back to my home country					

2	I will move to another country					
3	I desire and intend to remain in the host country					

Thank you for taking out the time to fill out this survey!

APPENDIX D: Informed Consent and Qualitative Survey Questionnaire-Phase 2



Informed Consent Document

Dear Participant,

- My name is Mosa Nkoko. I am a PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus. My student number is 219036868. The title of my research is; “Between Hope and Uncertainty: A No Returning Journey of African Graduates from the United States of America to Their Home Countries”. The aim of this study is to find out the reasons that prevent African graduates in the United States from returning to their home countries. This research examines what motivates the choice of African graduates to remain in the United States after completing their studies, why are some of the African graduates reluctant to go back to their home countries after completing their studies, what is the experience of African graduates after deciding to remain in the United States, what is attitude and perceptions of African graduate’s decision to remain in the United States of America. In addition, this research investigates which policies can be implemented to persuade them to go back and invest in their home countries. I am interested in interviewing you so as to share your experiences and observations on the subject matter. Please note that:
 - The information that you provide will be used for scholarly research only.
 - Your participation is entirely voluntary. You have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
 - Your views in this interview will be presented anonymously. Neither your name nor identity will be disclosed in any form in the study.

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- There will be no monetary gain for participating in this survey.
- If you agree to participate, please sign the declaration attached to this statement (a separate sheet will be provided for signatures)

I can be contacted at: School of Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal/Howard College Campus, Durban. Email: 219036868@stu.ukzn.ac.za; Cell: +2731595272
My supervisor is Dr. Rudigi Rukema Joseph who is located at the School of Social Science, Howard College Campus, Durban of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
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Thank you for your contribution to this research.

DECLARATION

I hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire. I understand the intention of the research. I hereby agree to participate.

I consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded (if applicable)

I agree to participate in the research project under the conditions described above

- Yes, I agree to participate

- No, I don't wish to participate

SECTION A- DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND HENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

1. Age

.....

12. Gender

- Female
- Male
- Prefer not to say

13. Race

- Black
- White
- Coloured
- Asian
- Other

14. Marital and Family Status

- Single
- Married
- Divorced
- Separated
- Widowed

15. Your Home Country *

- South Africa
- Kenya
- Nigeria

16. Your Nationality (As written on your passport)

- South African
- Kenyan
- Nigerian

17. Area of specialization

- Science
- Technology and Engineering (SET)
- Business and Economics
- Health and Medical Sciences
- Social Science and Humanities
- Other

18. Your highest academic qualification

- Masters
- Doctorate
- Other

19. Qualifications earned in home country

- Bachelors
- Honours
- Masters
- Doctorate
- Bachelor and Honours
- Bachelor and Masters
- Bachelor, Honours and Masters
- Bachelor, Honours, Masters and Doctorate
- Bachelors, Masters and Doctorate

20. Qualifications earned Abroad

- Bachelors
- Honours
- Masters
- Doctorate
- Bachelors and Masters
- Bachelors, Masters and Doctorate
- Masters and Doctorate

21. Do you have a family/ relative in the host country? *

- Yes
- No

22. Did your family/relatives live in the U.S before or after you have moved to the U.S?

- I had a family/relative living in the U.S before I moved there
- I had family/relatives living in the U.S after I moved there
- I have no family members living here

SECTION B- VARIABLES OF BRAIN DRAIN

1. Why did you decide to move abroad and study in the U.S?

.....

.....

2. What motivated your decision to stay in the U.S after completing your studies?

.....

.....

3. How long did it take you to get a job after completing your studies?

.....

.....

4. Is your job related to your field of study?

- Yes
- No

5. What kind of a job did you get after completing your studies in your host country?

.....
.....

6. What is your monthly income in the host country?

.....

7. What is your monthly income offered in the home country for your highest qualification

.....

8. What positive experience have you had after you decided to remain in the U.S?

.....
.....

9. What negative experience have you been confronted with after after you decided to remain in the U.S?

.....
.....

10. What is your perception after making a decision to remain in the U.S?

.....
.....

11. Have your expectations been met by choosing to remain the U.S?

.....
..
.....
..

12. If yes, how have your expectations been met and if No, what were you expecting?

.....
.....

13. What measures do you think can be implemented to curb student brain drain in your home country?

.....
.....

14. Do you intend to go back to your country?

- Yes
- No

15. If yes/No, why?

.....
.....

16. Do you have any particular comments/suggestions in so far as staying in the U.S post-graduation?

.....
.....

PhD Thesis

ORIGINALITY REPORT

15% SIMILARITY INDEX	18% INTERNET SOURCES	6% PUBLICATIONS	4% STUDENT PAPERS
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PRIMARY SOURCES

1	nepad.org Internet Source	2%
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