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Brain drain Or Brain gain?

Examining The Effects (Impact) Of Foreign Education On Home And Host Countries: The Case Of African Student Migrants In Norway

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Declaration

I, Alexander Kobina Konduah, declare that this thesis is a result of my research investigations and findings. Source of information other than my own have been acknowledged and a reference list has been appended. This work has not been previously submitted to any other university for award of type of academic degree.

Signature.....

Date: 15 May, 2018

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ABSTRACT

The growing rate at which educated Africans are migrating (brain drain) to the developed world has gathered much attention among scholars. The thesis drifts away from the macro level analysis to examine the micro level with foreign education as a prime focus for discussion. The study attempts to explore how foreign education influence the brain drain or gain processes. The phenomenon in the African context is not purely based on economic reasons; it extends beyond a remittance which is often related to economic.

There are other factors that influence brain drain or gain phenomenon in the African context. The Study examines the preference (stay or return) of African students (living in Norway) ‘after completion of studies and what factors drives these preferences. The push-pull theory serves (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999) as the main theoretical point of discussion. Qualitative research approach design was applied. Data were collected using the semi-structured interview guide approach. The study focused on African student migrants living in Norway, mostly higher education.

In order to understand how foreign education influence the brain drain or gain processes in the African context, it was significant to get an insight into students’ future plans after their studies and unveil the factors influencing this preferences. The results indicate that most students choose to study in Norway not because of financial gains, but some pull factors such as: free education and scholarship packages, scholarly and intellectual autonomy, extensive resource for research, employment opportunities, greater income and higher wages as well as international exposure; as such, some push factors such as socio-cultural challenges, lack of research facilities, quality of education and political instability were central to their decision to seek foreign education. As for prospects after their studies, students are aware of the benefits they stand to gain if they succeed to find a job in Norway. Further, the study reveals the following factors that influence their preferences: socio-cultural freedom, social ties, social status, and international work experience, employment, quality of education, wages befitting qualification and political stability; hence the decision of students to either stay or leave, based on the studies is grounded essentially on the above mentioned factors, self-estimation of their skills as well as abilities.

Keywords: Brain Drain or gain, Higher education, foreign education, Student Migrants

Table of Contents

Declaration	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
List of Tables	vi
List of Abbreviations	vii
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM	2
1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE.....	4
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	5
1.4.1 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION.....	5
1.4.2 Sub-Research questions	5
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OR RATIONAL OF THE RESEARCH	5
1.6 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION.....	6
1.6.1 Migration	6
1.6.2 Brain Drain or Gain	7
1.6.3 Foreign Education.....	8
1.6.4 African Student Migrants	8
1.7 ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH.....	8
CHAPTER TWO	10
2. The Brain Drain or Gain Debate	10
2.1 Historical foundations of the Phenomena; (brain drain or gain Brouhaha)	10
2.1.1 First generation brain drain Argument (1960-1968) “Internationalist” Model and the neoclassical growth model of “laissez passer.....	10
2.1.2 Second Generation Brain Drain Argument (1970-1990 - Negative Brain Drains)	13
2.1.3. Third Generation Brain Drain Argument – (1990 and Beyond) – Beneficial Brain Drain	17
2.2 Connecting the cord; Impact of foreign Education on Brain drain or gain nexus	20
2.3 Impact of Foreign Education on Home and Host Countries – Brain drain or gain.....	22
2.4 Motivations Causing the Movements of African Student Migrants (Foreign Countries)...	23

2.5 Conclusion.....	25
CHAPTER THREE	26
THEORORIZING THE PHENOMENON AND METHODOLOGY	26
3.1 Introduction	26
3.2 Brain Drain or Gain Theoretical Puzzle	26
3.2.1 Neo-classical Theory	26
3.2.2 New Economic Migration Theory (NEM)	28
3.2.3 Theoretical Move beyond Neo-classical Economic Theory (Push & Pull Factors).....	30
3.3 Philosophical Standpoint and Methods	33
3.4 Philosophical Foundation of the Study	33
3.5 Research Strategy: Qualitative Methods	35
3.6 Research Design	37
3.7 Methods of Data Collection and In-depth Interview.....	37
3.8 Field Access	39
3.9 Sampling and Sampling Techniques	40
3.9.1 Sample Size (Selecting Participants).....	41
3.9.2 Data Analysis of Qualitative Approach.....	43
3.9.3 Ethical Consideration	44
3.9.4 Quality, Reliability and Validity	45
3.9.5 Limitations of Research and fieldwork Experience	46
3.9.6 Conclusion	47
CHAPTER FOUR.....	48
4.1 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF MAIN FINDINGS	48
4.2 Demographic Features of Respondents.....	49
4.2.1 Gender	49
4.2.2 Educational Level and Main Occupations of Respondents	50
4.2.3 Motivations for foreign Education	52
4.3 Preference upon Completion of Studies (Stay or Return)	57
4.3.1 Norwegian Educational System and the Labour Market.....	57
4.3.2 Quality of Education and International Exposure	59
4.3.3 Employment Prospects	60

4.3.4 Re-immigration to home countries	62
4.3.5 Enticing the African Student Migrant for Re-immigration	65
4.3.6 Disincentive to Stay in Norway	68
4.3.8 Factors influenced students' choice of preference	71
4.4 Applying the Neo-classical Theory (Push-pull factors)	73
4.5 The Heart of the Matter	76
4.6. Summary of Discussion and Analysis.....	78
CHAPTER FIVE	79
5.1 Conclusion and Implication of the Study	79
5.2 Implications of the Study	79
5.3 Limitations and recommendations for further Studies	81
References.....	82
APPENDIX 1: Interview Guide.....	93

List of Tables

Table 1 Main Primary source Respondents and method of data collection.....	42
Table 2 Gender of respondents	49
Table 3 showing educational level, occupation and programmes of study of respondents	51
Table 4 showing the push-pull factors influencing students' preference.....	71

List of Figures

Figure 1 organization of research	8
Figure 2 showing push-pull factors.....	27
Figure 3 Individual's decision to study and work	30
Figure 4 Hypothetical brain drain or gain between Country X and Z	31
Figure 5 Thesis element interactions.	34
Figure 6 Field experience; Apathy of potential respondents	47

List of Abbreviations

AMID	African Migrants in the Diaspora
ASU	African Student Union
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
FSUZ	Female Student Union of Zimbabwe
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMO	International Migration Organization
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IT	Information Technology
IS	International Students
LDC	Less Developed Countries
NET	New Economic Theory
NCET	Neo-classical Economic Theory
M & D	Migration and Development
MOE	Ministry of Education
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
R & D	Research and Development
SAIH	Norwegian Students' and Academics International Assistance Fund
UNESCO	United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UN	United Nations

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

“[By] failing to create greener pastures for its own intelligentsia; [Africa] is committing suicide”

Professor Edward Ofori-Sarpong

(Pro-vice Chancellor, University of Ghana, Legon)

(Facts & Figures, 2011)

Over the last five decades, a huge number of qualified youths from developing countries (Africa) have undertaken higher studies and pursued lucrative occupations in developed countries. These developed countries include Australia, Canada, Norway, United Kingdom, United States of America and New Zealand (Master, 2016). The youths aspire to settle in these countries where better facilities, remuneration packages and incentives are at the apogee of their livelihood (Mitra, 2014). These better facilities coupled with quality of livelihood stimulate the decision of students not to return to their home countries after studies (ibid). Thus the above quote by a former pro-vice chancellor of the University of Ghana expresses concern of how Africa as a continent has failed to provide these better conditions to lure its qualified intellects to stay as well as return home after an educational training abroad.

Again, rampant growth of science and technology coupled with the shortage of intellectuals in these developed countries has thus rekindled the phenomena (Eassys, 2017). Some migration experts believe developed countries fall on these trained professionals and intellectual migrants to fill their professional gaps (Abejide, 2008) The case of foreign migrants filling the professional gaps of these developed countries has been regarded as a “*brain drain*” for developing (home) countries and “*brain gain*” for developed (host) countries (Kelo & Wächter, 2004). Nonetheless, other migration experts have also made a case for “*Brain gain*” for developing countries on the foundations of remittances from developed (host) countries to developing (home) countries (Eassys, 2017).

Several reasons such as economic prosperity, quality livelihood, and high remuneration have accounted for “*brain drain or gain*” in the context of other countries (Mitra, 2014). However, based on the submissions of literature and opinions of other scholars, there are others who

believe that the causes of brain drain or gain is not entirely based on economic challenges but other elements (education). It is in this light that the research seeks to explore “the effects of foreign education on home and host countries by seeking the opinions of African student migrants studying in Norway. The study chooses to focus on African students due to rampant surge of African students taste for foreign higher education as well as opportunities that abound in these developed countries. Speaking to varied African students the “common phrase” established was “these developed countries are greener”. As an African student migrant studying abroad I could not disagree. Again according to literature Africa is expected to lose half of its educated intelligentsia in the next twenty-five (25) years to the developed world through foreign education if African governments fail to invest in their youths (Facts & Figures, 2011). This frighten statistic provoked the thought of seeking the views of African students about the situation and how African intellects in academia can help curtail the situation (brain drain or gain). To help explore the phenomena, “the neo-classical theory (push-pull factors) is adopted as the foundation for discussion”.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

According to migration experts the brain drain or gain phenomenon is not new to Africa. The “brain drain or “gain” phenomena was not severe until the 1960s, where massive uneven migration evolved from less developed countries to developed countries notably West Germany and North America (Eassys, 2017). In recent years, higher education has become a chief conduit of permanent emigration for African students (Meyer & Brown , 1999). Trained professionals are in high demands in all parts of the world. However, better standards of living and quality of livelihood, high salaries, access to advanced technology and a more stable political condition in developed countries attract talents from developing countries (Dodani & LarPorte, 2005). Majority of specialized professionals such as doctors, engineers, nurses, lawyers, and technology experts pursue specialized postgraduate professional qualifications in these developed countries. Movement of professionals from developing (home) countries to developed (host) countries has been argued as an indictment on the development of developing countries (Mitra, 2014). Though there are certain positives such as remittances that come along with such movements, developing countries struggle in terms of development despite abundance of inordinate rewards from remittances. (Jauhar et al., 2016).

The numbers nonetheless have increased in lips and bounds. Africa continues to lose her hugely talented qualified manpower in the area of Science, Engineering, and information technology on the wheels of high education (Dodani & LarPorte, 2005). More than half of the students from different countries in Africa pursue education do not return to their home-country (Meyer & Brown, 1999). The International Organization for migration (IMO) cited in facts and figures estimates that, Africa has lost about one third of its human capital and still losing skilled personnel at an alarming rate, with an estimated 20,000 doctors, university lecturers, engineers among other professions annually since 1990 (Facts & Figures, 2011). There are over 300,000 highly qualified Africans in the Diaspora, of which 30,000 hold PhDs. Africa at the same time spends US\$4 billion per year to employ some 100,000 Western experts generally for technical assistance (ibid). The conundrum of brain drain as per expert intelligence has reached a “crescendo” in some African countries with Ethiopia, Nigeria and Ghana as countries believed to have lost more skilled labor force compared to other African countries (ibid). The fallout of such challenge is that these countries have lost over 50% of their students who studied abroad. Ethiopia the most affected lost about 74.6% of its human capital, for example 1980-1991, Ethiopia had only one full-time economic professor, while they boast of over 100 professors of economics in a single community in United States alone, the situation however has not changed that much in recent times (Teferra, 2000).

Norway for instance is home to several African nationals notably from Central Africa (Cameroon, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo), East Africa (Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Uganda), North Africa (Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia), Southern Africa (Malawi, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe) and West Africa (Gambia, Ghana, Nigeria, Senegal) (Ziblim, 2013). Research estimates that several of these nationals prefer to stay on in the country of host after their education due to economic prosperity, quality livelihood, and high remuneration (Mitra, 2014). The conception is that Africa basically fund education of their nationals only to see them end up contributing to the growth of developed countries with little or no returns. For example Kenya spends over US\$40,000 to train and US\$10-15,000 to educate a university graduate for a period of four (4) years (Mutume, 2003).

Yet some scholars disagree with the above notion as some countries provide scholarship and quota systems to assist African educated elites with the view of return home to support these

countries development. It is however cumbersome to fathom the statistics involved in developed countries assisting African students to further their studies. It is however evident to mention a few of the scholarship schemes developed countries offer African students to study in their countries; Tata African scholarships in science and engineering, female citizens and permanent residents of South Africa scholarships and Joint Japan/World bank graduate scholarship programmes (Nmbu, 2018).

Notwithstanding the above arguments and reasons given on the brain drain phenomena, these reasons need to be examined and understood in relation to contextual circumstances in the current rampant emergence of the phenomenon among African countries. Literature generally looks at the macro understandings of the phenomenon but rarely looks at the subjective understanding of those affected. Thus the main pre-occupation of the research is to focus on how foreign education influence the brain drain or gain process and how the push-pull factors can assist in our understanding of the phenomena.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

A number of studies have been done on the brain drain or gain discourse especially on economic viewpoint (Grubel, 1966; Grubel and Scott, 1966, Johnson 1967, 1968, Adams 1968; Amuzegar 1968, Das 1971, Borta 2007, McEwen, Curry and Bradley 2012). However, not enough studies have been done on African student migrants with the focus on educational migration which is another dimension to the brain drain conversation. The rational is to seek how foreign education influence the brain processes seeking new sources apart from the already existing challenge to the brain drain or gain puzzle. The study gives credibility to how foreign education could change our living conditions, thus the question of return or stay after completion of study will be explored. Finally, the study attempts to find solutions to reduce the proliferating rush of Africa's elites to the developed world. The study hence will drift from the macro understanding of the phenomena to a more subjective understanding of the phenomenon.

In view of the objectives enumerated above for the research study, the paper will seek to address the following main research question and two sub-research questions in line with the preconditions to address the brain drain or gain manifestation.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.4.1 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

The central Research question is:

(How) does foreign education influence brain drain or gain processes?

1.4.2 Sub-Research questions

- ❖ *What is the preference of African students upon completion of studies in Norway; (return or stay)*
- ❖ *What factors influence African students' choice of preference?*

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OR RATIONAL OF THE RESEARCH

As an African student migrant, the topic of my thesis is stimulated by myriad inconsistencies portraying the African student Migrant. Having a conversation with my fellow African students and some members in the diaspora, I am enthralled by the numerous stories of Africans moving to the developed world for educational and occupational opportunities. The stories of these educated African migrants' ranges from successful completion of programmes and occupying significant positions, to sensitive stories of African professionals and PHD holders involved in jobs that does not require certificate. Listening to these stories set me thinking, hence begun questioning myself: what inspires as to seek education abroad? What influences our choice of decision making to travel abroad? Is education a cause of brain drains or gains and what impact does it bring on home and host countries? Why can't we find same kind of education in Africa? Indeed finding answers to these questions became an incentive for my thesis on the brain drain or gain phenomena.

In my quest to get answers to these questions and understand how foreign education influence the brain drain or gain processes, it was imperative seek opinions from the people that matter. As Mandela, the first black president of South Africa articulates:

“Africa will continue to lose some of the best among ourselves because the lights in the developed world shine brighter” (Mandela, 1996).

Again the former Deputy Executive-Secretary of the Economic Commission of Africa (ECA 2007-2010), Dr. Lalla Ben Barka further adds to Mandela’s statement to confirm the devastating effect of which Africans seek greener pastures abroad:

“African governments have a great responsibility to ensure that brains remain in the continent; otherwise in 25 years’ time, Africa will be empty of brains” (Facts & Figures, 2011).

The above statements clearly speak volumes of how Africans migrate to developed countries in search of greener pastures and better living standards. Nonetheless, the brain drain or gain phenomena should be understood also on its effects on the sending (home) and receiving (host) countries. Brain drain according to Maria Boyo is not just the movement of brains from one country to another, but rather movement of social beings from one context to another; as people move along with their history, stories, memories, dreams and aspirations while they leave behind the hopes of what could have been, for the promises of what is possible in the developed world (Boyo, 2013). So the brain drain phenomenon is not all about economic circumstance but there are social factors that influence it. The rationale for this research is to add to the diverse understanding of the brain drain or gain processes in Africa. Furthermore, the study contributes to the recent deliberation on the economic, social and cultural facets of brain drain.

1.6 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

To aid our understanding, certain concepts and terminologies applied need to be clarified in the context of the study. The following concepts will be defined as follows:

1.6.1 Migration

“Migration” carries the connotation of a physical move, often but not essentially, between countries, for permanent settlement, or at any rate, a long-term stay. Pragmatically, the reality behind the term refers to wide range of forms and types of movement or mobility (Kelo & Wächter, 2004). The term migration is classified into two different types; “force and voluntary migration” Refugees, seeking asylum or at the least temporary shelter in another country is an

example of “force migration” while movement for purpose of employment is an example of “voluntary migration” (ibid). However, one has to acknowledge the distinction between “temporary and permanent migration”. A foreign student is a classic example of temporary migration or what is termed “voluntary migration” whereas a husband joining his wife could be permanent migration or vice versa. However, the foreign student could become a permanent migrant after graduation upon receiving a job offer in the country of studies based on regularisations (ibid). Migration according to the IMO encompasses any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification and education (IOM, 2003). For the purpose of this study, reference of clarity will be drawn from the voluntary migration.

1.6.2 Brain Drain or Gain

Brain drain could be described as an offshoot of migration. The phenomenon discusses the movement of highly educated individuals from their country of origin to another country preferably an industrialized country. Brain drain represents the migration of human capital as a strategic resource from countries where it can make the greatest contribution to national output to countries already well supplied with high-level of manpower (Ramin, 1995, p.3). Thus professionals, in whom their home countries have invested a considerable amount of educational resources, leave to seek employment or educational opportunities elsewhere. The constant movement of these skilled individuals to developed countries either by educational or occupational opportunities without returning to help their home country's development is considered a “brain drain (home) or gain for countries of host. Thus brain drain can also be measured as the intentional efforts of different institutions designed to identify and generate benefits from the outflow of skilled individuals. (Jalowiecki & Gorzelak, 2004). Gribble also measures brain drain or gain based on the needs of host or home countries: he postulates that when the home countries send professional in areas of need (medical, engineers and nurses) abroad and they do not return but stay in the host country it's a gain for host countries and a loss for home or sending countries. Again if host countries have more openings for such traditional professionals to be trained, if they return home after training it's a gain for home countries and lost for host countries (Gribble, 2008).

1.6.3 Foreign Education

The term foreign education denotes education that transcends national borders by exchange of people, for example by students travelling to study at an international branch of campus, as part of a study abroad programmes or as part of a student exchange programme. The term can also be referred to as the opportunity (Scholarships) offered to students in another country to live and study in a foreign country to further his/her education to the highest level. There is no precise definition for foreign education but for the purpose of the study the above will assist our understanding.

1.6.4 African Student Migrants

In the context of the research the definition of African student Migrants refer to students from fifty-four (54) African countries which includes countries like Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Senegal, Sudan, Tunisia and Zimbabwe; seeking higher education abroad. (Varghese, 2008). The rise of international education has thus increased the movements of students to seek higher education in foreign countries. This group of people could either be self- financed as well sponsored students by host or home countries. The research thus focuses on selected African students seeking higher education in Norway.

1.7 ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH

Figure 1 organization of research



The study contains a total of five chapters. The current chapter encompasses the introduction to the research study, the objectives, and research questions, statement of problem and concept clarifications.

The second chapter reviews and analyses the major literature as well as the historical foundations of the brain drain or gain phenomena. It also examines the impact of foreign education in relation to the brain drain or gain puzzle. The section further contributes to the impact of foreign education on home and host countries and factors motivating the movements of African student migrants.

The chapter three embodies the various theories, the philosophical foundations of the study and the methodologies and discussed the corresponding rationale of each methodology applied. The chapter concludes with some pragmatic field experiences (limitation) as well as ethical considerations of the research. Chapter four encapsulates the presentation, discussion and analysis of data from the field. The final chapter (five) summarises the findings and discusses the implications of the findings.

CHAPTER TWO

2. The Brain Drain or Gain Debate

This chapter presents a review of prevailing literature on foreign education on the brain drain or gain debate, as well as contemporary articles on causes of brain drain or gain that are of particular significance to the research. The discussion will first look at the historical foundation of the phenomena (three generations of brain drain or gain) and then explore the impact of foreign education as a causal agent for brain drain or gain. It will review briefly the causes of brain drain or gain and then narrow the discussion to the scholarly debate on brain drain or gain in relation to the African context. I will discuss what literature perceives as brain drain or gain for both host and countries of origin and discuss the literature gaps.

2.1 Historical foundations of the Phenomena; (brain drain or gain Brouhaha)

This section introduces the crux of the brain drain brouhaha, outlining the supportive theories arguing about the effects of the brain drain manifestation in early ages. This section will then present arguments debating these theoretical assumptions from these early ages.

2.1.1 First generation brain drain Argument (1960-1968) “Internationalist” Model and the neoclassical growth model of “laissez passer”

The phenomenon of “brain drain or gain” was not new to the world. The brain drain argument thus began when governments of industrialized western countries recognized the severe shortage of domestic production of professionals like university professors, engineers and scientists. These western countries recognized the need to revise their immigration policies to recruit foreign trained health professionals (Wright et al., 2008). These countries upon realizing acute shortages in the health sector depended on qualified health professionals from developing countries to solve this conundrum. Though it was statistically cumbersome to relate to the number of health professionals from developing countries to these industrialized countries, industrialized commonwealth countries accelerated a universal state-run health insurance system which apparently increased the appetite for state-funded procedures (ibid). More skilled professionals were recruited to the developed world to the detriment of developing countries

leading to several debate of the “brain drain or gain” in the late 1960s (Webster, 1998). In a nutshell, the brain drain phenomena came into existence to condemn the flight of highly skilled labor from developing to developed countries; as it was described by the UN as a one-way exodus, that covered migratory flow from poor countries to rich countries and only benefited rich or industrialized countries (Adams, 1968).

Thus the late 1960s witnessed an intellectual debate between two prominent economists, Harry Johnson who opposed the nationalist protection views and Don Patinkin who supported the nationalist labor and migration policies (Adams, 1968). Johnson in his defence of opposing the policy established a premise by asking basic policy questions: *better or worse for whom? Is it the people of the home country or region (excluding those who might have left) or the whole world? Or is the policy directed to a specific place or nation rather than an identifiable set of people?* (Ellerman, 2004). These questions further set the agenda for Johnsons’ arguments.

Harry Johnson a Canadian by birth and lecturer at the University of Chicago and London school of economics, in his first anthologies of brain drain established a “cosmopolitan liberal” based position (Johnson, 1968, p.70). The essential idea of his position places emphasis on individual welfare gains for the migrating talent. He postulates that international flow of human capital is a beneficial process since “it mirrors the free choices of the individual who chooses to migrate” (Solimano, 2008). According to Johnson cited in Ellerman 2004, the policy reference group is the world as a whole, since individuals place culturally conditioned attachment to their countries of origin but, rationally it is a man-made path-dependent occurrence (Ellerman, 2004). Johnson further claims that with such man-made restrictions to migration in operation, less migration from low to high income countries occur than would be “economically optimal” hence such migration is not economically promising (ibid). Again Johnson’s cosmopolitan liberal position clarifies brain drain as a mutually constructive interchange of human and fiscal capital in modern labor market (Borta, 2007). Enthusiasts of Johnson’s model contend that people deliberately strive for utmost dividends equivalent to their education and as such this movement reflects the intentional choices made by these migrants (Ansah , 2002).

According to the cosmopolitan liberals, migration of skilled labor is affected by the factors of demand and supply powers in the labor market all things being equal (ibid). The internationalist competes that the destructive effects of brain drain might probably cause economic fatalities in a

short-term until replacements for the emigrants can be trained (Borta, 2007). These internationalists recognize tax revenue as an economic fatality as governments lose out on tax revenues of these professionals whose salaries might be quite enormous. Johnson however proposes tax revenue as a mandatory service by an employer or receiving country; nonetheless these tax payments are few and challenging to impose in the liberal world (Johnson, 1968). The honor then is on home countries to make tax payments attractive for high skilled labor to remain rather than expecting host countries to compensate people who migrate in their own accord. To these cohorts of internationalists such economic losses on brain drain do not affect the society negatively and that losses must surpass private gain to the emigrants and the country of immigration (Ansah, 2002, pp.21-24)

The opponent of Harry Johnson, Professor Don Patinkin, a professor at the Hebrew University, Jerusalem and a contrastive nationalist argued on the view of *“a middle-income developing country much concerned with potential brain drain, a concern that discards the perspective that the world should be viewed as a single aggregate from the welfare standpoint and that welfare of this unit is maximized by free flow of resources between countries”* (Patinkin, 1968, p.93)

Patinkin’s nationalist idea based on the above premise of his argument supports the protective and restrictive labour and migration policies which preserve jobs for natives (home) to prevent the outflow of home-trained skilled workers (Borta, 2007). He claims that developed countries do not adapt to the free flow of resources when the resources are the “population” and similarly developing countries do not conform to such notion as well when the resources are their own “skilled population”; the implication is that both developed and developing countries take into account the “circulation effect” and that the “free flow” notion is not significant to them (Patinkin, 1968). What therefore underlines Patinkin’s view is that countries must generate and use their own human capital and resources to protect its economic and political stability as well as well-being (Ellerman, 2004).

He then critiques the liberal assumption of “free emigration” denoting to his opponent Johnson and asked questions of what unindustrialized countries can do to reduce brain drain (ibid). He suggested a method to request developed countries to reduce immigration of highly skilled labor but he discarded this approach as being unreasonable, if not idealistic as companies and scientific institutions from the developed world would tirelessly search for such immigration and

governments would support it (ibid). Most often than not nationalists are of the view that recipient countries use selectiveness as apparatus that prolongs the problem by sieving out skilled personnel from home countries. Patinkin a contrastive nationalist however attacked this idea by contending that, the model in practice supports the right of out-migration more than the right of in-migration (Borta, 2007). To contrastive nationalist, the model is a machinery to attack countries trying to limit who leaves; less used to attack countries trying to limit who is coming in, which is taken as an accurate exercise of national sovereignty (Kuznetsov, 2006) .They criticised such perception based on an account that producing highly skilled labor is costly and usually supported by national funds and consequently countries attracting skilled labor are to be blamed for robbing brain power (Ansah , 2002).

Johnson's cosmopolitan approach was further echoed by Grubel and Scott throughout the periods of the upsurge of the brain drain argument. They maintained that skilled labor migration is not just good globally but also to the benefits of both sending and receiving countries (Vinokur, 2006). The claim here is that the outflow of skilled worker will lead to an optimal circulation of capital and increase the general welfare of the home and host country (ibid). Additionally, both uphold that home countries can take advantage from the "feedback effect" (transferal of remittances and technology back to home countries); thus home countries will have access to new knowledge from highly skilled citizens and immigrants (Borta, 2007). Grubel and Scott conclude that *"the world income should be higher with mobile human capital and marginal productivity will tend to balance, detonating that the neoclassical growth model (laissez passer) views human capital as a factor of production"* (Moguerou, 2006). This in effect, according to Grubel and Scott suggest that skilled migration flows of the first generation brain drain does not have negative effects because the negative consequences produced by emigration of skilled labor are restricted and rewarded for by migrants' remittances (Grubel & Scott, 1966).

2.1.2 Second Generation Brain Drain Argument (1970-1990 - Negative Brain Drains)

Despite, some positive effects of the laissez passer view, some scholars challenged the view by contending that, scientific and technological developments from the developing world had caused a steady shift from "labour-based" to "science based" capital formation (van Hoek, 1970.). The shift further increased the demand for skilled works from poorer-countries to rich-

countries. The shift thus led to several criticisms of the above paving the way for the second generation brain drain argument.

In contrast to the first generation brain drain discourse, the second generation advanced from the 1970s to the early 1990s; this view contends that skilled migration yields massive effects on sending countries (National Interest, 2012). This according to advocates creates a decline of human capital and a gap in social and private returns to education as well as adverse economic consequences (ibid). The home country however undergoes failed return on investment in education and they do not benefit from the positive economic consequence created by the manifestation of skilled labor (Commander et al., 2004). Again Daniele reiterates that the outflow of skilled labor creates dependency condition since there is massive interruption in the home countries, especially; remittances sent by migrants; and when this ensues, the gap between sending and recipient countries could be intensified (Daniele, 2000).

Another theory that emerged on the wheels of migration on the brain drain argument was the world system theory. This theory primarily epitomized the work of the dependency theory which according to Wallerstein had no interest in international migration (Wallerstein, 1998). The concern raised by supporters of the theory was their interest with “brain drain” (Borta, 2007). Proponents of the world system theory contend that the emigration of educated and skilled labor will in the long run impair development of poor countries especially human capital (ibid). This to them is an indication of an unequal balance of trade between poor and rich countries; when these developed countries accept and recruit these educated skill labor force from these poor countries, future economic prosperity as well as the fundamental resources (educated skilled labor) of these countries are drained (Daniele, 2000). Overly, the world system theory viewed brain drain as subsidy for wealthy countries by the poor since first generation covered cost of feeding, clothing, education and sustaining emigrants until productivity is achieved (Massey, 1998).

Academicians such as Bhagwati and Hamada, Bhagwati and Rodriguez were thus concerned about the potential effects of brain drain on the well-being and growth of the economy of home countries (Commander et al., 2004). These scholars claimed that brain drain could potentially have adverse effects on these home countries simply due to two alterations: (i) remuneration package and (ii) financing of education (ibid). They ascertain that negative impacts such as loss of their science and technological sector might cause massive outflow of skilled labor to these

developing countries. Bhagwati and Hamada on ascertaining such future conundrums on home countries recommended neoliberal reforms; such as human capital expenditures like education and health care, raising earnings as well as improved health over a person's lifetime to curtail such problems (Bhagwati & Hamada, 1974). These neoliberal reforms are considered as crucially essential for the development of a country. They believe that these liberal reforms such as the human capital expenditures cannot be replaced with financial and physical asserts (Borta, 2007). Ultimately, in an event where brain drain manifests, investments in education are transported with competent skilled personnel. This brings back the challenge of brain drain faced by developing countries in nurturing the human asset level of their population (ibid). Brain drain however, removes institutional memory in developing countries once it occurs swiftly and permanently. To scholars such as Eleanor Cambridge, skilled emigration aside economic distress exterminates the steady political effect of the middle class (Cambridge, 2006).

Furthermore, negative effects of brain drain have been captured in the neo-classical growth works. This to them is expressed in endogenous form (Borta, 2007). The idea is based on the premise that brain drain occurs when the "brightest brains" of an underdeveloped country has negative influences on its socioeconomic development (Hunger, 2002). The rippling effect is that brain drain would swell the existing high stock of labor of host countries and decrease the stock of home countries below the demanded threshold to encourage divergent growth paths, probably leading into a "poverty trap" (Schiff & Özden, 2006). When this occurs, the nationalist believe that host countries should compensate the host countries to solve the brain drain challenge. Further some enthusiasts of the nationalist policy emphasize that human capital must be accrued in home countries enough to maintain the existing stock notwithstanding emigration of high level of public expenditure for education, though its impact will increase migration (Borta, 2007). The second generation brain drain cohorts claim the ultimate goal of migration in this vein will upsurge the probable return to education which will inspire more people to capitalize on education (Vinokur, 2006). The end result of such results is a more skill-creation than skill-loss, before emigration will offer the home country with a net brain gain (ibid).

Subsequently, advocates of the growth theory argue that the phenomenon reduces human capital, which is detrimental to the remaining population due to limited skills. Hence, there is further negative impact on the fiscal growth of these countries. Brain drain as a phenomenon; to these

neoliberal thinkers offer divergent growth curves between host and home countries; host countries benefits more from increased knowledge gains from highly skilled immigrants as positive technological externalities of immigration rise by increased human capital available to the host country (Moguerou, 2006). The above assertion has however been challenged by the brain gain evidence that re-migration of educated migrants turns to favour the development process of home countries than host countries. However, the assumption is that human capital increases when re-migration of educated elites occurs as well as financial capital transfers to developing (home) countries (Hunger, 2002).

The neoliberal theory is based on an assumption that migrants returning home would most likely invest their capital through remittances to their families and friends back home (ibid). Again the conjecture as advocated by the theory makes an advance case for returned migrants investing successfully in their home countries than the natives upon return; largely due to economic expertise gained in developed (host) countries. The notion of human and financial capital understood by the theory as a form of capital meant, these capital accumulated by these returned migrants can be invested in home countries through remigration of the educated elites (Borta, 2007, p.30).

Re-migration according to the neoliberal brain drain literature can create markets in developed (host) countries through emigrating capitalists (Borta, 2007, pp.29-30). This to them will offer emigrating capitalists to build economic relationship with their counterparts from industrialized countries to open new investment opportunities. Emigrating educate capitalists could serve as “liaisons” between the home and host countries, which in a long run would create incentives to entice these emigrated scholars as well as integrating them in the countries developmental process (Borta, 2007). The above illustration however was rejected by the old-fashioned brain drain activists who were against the idea of “negative brain drain effect”. They were of the opinion that, for re-migration migrants to serve as “liaisons” between home and host country is imaginary and experimental unlikely: the reality is that educated emigrants will only return home when a certain standard of living mostly identical to that standard of living in host countries before returning home (Hunger, 2002). Whiles the traditional brain drain activist oppose these assentation, the new brain drain advocates affirms that “it is ideally possible as well as attainable for home (developing) countries to integrate them in their development processes (ibid). To

Borta, the above statement confirms that the disparities of the living standards in developing and developed countries, is based on the pull-push factors for skilled and educated citizens to migrate from their countries to these developed countries (Borta, 2007, pp.30-31).

2.1.3. Third Generation Brain Drain Argument – (1990 and Beyond) – Beneficial Brain Drain

After much criticism leveled against the brain drain phenomena, the concept resurfaced again with a more enthusiastic approach, designed to return highly skilled labor to their home countries to strengthen and reinforce the science and technology system (Gaillard & Gaillard, 1998). The emerging context reduced the loss that was attached to migration of skilled workers from developing to developed countries (ibid). Brain drain at this stage is been transformed into brain gain with some attractive national policies to attract educated expatriates (return option) and other programmes aimed at linking in tandem via internet the educated expatriates where the national community could explore the diaspora knowledge even without returning (Gaillard & Gaillard, 2015).

Events preceding this form of argument was one of mutual benefits that both home and host countries enjoy. The third generational argument countered the early debates and establishes the positive side of brain gain. The third generation brain drain discourse is established on the grounds of endogenous growth theory. Unlike the first endogenous growth theory discussed in the second generation brain drain argument which draws towards negative brain drain, this form of endogenous theory considers positive brain drain. Despite the continuation of the old-fashioned brain drain notion, it has been defied in a range of theoretical documents researching the effects of migration prospects on human capital creation within an outlook of doubt (Borta, 2007). To this advocates technology and knowledge are considered “endogenous” variables that determine the functions of output leading to growth (ibid). Human capital in effect is measured as a form of integral, excludable and competing knowledge that defines the likelihood of an edge over the competition. Human skills under this notion is therefore considered vital, when there is no agreement on the nature of the effects of brain drain (National Interest, 2012).

The current works on brain drain argument place emphasis on the outflow of skilled labor to enhance new businesses and activities in home countries through remittances (Commander et al.,

2004). Borta, however acknowledged the importance of remittances in enhancing productivity in home countries but was quick to mention the growth effects of outflow of skilled labor from home countries. Borta distinguished two effects namely; (i) ex ante “brain effect” when migration prospects foster investments in education due to higher returns abroad; and (ii) ex post “drain effect” initiated by actual migration flows (Borta, 2007). According to some authors brain drain eventually arises when the first effect (ex ante) is dominant, that is if the consistent level of human capital is higher in the economy opened to migrations than the closed economy (Beine et al., 2001). Brain drain causes a decline in the degree of growth of per capita income and the level of prosperity among populace of affected citizens.

Notwithstanding, the above challenge of brain drain, third generation brain argues towards the changing trends by converting brain drain to brain gain. Supporters of these notion tested the validity of brain gain by analyzing the brain drain effects. Catalina an advocate of the third generation brain drain used two conduits for a brain gain, (i) an ex ante gain conditioned by informational asymmetries and (ii) an ex-post gain through scientific diaspora networks, trying to set them against a sound theoretical foundation (Pănescu, 2003). Catalina contends that ambiguities surrounding migration as well as human capital accumulation could constitute a brain gain in home countries (ibid). In the new endogenous growth approach human capital plays a vital role in reversing brain drain. Catalina in her attempt to explain how brain drain can be reversed recognized different systems, of which intellectual diaspora networks have positive impacts on the development of home countries; majority of these diaspora network operate basically with government agencies, private, non-profit organization in home countries to improve development (ibid). Most of these diaspora networks work in areas of research, technology transfer and expert consulting, training courses and bringing foreign based companies to home countries which have impact on brain drain reverse. Ultimately sharing of ideas among locals and these diaspora networks could create networks and involvement in development ventures (Borta, 2007, p.31).

Furthermore, proponents of the new endogenous growth theory recognize the benefits of brain drain to sending (home) countries. The emphasis here is on human capital accumulation which is not identified as an individual but as a social activity due to its positive overflow. Regardless of the positive effects that the new endogenous theory brings, the traditional notion advocates

believe that though the identification of human capital is an important factor, it does offer very little. These traditional activists espouse that talent asset is seen as any other production process and talent itself as a form of physical capital in a personal advance that ignores the social underpinning of an economy. To them human capital is not a comprehensive like a physical capital, but a structure with complex interactive links and overflow between its components (Hunger, 2002). Furthermore, cohorts of this idea confirm that brain drain may increase income and education levels of the home country; while another establish that, brain drain may increase average productivity when migration is not persistent (Miyagiwa, 1991). Education is regarded as an incentive for beneficial brain drain. Mountford validates this view that *“people choose to educate themselves more in order to become appropriate for migration, and then to have access to the higher return of foreign labor market”* (Mountford, 1997). Mountford’s view as explained promotes human capital accumulation in home countries and may compensate the negative effect of brain drain. In effect, brain drain might be beneficial for growth and welfare of home countries as confirmed by Michel Beine, Hillel Rapoport and Frederic Docquier in conjunction with data from Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (Beine et al., 2001).

Irrespective of the numerous thinkers adding their voice on brain drain discourse, some authors have divergent views. Authors such as Yan Wang and Donald Lien argue on the premise that brain gains appear to be rational for developed (host) countries whereas brain drain thrives in developing (home) countries (Borta, 2007). Yan and Lien’s argument disagrees with the notion of the new endogenous theory; they claim that migration might drag the sending country to a worse human capital level formation hence lower social welfare (Lien & Wang, 2005). Maurice Schiff, a lead economist in the international Trade Unit at the World Bank, criticized the brain gain notion, claiming that brain-gain remittance economy does not substitute the significance of human capital lost to emigration (Schiff, 2005).

Schiff reverses the new brain drain notion theory and claim that these views are exaggerated; and that the impact of brain drain on welfare and growth will possibly be smaller. The conviction is that the negative effects on welfare and growth would be considerably greater than reported in texts, largely due to negative effects of the brain gain on human capital, welfare and growths have not been taken into account (Schiff, 2005). The long term effects of brain drain dwindles

the growth of developing countries as well as slowing down their capacity to compete in the global market (ibid).

2.2 Connecting the cord; Impact of foreign Education on Brain drain or gain nexus

Movement of people from one place to another is not an innovative phenomenon. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, about 3% of the world's population lives in a country other than their country of birth, 33% from developing to developed countries (UNDESA, 2009). The movement of people from developing to developed country is characterized by several reasons. In the case of Africa, apart from economic and war driven migrants, another group of migrants are students from different parts of the continent in search of quality education outside their various countries. Though an authentic data on African student migrant is scarce, it is estimated that an average of 23,000 qualified academicians migrate from Africa yearly (Chacha, 2007). Another striking statistic is that nearly 1 in 10 tertiary –educated individual with a university or post-secondary schooling now live in the developed country (Odhiambo, 2013). To further confirm the excessive movement of African student migrants to the developed world: About 30% of Africa's university-trained professionals as well as up to about 50, 000 Africans with PhD live and work outside Africa (Sriskandarajaah, 2005).

Human capital is a vital component of a developing countries development; this however based on the statistics enumerated above is progressively disappearing from Africa into the developed world. Academicians, politicians and social think-tanks have expressed concerns over this current trend. It is an undeniable fact that if Africa should integrate into the global economy, some level of mobility is necessary. Nevertheless, the migration of vast majority of African students cum skilled ones pose a threat of a brain drain which may affect Africa's growth and development (Odhiambo, 2013), as echoed by the Economic commission for Africa (ECA) "*The emigration of African professionals to the West is one of the greatest obstacles to Africa's development*" cited in (Facts & Figures, 2011). Despite its threat to Africa's growth and development, a school of thought is of the view that the phenomenon is overdramatized and attracts attention to the beneficial costs of the migration for countries losing their professionals. The argument raised here is that returning migrants from overseas are now reversing the "brain drain" into "brain gain" since a cycle of study and work abroad may be followed by a return to

the home country, hence promoting a dramatic rise of African students abroad (Miyagiwa, 1991). Remittances re-emerged as a positive impact in the argument for the transformation of “brain drain” to “brain gain” since migrants send money home for further development. However another author though re-affirms the significance of remittances for African countries: Woldetensae contends that, it does not substitute the negative effects of the outflow of “student migrants” and “brain drain” (Woldetensae, 2007)

The above briefly explains how foreign education has had an impact on the brain drain, nonetheless academic literature on migration seems to neglect issues of student migrants as another twist to the brain drain debate (King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003). Conventionally, brain drain is related to the movement of highly skilled individuals from home countries to other countries, the failure of students to return to their home countries after their studies abroad needs a special attention. Many students including African students are to remain in the country of study, thus foreign education is gradually becoming another major export commodity for developed countries (Gribble, 2008). Most of these developed countries in return have embraced the idea to help fill their shortage of skilled manpower as well as altering migration policies to create the needed room for talented students to remain in these countries after their studies. Developed Countries such Australia, Canada, United Kingdom and New Zealand are good examples of developed countries with elastic policies in recruiting international students (Rizvi, 2005). Foreign education according to Burdent & Crossman is a brain gain for these developed countries, for instance international student recruitment has generated over a billion dollars for Australia with majority coming from Asia (Burdett & Crossman, 2012).

Consequently, developed (host) countries have exploited the situation quiet well to the disadvantage of the developing (home) countries through active recruitment of international students (Odhiambo, 2013). Odhiambo further argues that the international student market is a significant revenue vessel for host countries but it also seeks to address skill scarcities in these countries (ibid). Again, some of these developed countries offer foreign students the opportunity to apply for permanent residency which in effect is increasing the growing number of foreign students moving into these developed countries. Research has revealed that the experience of studying overseas raises considerably the chances of being a skilled migrant (Gribble, 2008). Again recent data estimate that 50% of oversea students return home after completion of study:

this according to the third generation brain drain advocates is considered as “brain gain” or “positive brain drain” for the home country but in an event where they remain in the country of studies becomes a “negative brain drain” (Lowell et al., 2004). Furthermore, according to the OECD, the decision by most of these students to study abroad is often part of a deliberate immigration strategy that is often facilitated by immigration policies of host countries, an example is Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden) (Tremblay, 2005).

2.3 Impact of Foreign Education on Home and Host Countries – Brain drain or gain

The benefits of student migrants to both home and host countries has been an area of extensive discussion. Varied views have been expressed by scholars, authors and social commentators. According to associates of the negative brain drain (2nd generation) host countries become ultimate winners in the transfer of foreign students from home countries. These advocates are of the view that host countries gain from revenue created from fee-paying foreign students and have access to qualified graduates after completing their programme. To them foreign students are the engines of growth for their economy when they decide to stay after their programme (Gribble, 2008). An example of such benefit is the role played by foreign students in advance the science and engineering initiative through research and academic work in universities, industries and government (National Academies, 2005),

Again, the movement of foreign students to study abroad cripples the already scarce resources of the host countries. Developing countries view their human resources as the productive tool hence the inability of their trained elites to return home means home countries will miss out on the expert knowledge need by these countries for development. Nunn also acknowledges the importance of academic labor if a country is successful in training other key professionals who will contribution to the building of institutions and develop social and human capacity for development (Nunn , 2005). To Nunn, migration of foreign students and scholars to developed countries is a crucial loss to the host country.

Notwithstanding the negative effects advocated by literature the impact of foreign education however is not all gloomy but have some positive impacts on the home country as well. Positive brain drain suggests that home countries can also benefit from educating their citizens outside. “Brain circulation” is often used to define the progressively circular nature of migration (Gribble,

2008). This is because some student migrants may want to keep financial, cultural and to some extent political networks with their home country. Again, the belief is that increased student movement may increase high education in home countries by solving the unfulfilled cost to home countries. Student Migrants may also transfer technology, financial remittances, entrepreneurial partnering as well as develop their own networks. Though literatures seem to have divergent views on the impact of foreign education on home and host countries; the dilemma of whether it is a brain drain or gain is still yet to be unraveled despite the fact that the movement of foreign student provides significant boost to these countries contributing to a nationwide sustainable economic development.

2.4 Motivations Causing the Movements of African Student Migrants (Foreign Countries)

The motives behind the movement of African student migrants to foreign countries are many and not completely implicit. Scholars and authors in academia have shared their thoughts on these pressing issues. Grubel contends that professional research opportunities in foreign countries remain a prime motivation for migration among student migrants (Grubel, 1995, pp.80-83). Carrington and Detragiache added to the above reason by mention wage differentials, quality of life, educational opportunities for their spouse and family and job security as the likely reason for their migration to developed countries (Carrington & Detragiache, 1999). More so, political insecurity, lack of career opportunities and poor working conditions may also stimulate these student migrants to move to advanced countries (Vaknin, 2002).

Most often than not African students struggle with funding for research projects and therefor are not able to continue further, hence pragmatic stimuli to migrate. This was reverberated at the conference to address brain drain capacity building in Africa. *“Africa spends less on higher education systems, and research laboratories are in deplorable states”* (Tapsoba, 2000). Questions were asked of Africa’s ability to keep their best minds: when they continue to pay less attention to experienced researchers and skilled labor than the youngest unskilled military personnel and security guards (ibid). Again, the challenge of war also plays a crucial part in the African migrant’s decision to migrate. Wars over the last three decades have made living conditions impossible for these best brains to stay on the African continent. Tapsoba concludes that Africa is doing everything possible to keep the best brains away. *“It is time for Africa to*

value and treat its experts like it values foreign experts” (ibid). The situation is no different when an African studies to the highest level in Africa and competes with foreign experts for the same job, preference lies more with the foreign expert. Tapsoba elucidates “In modern Africa, it is of no surprise for policy makers to prefer foreign experts over qualified Africans”. Brain drain is an expensive venture and Africa cannot afford it (ibid).

Nonetheless, literature illustrates that a better wage difference between the host country and the home country, the greater the incentive to accumulate human capital and the more likely that brain drain of migrants will be overshadowed by the brain gain of non-migrants (Stark & Wang, 2001). The above statement thus enumerates that, the deprived in poor countries have the advantage to gain more and need to panic less from appropriate organized migration by skilled members of the country’s labor force (Stark et al., 1998). Scholars such as (Bienne, Docquier and Rapport 2001; Pang, Lansang and Haines 2002) indicates that there are positives like remittances, return migration of skilled professionals and creation of business networks which also arouses the movement of these African student migrants cited in (Mugimu, 2010). These scholars are of the view that the high proceeds of brain drain could be a benefit for friends and family of the migrant.

The literature of migration of students and high education suggests that student’s migration can also be influenced by Marco-decisions by government. Scholars like Poutvaara contend that while migration breeds private investment in human capital, it may lead to a reduction of public investment in education, due to free riding (Poutvaara, 2006). Mechtenberg and Strausz also emphasized this line of thought by stressing the trade -off facing government (competition versus free-riding) (Mechtenberg & Strausz, 2008). Hence, there will be the need for a central planner to decide to invest in the quality of higher education in order to attract foreign students, and because of more competition, increases the amount of investment. In another vein the central planner might encourage local students to obtain foreign education free of charge (Brezis, 2016). “*Free-riding*” is basically on the account of the host country to reduce the number of investments in higher education. Literature further highlights other motives as socio-cultural motives where families move to these countries due to their family ties (Poutvaara, 2006).

2.5 Conclusion

The purpose of the chapter was to discover the evolving consequences associated with migration through the academic lens and relate the various arguments to the research topic in question. The presentation looked at the various historical debates like the importance, similarities, differences and characteristics of the various generational arguments in relation to the study. The argument established different understanding of migration (brain drain or gain phenomena). The various generational debates showed the importance of skilled workforce (human capital) to the development of a country's economy. These theories outlined the benefits and drawbacks on both sending and receiving countries.

However, the theories emphasized their argument on skilled labour mobility. Most literature on the phenomenon of "brain drain or gain" is basically directed to human capital to the detriment of other areas of migration. Further, I related the various arguments with the impact of foreign education on both transfer and recipient countries in relation to the brain drain or gain Phenomenon; causes of the African student migrants in connection with the various theories to the study were discussed. The neglect of other forms of the brain drain or gain (Student Migrants) by literature thus is a source of motivation for the study. Further the research seeks to address the issues of brain drain or gain with regards to African student migrants who would later become the skilled or human capital literature place emphasis on.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORORIZING THE PHENOMENON AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter elaborates on two major migration theories and then reveals the main theory for the research study. The second part of the chapter will discuss the various methodologies employed in the research. It will encapsulate the theoretical foundation of the study, research strategy, data collection and method of analysis. The concluding part of the chapter discusses the ethical considerations and some limitations from fieldwork.

3.2 Brain Drain or Gain Theoretical Puzzle

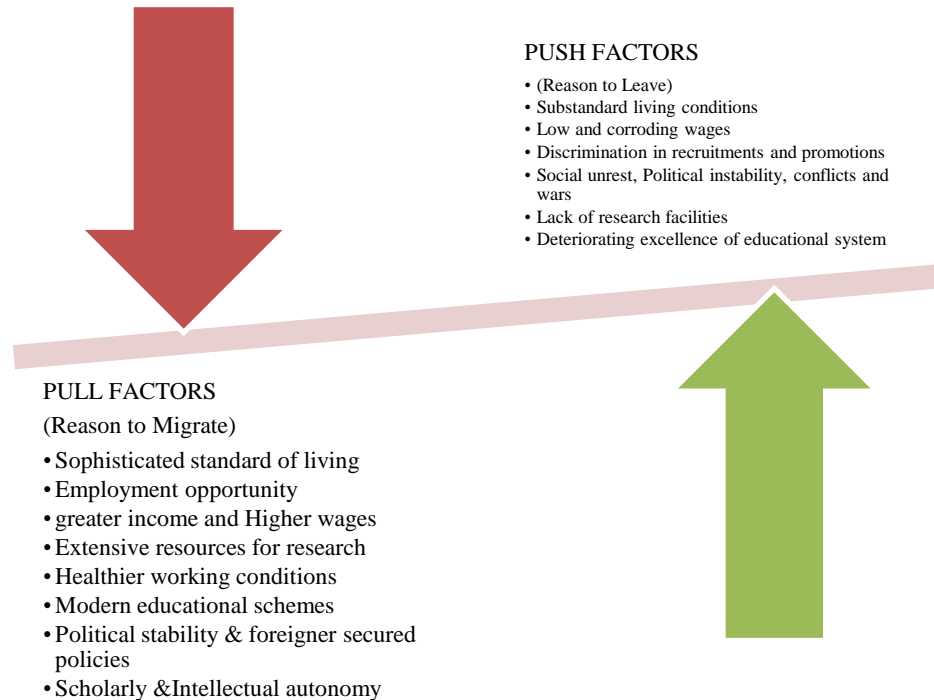
Migration as an interdisciplinary phenomenon has no commonly established prevailing theory. The study of the phenomenon encompasses areas of studies such as sociology, political studies, law, demography, economics, and geography, psychology and cultural studies. Nonetheless due to complexities surrounding the occurrence of the phenomenon several theories have been used to explain its occurrence; Neo-classical economic, new economic, world system and dual labour market theories. Following the nature of the research studies two dominate theories will be discussed in relation with the African student migrant's context.

3.2.1 Neo-classical Theory

The neoclassical theory fathoms migration to be motivated by dissimilarities in returns to labour across markets. The theory contends that migration is driven by geographical differences in supply and demand as well as the difference in wages between labour-rich versus capital-rich countries (Kurekova , 2011). The underlining assumption of the neoclassical theory is solely dependent on wages. This assumption predicts that, under full employment there is a direct relationship between wage disparities and migration flows. (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999). The advocates of the neoclassical theory conclude that, a major cause of international migration is purely an economic chase: the assumption is that migration is closely associated with the “push-pull” factors (De Haas, 2008). “Push factors” like unemployment, low salaries, lack of health

care, and pull factors like: high salaries, low unemployment force people towards leaving their home countries (ibid).

Figure 2 showing push-pull factors



Note: As adopted from: (emmigration.info, 2014)

However, further changes and observations to the argument of the neoclassical model claims that the direct relationship between the wage disparities and migration flow does not exist and that both the degree of wage difference and the level of the country's income matter (Kurekova , 2011). Likewise the ability to migrate is connected with the cost, besides it is not the underprivileged individuals who migrate, nor the underprivileged countries which send the most labor (De Haas, 2008). Migration therefore increases with the growth of a country's wealth as more people are able fund their movement. Hence, a country's continuous development (trained professionals, resources, proper infrastructure, and proper educational systems) would reduce emigration.

More so, at the micro-level, neo-classical migration theory classifies migrants as simple players, who migrate to foreign countries as a result of cost-benefit analysis (De Haas, 2008). The notion is that as long as they have the free will and access to information, individuals are expected to go

where they can be very productive (high wages). The ability of an individual to move abroad in this sense depends on the particular talent the individual possesses as well as structure of labour market (Kurekova , 2011). This micro –level model of individual choice is considered as human capital theory of migration. It incorporates the socio-demographic features of an individual which is a significant determinant of migration at the micro-level (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999). To Bauer and Zimmermann, migration thus reduces with age and generally increases with education level since it increases the individuals chances of been employed (ibid).

The neoclassical theory of migration despite its strong prepositions have been criticized for reducing migration determinants, ignoring market imperfections, homogenizing migrants and migrant societies as well as been ahistorical and lethargic (De Haas, 2008). These critics further add that the theory disregards effects of home and host states and leaves out significance of politics and policies, which are considered as supplementary immigration cost (Kurekova , 2011). With countless criticisms of the “neoclassical and the push-pull theories”, it shaped the emergence of new theoretical angles.

3.2.2 New Economic Migration Theory (NEM)

The new economic migration theory is considered as an extension of the neo-classical migration theory. This theory was espoused to challenge some of the assumptions of the neo-classical approach, offering a new level of analysis and different nature of migration determinants and it shift the focus of migration research from individuality to mutual interdependence (Stark, 1991). The theory views migration as a result of a decision not made by individuals but families or group. The decisions made by migrants are influenced by a broad-range of determinants which shape the conditions in the home country (King, 2013). Furthermore, decision making with regards to the new economic theory is based on an analysis of cost and benefits by family, which endeavor to increase its income by minimizing risks that may result such as failures of variety of market (Striking Women, 2016). Migration according to the new economic theory in the absence of wage differentials does not imply irrationality but induces the family to consider a set of elements related to relative deprivation (Stark, 1991). The new economic theory comparable to the neo-classical theory, push–pull factors is used to understand family decision-making. An example of such situation is when a family sends a member to work or school in another country

depending on the remittances to minimize the risk for the rest of the family (King, 2013). Stark on his analysis concludes that migration based on the new economic theory provides important strategy in dealing with different market failure (Stark, 1991).

Additionally, in understanding the dynamics involved in the functioning of the theory, proponents of the theory outlined the fundamental notions of the model as follows:

- ❖ Families, households and other culturally defined units of production and consumption are those who count in analysis for migration research
- ❖ A wage difference is not the necessary condition for making decision to migrate to another country
- ❖ When wage inequality fades, it does not necessarily mean international migration stops. The conviction to migration will exist if the other markets in the country of origin such as: capital market, insurance market and consumer credit market are absent.
- ❖ Government could change the size of migration flow through amending labour markets and in case they do not exist or are imperfect (Tomanek, 2011).

These notions outlined above stresses on family decisions as vital element to the theory and why individual economic elements might not be enough in explaining people's motivation to migrate, thereby aiding us to recognize migration flow from the perspective of the family or group.

The theory introduces remittance as a crucial part of the migration study as it supports the perception of family interconnectedness as well as diversifying risk while systematically connecting the empirical study of causes and consequences of migration (Taylor, 1999.). Although, the new economic theory espoused to challenge some notions of the neo-classical theory, it has been criticized for sending-side prejudice as well as its limited applicability. The theory due to its limited application neglects the role of political instability and lack of freedom in forcing people to migrate from their country in search of security on foreign lands. The criticism of the NEM is placed more on the economic factor to the neglect of migration in the context of political instability.

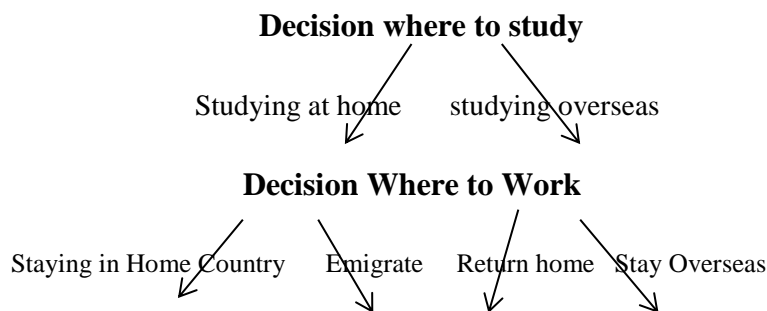
The two theories discussed above though have difference in terms of decision making; there is a similarity between them, both base their argument on economic factors. The neo-classical theory argue on the individual decision making in migrating whiles the new economic theory captures

group or family influence in one's decision to move to another country. The nature of the research will however place emphasis on the neo-classical theory using the “push-pull factors” of migration to access the brain drain or gain phenomenon.

3.2.3 Theoretical Move beyond Neo-classical Economic Theory (Push & Pull Factors)

The neo-classical economic theory arguably is a dominant migration theory is being reconsidered as the framework for the research study, in relation to present conditions to identify and discuss the potential drivers in the movement of the African student migrants.

Figure 3 Individual's decision to study and work



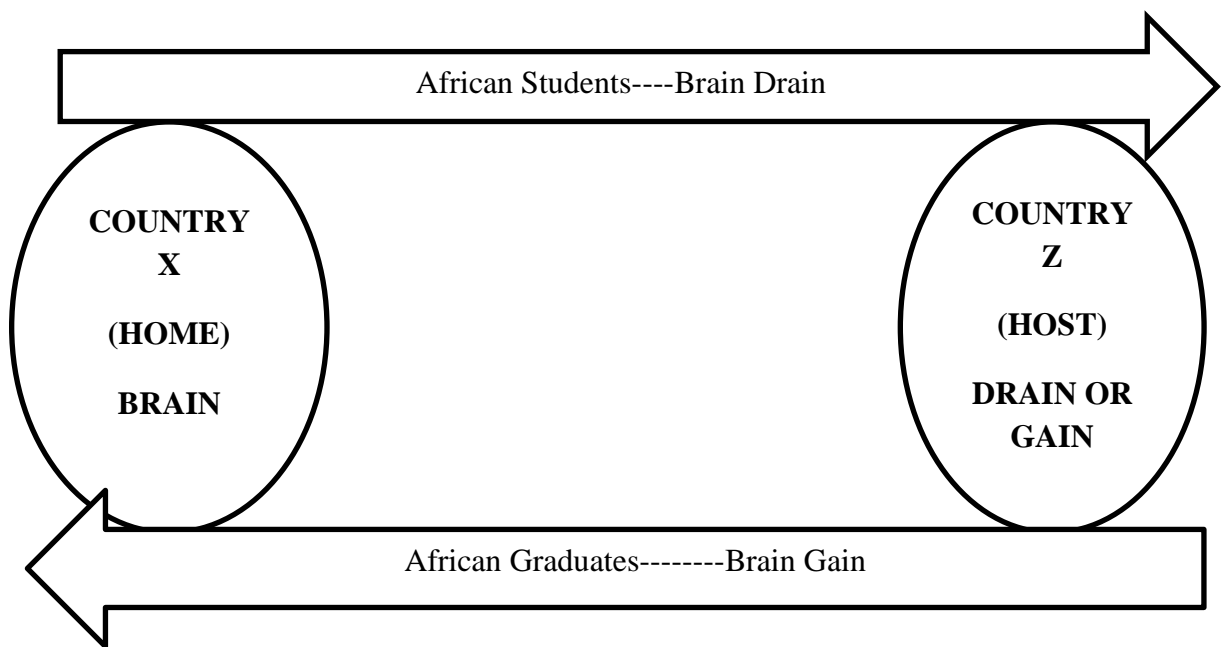
As Adopted: (Brezis, 2016)

The neo-classical theorist in their argument for migration of an individual is purely based on economic chase. Individuals do not make the decision to migrate in isolation, they are thus influenced by elements which De Haas referred to them as the “push-pull factors” (De Haas, 2008). According to this neo-classical economic theorist the “Push factors” are the hostile conditions in home countries that drives people to leave: job scarcity, low wages, crime, armed conflicts, political repression, human rights abuses, devaluation of currency and poor educational systems (Olumide & Ukpere, 2011). The pull factors were defined as the encouraging conditions in host countries that makes these migrants move: less bureaucratic control, greater salaries, safety of environment and higher living standards (ibid). Largely, student migrants according to literature migrate due to the exposure of these pull factors sometimes referred to them as “greener pastures” (ibid).

The “push-pull factors” are the underlying reasons why African students migrate abroad. The deteriorated conditions of educational infrastructure as well as low quality of higher education in some African countries pave the way for African students to travel abroad to further their

education (Crush & Frayne, 2010). The destinations obviously are countries (Canada, Germany, Norway, United Kingdom and United State of America) with the pull factors to offer these student migrants the best opportunities. Sometimes most of these students are sent to these countries by their home governments with the intention of return home to assist develop their countries after their degrees. The story however changes when many of them decide to stay permanently due jobs with higher salaries and better living conditions instead of returning home with the uncertainty of been employed (Olumide & Ukpere, 2011).

Figure 4 Hypothetical brain drain or gain between Country X and Z



As Adopted: (Olumide & Ukpere, 2011).

The figure above illustrates a hypothetical brain or gain between country (Home) X and Z (Host).

Nonetheless, apart from these conditions some African student migrants who travel abroad for further education make their decision on family grounds as espoused by the new economic theory. Student refuse to return home due to social pressures like repaying family loans, ability to take care of other siblings to attain a certain level of education and family pressure to marry especially women from some parts of Africa. Such push factors according to the neo-classical

theory would increase the African brain drain with education as major causal agent (De Haas, 2008).

Most often than not literature estimates that African governments do not earn the reward as “brains” sent to these developed countries do not return to their home countries after their education (Figure 2). Crush and Frayn also claims that the “pull –push factors” as enumerated above have increasingly drove most African elites to foreign nations with the goal of seeking “greener pastures” (Crush & Frayne, 2010). Furthermore, several scholars postulate that some developed countries lack the skilled professionals to help with their development process (Scott et al., 2004). To these scholars African student migrants stand the chance of been absorbed into these countries since most of these countries have softened their immigration laws to accommodate these migrants (ibid). These incentives from the developed countries attract Africa students and professionals to the developed world, where better wages are at the core of the labour market. Africa’s carrot to keep its professionals cannot stand the test of time with the richer countries offering lucrative packages for their best brains (Shrestha et al., 2008). The situation is however not all glorious as some of these well-educated students do not attain the desired jobs as well as getting employed. Most of these well-educated students either get frustrated of being unemployed and thus accept jobs below their qualification (Meyer & Brown , 1999).

Another pull factor is the state of democracy and political stability in some African countries. Some African countries such as Burundi, Congo, Democratic republic of Congo, Rwanda Somalia and Tunisia have witnessed over three decades of coups, dictator military regimes, civil wars, ethnic clashes and political instability as a result selfish and greedy politicians. These political instable challenges are some of the drivers pulling the African professionals away in search for peace.

Adoption of this theory is based on the evaluation of contextual circumstances of the African student migrants. Again, the move beyond the above deliberated economic theories is to explore the micro level of the brain drain phenomenon, a change that debates the phenomenon directly using the push-pull elements. The push-pull factors will aid my understanding of looking at the subjective level of the phenomenon. The study will examine existing brain drain or gain issues qualitatively. From the push-pull perspective, the study will examine respondents’ opinion

(African student Migrants) on brain drain or gain for home or host countries, expectations and challenges in schooling abroad and suitable approaches to curtail the brain drain or gain phenomenon among African student migrants. This will be discussed bearing in mind the review of the drivers causing movement of African student migrants. The study next presents and discusses the methodology.

3.3 Philosophical Standpoint and Methods

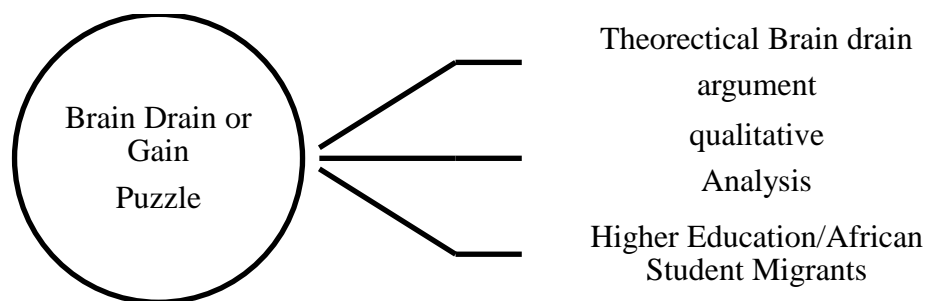
The second part this chapter as earlier stated will discuss the methodological approach to the study. This will encapsulate the philosophical foundations of the study, research design, data collection and method of data analysis. The concluding part of will reflect on the ethical consideration as well as limitations from the field.

3.4 Philosophical Foundation of the Study

Research methodologies are mainly built on certain philosophies. The use of either quantitative or qualitative methods exhibits a distinctive but divergent preoccupation to the research. However before detailing the main research methodology, it is significant to highlight the philosophical underpins of this research study. The research study will adopt the qualitative style of analysis. This method of analysis is motivated by the approach's credible techniques for analyzing socio-political behaviors of people and interest groups within as well as outside the socio-political field. (Bryman, 2001).

The study will adopt the position of “*constructivist ontological*” and “*interpretivist epistemological*” orientation. This position determined the choice of analyzing the brain drain or gain phenomena; hence the arrangement of this research will have this outlook:

Figure 5 Thesis element interactions.



The “*constructivist-interpretivist*” angle offers the researcher and the respondents the opportunity and ability in relation to the qualitative method to “provide variety in the socio-political arena, rather than giving one specific meaning of it” (Bryman, 2004). Generally “*interpretivism*” presents the research a level of understanding of some social phenomenon like migration, and how concepts such as brain drain or gain and higher education are socially fabricated from divergent perspectives of respondents.

According to academia, *Epistemology* “examine the question of what should be observed as an acceptable knowledge”, whereas *Ontology* considers the extent in which social entities should be considered independent or part of social reality” (Bryman, 2001). Both paradigms establish the understanding about the social world and fundamentally pursue social phenomena and how social research is investigated. There have being contradictions among scholars with regards to these two paradigms. Some scholars are of the view that social reality is characterized by “*Positivism*”, the proper natural science devoid of any human interpretation, whereas another school of thought on opposing positivism perceives social reality as socially constructed and subject to human interpretations and actions that is “*interpretivism/constructivism*” (Shaw & Gould, 2001, p.7)

The idea of “*interpretivism*” according to these scholars includes a writers’ critical application of a scientific model and been influenced by traditional models in their study of social reality (ibid). The main logic behind an interpretative qualitative research is to clarify the ways people in a specific setting come to understand; account for, take action and other wise manage their daily situations (ibid). Qualitative data thus is concerned with activities which carry with them goals and effects and lead to consequences. Thus interpretivism compliments the discrepancies between people and the objects of the natural sciences and therefore involves a subjective

meaning of social activities (Bryman, 2004). Again, embracing an interpretative epistemology, the research investigator acknowledges the interpretations of others and attributes them scientific framework of ontology, theory and literature of a discipline (Bryman, 2001)

Furthermore, some scholars perceive the social world as *Positivism*, an *epistemological* paradigm which acknowledges social phenomena as true and acceptable if it relates to a natural science model independent of pre-conceptions and prejudices based on emotion and social effects (Bryman, 2004). However, underlying features which place emphasis on objectivity, an ontological view challenge the above assertion. This view relies on the principle that the study of the social world should be external to social actors including the researcher. Thus statistical data is the most dominant research strategy within this paradigm. Contrary to the above, interpretivism as an epistemological notion holds the opinion that true meaning comes as a consequence of respondents actions in a genuine world (Crotty, 1998). To these advocates of interpretivism, studying of social phenomena and human behaviour does not exist in a void but interacts hence the influence of external elements (Bryman, 2004). An ontological perspective of this position is “*constructionism*”. *Constructionism* contends that social phenomenon and their meaning are often being accomplished by social factors (Bryman, 2004, p.266). With the aforementioned approaches discussed above, the researcher will consider the interpretivist-constructivist approach as realistic to the study. A vital reason for the choice of this approach is to offer the researcher the prospect and capability to enhance the research with his understanding of the social reality upon interactions with the subjects of the study (African student Migrants in Norway). As noted by Bryman, consensual interpretation of meaning, understanding of the environment as well as the ability to interact with it will offer the researcher and the participants with the chance to “present a specific version of the social world, rather than a definitive of it” (Bryman, 2008, p.19) Consequently, the study aims to understand the interpretation and meaning of the brain drain or gain puzzle among African student migrants in real world situation.

3.5 Research Strategy: Qualitative Methods

Qualitative research approach will be consulted to explore the influence of foreign education on the brain drain or gain processes. The choice of the research approach depends on the interest of research investigation (Creswell, 2007). Qualitative approach is sometimes referred to as

“naturalism” (Hammersley & Atkins, 2007). Most often than not social scientist prefer the qualitative approach for data collection; it is believed that qualitative method has information in abundance and offer the research investigator the ability to make conclusions about social processes in a specific setting (Neuman, 2005). Thus its analysis is empirical and could be manipulated to suite or identify the relationship among them (Hammersley & Atkins, 2007). Qualitative approach to social scientists is quite flexible in terms of philosophical understanding and data gathering (Neuman, 2005)

Qualitative approach has its inherent strengths and weakness in terms of its application. Hamersley postulates that qualitative approach does not observe statistical laws which do not give priority to phenomena that are directly observable (Hammersley & Atkins, 2007). Bryman, however observes that qualitative approach offers comprehensive understanding of a specific circumstance which limits the ability to generalize (Bryman, 2012). Despite its weakness, qualitative approach is deemed the most commonly used method in surveying a real-world situation. Again Robert Yin particularizes the importance of qualitative approach:

“You just might want to study a real-world setting, discover how people cope and thrive in the setting-and capture the contextual richness of people’s everyday lives. Just consider the variety of the topic that you might be able to study” (Yin, 2011)

In order to understand the social reality and varied ways of understanding the real world settings in understand the social phenomena (interpretivism) of brain drain or gain, qualitative approach will be employed in conducting the research. The essence of employing this approach will permit the researcher to observe the conduct of self and other elements as well as understand the social mechanisms of social processes, and practice of an initiative that is been understudied (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Bryman interpreted the importance of qualitative technique by elucidating its ontological and epistemological nature respectively: as an idea that involves interactions between individuals rather than the phenomena as well as understanding the social world order by exploring and interpreting it by its respondents (Bryman, 2008). The choice of qualitative research for this study is also due to the approaches’ exploratory nature and triangulation abilities. The exploratory nature also allows the research investigator to design questions “why and how”

which may later develop as the research advances. This however may aid the researcher to cross-check (triangulation) the outcomes of the study in connection with other research strategies used in an event of intentional or unexpected strategy (Bryman, 2012). The essence here is to validate same outcomes when there several sources within the same study but address different conclusions (Yin, 2011). The above reasons make qualitative technique a more credible method in addressing my central research question.

3.6 Research Design

The research was analysed with the qualitative approach. The research encompasses interview and transcribing. Though transcribing an interview is basically time consuming, it however offers the research investigator to go the extra mile by digging deeper into understanding the complexities of the social reality (migration issues) (Brockington & Sullivan, 2003). Thus the method endorsed a good relationship between a researcher and the respondents. This is crucial to gaining a valid insight into the sensitive influence that social phenomenon like migration has on people involved. Qualitative approach thus will aid my knowledge of exploring the subjective experiences of African student migrants and advance my understanding of personal perception of the push-pull factors. Further, as Bryman suggests “a researcher obtains knowledge through experiences”, the use of qualitative approach will assist my in-depth understanding by seeking the views of respondents to ascertain the phenomenon (Bryman, 2008).

Further the research employed the ethnographical approach to observe and study the cultural phenomena of the participants (Brockington & Sullivan, 2003). In this process semi-structured interview and to some extent interviews were conducted informally as more time was spent with the respondents to understand the cultural phenomena to understand the issue to be studied (Bryman, 2008).

3.7 Methods of Data Collection and In-depth Interview

The two main methods to be employed for the research are Primary and secondary data sources (Bryman, 2012). Primary data is considered as the researcher’s authentic information from the field, Whiles Secondary data is a collection of information from archives, government

documents, policy reports, books, scientific reviewed journals, policy report and internet sources (Bryman, 2004). Hammersley contends that researchers' qualitative approach it is appropriate to use non-directive interview, in which the interviewee is allowed to express him/herself at length in his or her own terms as opposed to direct questions (Hammersley & Atkins, 2007). Thus the researcher's primary data is mainly an in-depth interview to acquire a wide variety of response from participants during the research. Primary data is crucial in a research study largely due to its compatibility: also to reduce as much influence of the researcher on what is said as well as to open up the respondents to express their views on the phenomena in question (ibid). This method of acquiring information directly from my participants enabled the researcher to understand new ideas from the participants, at the same time restricting my influence on the data outcome as an African student migrant.

The views expressed above influenced my selection of semi-structured interviews. I conducted a "narrative in-depth interview" with Eleven (12) selected African student migrants. Though the interview guide had some constructed questions, the questions were malleable in that, there were follow up questions to gain insight on the objective views of the respondents (ibid). In a semi-structured interview, topics and questions are decided before the interview; however the order of the questioning is spontaneous. The main goal of the choice of semi-structured interview is to establish a dialogue between the researcher and his/her respondents. Again semi-structured interviews are as informal as a conversation, but the interview is directed by the interview guide to allow systematic answers (see interview guide in appendix 1).

The interviews were conducted through a mobile voice recorder in tandem with text. It was a face-face interview. The setting of the interview was chosen based on the interviewee's choice and convenience which was intentional to manage time, allow the interviewee to feel at home as well as comprehensive information (Berg & Lune, 2012, p.151). The in-depth interviews allowed the researcher to navigate through the participants' background, ideology, and social preference and at some point language such that the researcher can modify the interview questions to suit his/her and the interviewees' needs without relinquishing his or her role. Before the fieldwork, a series of drafted semi-structured questions based on the literature on the research question were constructed for review by my supervisor. Based on the review from my supervisor, a finalized

semi-structured question guide was made for a pilot interview with colleagues before going to the field.

The research questions were outlined to relate to relevance of the main research question as well as the sub-research questions. The goal behind the interview guideline was to tap into the personal experiences of the participants to cover some of the research gaps on the brain drain phenomena. Again questions were open to allow respondents to offer their opinions fairly. Generally, questions asked were basically open-ended to allow participants answer questions easily and without talking too long. Questions asked at some point were not directly related to the findings in question, just to build a rapport between the researcher and the interviewee to create easiness to allow smooth flow of interview: Thus enabled “sensitive” questions to be asked at the end of the interview. The consistent flow of the interview was considered though, it was a challenge sometimes.

Notwithstanding the above positives concerning the semi-structured interview, there were some challenges on the field. Though most of my respondents were academically sound, I had challenges with language and word pronunciation since the respondents came from different countries with varied accent (Bryman, 2012). There were some misinterpretations by participants in translating the question, thus the need for a simulation interview before the actual interview with some of the participants. This however offered the needed flow of the interview to avoid further time wasting. The positive experience I had was that all my respondents speak English no matter the country, making communication quiet flexible and reduced the time spent on each interview from the initial interviews which took lots of time per respondents

3.8 Field Access

The research study area where the fieldwork was carried out was in Norway. The African student’s network “Ubuntu” made of several nationalities assisted me with respondents to conduct the interview. As a member of the student network, gaining access to participants in a particular location to conduct my fieldwork was made easier by members of the student network. As my research study was conducted in Oslo, the student network suggested members in close proximity to reduce traveling hours and expenses. The researcher embarked on a field trip, which was significant to access a first- hand information on the topic as brain drain phenomena remains

relatively under – research with regards to educational brain drain or gain among African nationals.

3.9 Sampling and Sampling Techniques

As introduced above the scope of the study area, Norway has been presented in the preceding section. The interviewees for the study included; African student migrants of nine (9) different nationalities living in Norway. Despite diversities in nationality, language and ethnicity, some socio-cultural constructs are not different from each other. More so, based on literature the “push-pull factors” that drives most African migrants to developed worlds are practically same (Shinn, 2008), hence the decision to categorize all African countries as one. The focus is to get in-depth insight on a particular subject. Similarly, explanations created from the study are expected to enable our understanding of the social world. Once this is evident, the selection process becomes stress-free by keeping in mind, on how much valuable data could be generated and convinced in selecting my respondents. The principal sampling techniques employed for selection of my participants for the study were Purposive and convenience sampling methods. The “*purposive sampling*” technique as a non-probability technique offers the researcher the ability to identify and select key units, individuals, institutions and documents with “*direct reference*” and of importance to the topic (Bryman, 2012, p.407).

In this instance the researcher needs to create mind pictures to consider the criteria to be used for the study. Thus sample cases and participants were strategically chosen to suit the relevant research question. Again the participant based on the purposive sampling method were selected based on their level of understand of the phenomena in question (Bryman, 2016). The nature of the research study meant the choice of participants should have experience and understand the phenomena in question. It was challenging getting African student migrants living in Norway initially. Many declined to be interviewed as some were of the view that the study will expose them; while some were of the view that the research will not reduce the continuous growth of the brain drain or gain phenomena. The circumstance however compelled the researcher to depend on African student migrants who were willing and available to be interviewed; hence some participants were chosen based on availability and accessibility (Bryman, 2012, p.201).

The in-depth interviews were conducted with the aid of mobile recording in tandem with note taking. Text was drawn out of the voice recording to make up my data. Significant text deemed relevant to the study was transcribed living some of the text in its raw form to indicate the comprehensiveness of the data collected. Notes taking during the interview were compared with the voice recording to enable coding of main themes from the analyzed text, to obtain an overview of the relevance of the research topic (Berg & Lune, 2012). The coding manual established the relevant findings. These findings were the outcome from the respondent which were summarized and alienated from the whole into themes of the research according to operational concepts. These outcomes were conceptualized into categories in relation to the research questions where unrelated information and valid data were regarded and harmonized (Berg & Lune, 2012, p.294). Again record keeping was crucial as the body language of the respondents were monitored during the interview to offer comprehensive data.

3.9.1 Sample Size (Selecting Participants)

As earlier stated above in 3.9, the purposive and convenience sampling methods were consulted to select the various participants (primary sources). Overall, a total of Twelve (12) respondents were selected. A sample size of twelve was selected to help the researcher build and maintain close relationship to enhance “open” and “frank” exchange of information (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006, p.18). Nonetheless, it was imperative to review data (secondary sources) to integrate the study to address differing dimensions for the study. The primary sources included African student migrant from (9) nine African countries studying in higher education in Norway. The reason for my choice of respondents was because the study is basically on educational brain drain or gain of which this category of people could provide different dimension to the already existed views. The secondary source comprises document from African newspapers, government records, international non-governmental reports, online academic journals and digital media interrelated articles. The table below illustrates main nationals interviewed and methods of collecting data.

Table 1 Main Primary source Respondents and method of data collection

Nationals	Gender	Number Of Participants	Method of Interview
Ethiopian (East Africa)	Male/Male	2	Face-Face
Ghana (West Africa)	Male/Male	2	Face-Face
Kenya (East Africa)	Male/Male	2	Face-Face
Malawi(Southern Africa)	Female	1	Face-Face
Nigeria (West Africa)	Male	1	Face-Face
Sudan (North Africa)	Female	1	Telephone
Senegal (West Africa)	Male	1	Face-Face
Tunisia (North Africa)	Female	1	Telephone
Zimbabwe (Southern Africa)	Female	1	Face-face
Total		12	

Source: Researchers fieldwork table

With the focus of the study on African student migrants in Norway, it was significant to integrate some African students studying in Norway. However due to large pull of African student migrant living in Norway, the sample size for this research was based on highly populated African nationals (see table 1) living in Norway for educational purpose to represent wider views. Though the focus was on African students, one former African student who is now part of the Norwegian labour force was also interviewed to add another dimension to the debate.

Two telephone interviews were conducted due to the unavailability of the respondents in person. The first respondent (Sudan) had an academic deadline meet; hence conducting a face-face interview was a challenge. However her contribution was important because she added a different dimension to the research study. The interview was done on the 4th of April, 2018. The second telephone interview was from respondent (Tunisia) who had a tight work and academic schedule to honor the interview in person. She was crucial because, (respondent Tunisia) also had a social view to the brain drain or gain discussion. The interview was honored on the 15th of April, 2018. There were challenges as the body languages of the respondent were not known as physical response and body language are important for the interviewer. Again there was initial sound difficulties on the background but was later rectified. Delicate questions were a challenge to ask on the phone. It was a challenge to decipher elements like confusion and discomfort from the part of the interviewee but through only the voice (Bryman, 2012).

Furthermore, considering the nature of the research and the sample size of the respondents, another qualitative source of data was applied to add scholarly argument to the brain drain or gain argument. These reviewed documents allowed the identification of theoretical perspectives which placed the study into academic context. Documents were reviewed as part of the secondary data. Documents like documents from government statements on migration, NGOs, online newspaper articles, reports, books and research documents. Essentially, bearing in mind that document may lack some level of objectivity, the researcher upheld restraint in the selection process of the materials for the study.

3.9.2 Data Analysis of Qualitative Approach

The data was analysed simultaneously with data derived from documents and semi-structured interviews. It was vital to do a concurrent analysis, meaning data analysis had to be done “spontaneously”, that started during the data collection instead of after the collection of data (Stake, 1995). Thematic analysis was used; this involved the search for recurrent themes that are of significant importance to the research question (Bryman, 2012, pp.570-79). According to Bryman, a theme represents a category of indicators built on coded transcripts identified through data, that relates to the research question and provides the researcher with a theoretical understanding of the data (Bryman, 2013, p.580). The main themes identified in the studies

included 'foreign education' 'educational system', "re-immigration" and 'higher education'... The data from the interview response, field notes from participants and main themes from reviewed documents were originally transcribed by the researcher. To be sure of detailed information, transcribed notes were compared with the mobile recorded interviews. Regular reading was done thoroughly to identify the main themes from the transcribed notes categorized into framework. The themes identified were based on recurrent topics, theory related ideas, and same/ different elements. The main themes ("social issues", "Higher education", "employment") were fragmented into sub-themes ("Marriage", "quality education", "wage disparities") for detailed analysis. In tandem with the researchers' observation in the field, thematic analysis offered meaningful understanding on the connections between subthemes and main themes in generating findings about the "brain drain or gain" phenomena.

3.9.3 Ethical Consideration

In the beginning of the research I was conscious of the ethical challenges that I might encounter. It is significant to evaluate the values and ethics involved at every stage of the research. Every piece of research must maintain a certain level of ethical values. This according to Bryman is crucial because they relate to the "integrity of the piece of research and the discipline that are involved" (Bryman, 2012, p.135). To scholars like Diener and Crandall 1978, cited in Bryman, there are four vital ethical issues that may distort the piece of research work, these involves "harm to respondents; lack of informed consent; invasion of privacy and deception" (Bryman, 2012). The researcher was aware of the sensitivity of the topic under study. For instance, question like (would you like to leave or stay in Norway after your studies?) seeks to know the personal life decisions of respondents which they may not want to reveal. Questions related to the background of the individual could be seen as invasion of privacy. However, to avoid such tendencies clarity of anonymity and confidentiality report was ensured, thus countries were used to represent the names of the participants in the data collection process.

Lack of informed consent is a challenge in every study. However, the level of education of my respondents reduced the challenge as they understood the purpose of the research and responded to the topic when they were briefed. Though I was aware that informing all the participants about crux of the research may affect the findings, I still went ahead to inform them to avoid deception-

“research without consent” (Bryman, 2012, pp.138-40). With adequate information through verbal information to participants before the interview when necessary proper consents were made to avoid distortion of information.

3.9.4 Quality, Reliability and Validity

The quality of a research depends on a particular methodological approaches and principles, hence reliability and validity measures the quality of research with the goal of elaborating and generating an understanding (Stenbacka, 2001). During the stages of the design of study, results analysis and judging the quality of data that accumulates from it, qualitative researcher must give audience Reliability and validity (Patton, 1990). It is however important to ascertain that, the qualitative nature of the research coupled with the constructivist ontological approach allowed the researcher to intentionally and unintentionally influence the study offered. Again the identification of the research as a researcher may have a reactive effect on the participants who might exaggerate significant information (Bryman, 2008).

When challenges of exaggeration of information are identified, the technique of triangulation is applied to reduce possible prejudice involved and realization of reliability and validate. More so, the use of different qualitative methods of collecting data like interviews, documents review, and unrelated participants to improve the validity and reliability of a research study (Yin, 2003).

Yin however, elaborates the importance of reliability and validity below;

“A valid study is the one that has properly collected and interpreted its data, so that the conclusions accurately reflect and represent the real world that was studied. Conversely, studies in any field are worthless if they arrive at false findings. Such an extreme outcome is unlikely to occur, but the studies should nevertheless use design feature that will strengthen the validity of their claims and findings” (Yin, 2011)

The study as previously mentioned, is centered on precise contextual concerns, and has less external validity. Thus the study could be a locus for other related research.

3.9.5 Limitations of Research and fieldwork Experience

Initial preparation to begin the study started in December 2017, where I conducted a pilot interview for the study. I however, had to change the subject matter of the research upon second consultation with my supervisor. The information collected during the pilot interview was misguided. Participant views did not relate to the objective of the study, hence the trustworthiness and applicability of the study was affected initially. That notwithstanding, questions were restructured in consultation with my supervisor to address the initial challenges.

Bearing in mind the previous experience gained from the pilot study, before the main interviews, emails were sent to each selected respondents. (Refer to interview guide appendix 1). There was also the challenge of selection of respondents since Africa as a continent is made up of 54 countries and basically each country is been represented in Norway. Considering the time frame and type of research, the researcher selected available African student migrants with the help of the student network “Ubuntu”. Beside the large pool of African students living in Norway, it was a challenge scheduling interviews with most students since most were busy with work and school. For some respondents it took me three days before accessing them for the interview. Despite assuring respondents of confidentiality and anonymity respondents were unwilling initially to participate in the study. Those who finally gave in had a lukewarm attitude during the cause of the interview as I illustrate some of the comments from respondents:

Figure 6 Field experience; Apathy of potential respondents

Response from potential respondents that refused to be interviewed or accepted to be interviewed after a long period of discussion

Researcher: Good Afternoon! (I first introduced myself and reason for my coming)

Potential Respondent A: *“I am so tired I can’t do this interview today, let’s make it in two days”.*

Potential Respondent B: *“I don’t think your research will reduce African students travelling abroad for education. Our governments have failed us”.*

Potential Respondent C: *“I don’t have time for; I need to make money for my family and future children”*

Potential Respondent D: *“I am not ready to reveal any secrets to you my brother, just go away with your exposing mission; you also come from Africa Answer the questions yourself.”*

(FieldWork , 2018)

3.9.6 Conclusion

The chapter deliberated on the theoretical puzzles of the migration phenomena. It discussed how various theories (neo-classical and the new economic theories) view the brain drain or gain phenomena in relation to the “push-pull factors”. The chapter also discussed the various methodologies employed for the research studies. The methodology section began with the examination of the philosophical directions of the study as the *“interpretivist-constructivist”* approach of the research. The research employed the qualitative approach as the research strategy. The concluding part of the chapter discussed the quality and ethical issues reflected in the research. The preceding chapter presents the analysis and findings of the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.1 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF MAIN FINDINGS

The chapter centers on the presentation of data and analysis of the main findings. Some of the results will be analysed in tabular form to enhance discussion and analysis. The fallouts are analysed in relation to the research questions and theoretical framework indicated previously. As a point of departure, a recap of the research question is judicious. The objective was to identify “*how foreign education influences the brain drain or gain processes*”. The principal theoretical angle is the “push-pull factors” of migration theory (De Haas, 2008). The research seek to answer the above mentioned overarching research question, the study will sought to answer the following questions;

- ❖ *What is the preference of African students upon completion of studies in Norway; (return or stay)*
- ❖ *What factors influence African students' choice of preference?*

Based on the aforementioned questions, the findings can be divided into three parts. The first begins with the demographic features of the respondents, particularly, gender, education and occupation in home countries, which may inform our understanding of the individual's opinions, perceptions and behaviours in relation to the study. The second part outlines how foreign education influences the brain drain or gain process by answering the questions above. The final part will examine the process using the push- pull factors of migration to explore the phenomenon and the challenges of when it becomes a drain or gain for both home and host countries. In summary, the chapter attempts to find out how foreign education influence the brain drain or gain processes through the subjective means, through the people that matter. To begin, it is noteworthy to indicate that foreign education is not precursor for brain drain or gain. However, the existence and emergence of individuals choices linked with better living conditions and socio-cultural predicaments may denote it as a cause of brain drain. This proposition informs the discussions in this chapter

4.2 Demographic Features of Respondents

This section focuses on respondents' demographic background which covers, gender, educational level and occupation. These features influence the respondent's views, perceptions and conduct with regards to the study.

4.2.1 Gender

The research sought for the opinions of both male and female respondents of the African students' community in Norway. A total of twelve (12) respondents were interviewed, of which eight (8) were males and four (4) were females. The table below shows gender distribution of respondents

Table 2 Gender of respondents

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
<i>Female</i>	4
<i>Male</i>	8
<i>Total</i>	<i>12</i>

(Field Survey, 2018)

It is evident from the table above that there were more male respondents than female respondents. In some African countries, cultural norms and expectations dedicate that men are likely to seek education and employment outside than women (Williams, 2009). It is estimated that African Males migrate more than African females' migrants (Bollardi et al., 2010). Gender may restrain the link between education and out-migration. Research have shown that Men are more likely to move for further education in the African context than women as it is believed in some African context that Women are not supposed to work, hence the rational of educating women to the high educational level is contested (Converstation, 2017). This belief might sound obsolete but it is still a practice in some parts of Africa as confirmed by one of the respondents:

“Eermm... I was working because it was fun, but I didn’t have to work because in our culture the girl does not have to leave the house unless she gets married. The girl lives in her parents’ house and everything is provided for her until she is married but in Norway it is different, I don’t want to go back to the same situation again” (Sudan).

Looking at gender and its potential influence on the how foreign education influence the brain drain or gain processes, it is essential to look into how different genders observe situations differently. The views of female and male respondents were however diverse, subject to the issue.

4.2.2 Educational Level and Main Occupations of Respondents

The study inquired about the educational level and main occupations of the respondents. The need for this demographic information was vital as this will aid my quest to ascertain the needed response for the objective of the study. The study focused on respondents with high education as well as individuals with the talent and skill set to help with the developmental process of their various countries. The findings revealed that one (1) out of the 12 respondents is a PHD holder, one (1) respondent already had a master’s degree and on his second masters, one (1) had two master degrees whiles the other nine (9) had bachelors and reading their masters in diverse fields.

Again with regards to occupations one (1) out of the 12 respondents has secured job whiles eight (8) respondents had temporary jobs back home of which they resigned for further education abroad. Three (3) respondents had permanent jobs back home and in a foreign country respectively but resigned to study abroad for further developments. Below is table showing the educational level and occupations.

Table 3 showing educational level, occupation and programmes of study of respondents

Respondents	Educational Level	Occupation	Programme of Study
Ethiopia 1	Bachelor/Master	Teaching Assistant (IT)	System Informatics
Ethiopia 2	Bachelor/Master	Teacher	Pedagogy
Ghana 1	Bachelor/ (2)Master	Teaching Assistant (Political Science)	Peace and Conflict/ Development studies
Ghana 2	Bachelor/ Master	Sales Executive (Family Business)	International Comparative Education
Kenya 1	Bachelor/Master	Administrator (NGO)	International Relations
Kenya 2	Bachelor/Master	Pay-Roll Controller	Economics and Science
Malawi	Bachelor/Master	Assistant Registrar	International Comparative Education
Nigeria	Bachelor/ (2)Master	Administrator (NGO)	International Relation
Senegal	Masters/PHD	Project Coordinator (NGO)	Pedagogy
Sudan	Bachelor/Master	Dentist	Bio-Medical Science
Tunisia	Bachelor/Master	Sales Executive	International Relations
Zimbabwe	Bachelor/Master	Administrative Assistant(NGO)	Development Studies

(Field Survey, 2018)

The findings from the above table confirms that the respondents have completed at least a first degree in their home countries before making the decision to travel abroad for further education. Only two (2) respondents (Nigeria) and (Senegal) had a master's degree and PHD respectively from their home countries the Ten (10) remain respondents all are receiving further education abroad with one (1) respondent Ghana 1, a holder of two master's degree from Norway. Furthermore, the respondent's interviewed had various temporary and permanent jobs before some resigned from post to travel abroad for further studies as well as occupational training and

social ties that led to further studies in Norway. Respondents *Kenya 1, Nigeria, Senegal, Sudan, Tunisia and Zimbabwe* all had permanent jobs after their bachelor and Masters respectively but had to live their home countries due to opportunities offered abroad. Respondents *Ethiopia 1 and Kenya 2* were not sure of job prospects after their temporary contracts expired hence, grabbed the opportunity to study abroad bearing in mind of the opportunities there. Again *Ghana 1 and 2* won Norwegian government scholarships (quota scheme) to their further studies. Respondent *Malawi* was sponsored by her home university to further her studies abroad. *Ethiopia 2's* situation is quite accidental as he did not plan to have further studies abroad, however political crisis meant he needed a safe house out of Ethiopia hence his decision to study abroad.

4.2.3 Motivations for foreign Education

To find out about the respondents preferences, the study seek to find out what drives these African students from their home universities as well as what attracted them to study in Norway and the Norwegian labour market. The question will enable us understand their preference. Respondents were asked: *why did they decide to study in their home countries?* This question revealed several reasons. According to the respondents' feedbacks, the Norwegian free tuition system and scholarships were the most stated in response to the question.

More so, the expensive nature coupled with inadequate research funding in their home universities were part of the decision to move to Norway. For example (*respondent Kenya 1 and Zimbabwe*) alluded to the expensive nature of tuition fees in their respective countries and therefore took the opportunity to further their studies in Norway upon hearing about the free tuition system in Norway.

On the other hand, the respondents also stated that the scholarship packages were also an incentive that influenced their decision study in Norway. The scholarship opportunities are mouthwatering incentives most students from developing countries cannot reject; as most deemed it as an opportunity to develop in a highly developed country. Some participants shared their thoughts on how they came to study Norway through the Norwegian scholarship scheme known as the "*quota scheme*" Respondent *Ghana 1 and 2* all came to Norway with the Norwegian quota scheme. Similarly, respondent saw it as a gateway to enter a competitive advance educational system as one respondent stated:

“...hmmm! It’s sad, my challenge, Master programmes in information technology has now been introduced in Ethiopia, and the governments are not investing in such areas to help develop the country. I had always wanted to become an IT professional and since I was frustrated I decided to leave to a country where the opportunities abound as well as develop my IT career and that’s why am here...” (Smiled) (Respondent, Ethiopia 1).

Notwithstanding the above, other respondents blamed the situation on inadequate investments on education sector in some African countries. Some respondents were of the opinion that education in their countries has been badly managed and this has left their countries in the third world bracket as one respondent state:

“... I was doing fine because my family provided me with everything ...however for those who had such opportunities like I did, the situation is very different for them.... This is not a developing country. It’s not even a [third world]. It’s really terrible in Sudan, there are no investments on education, and it’s only when your family is okey that you can be in “proper institution”. (Sudan).

To the respondent from Sudan, as a science student she saw research funding as a catalyst for the development of her country through research and development. The response of another respondent coming from the same region confirmed the above as the respondent at some point lost words to describe the state of education in her home country:

“...eemmm! I don’t want to be wrong here, but general life in Tunisia depends on the financial background of your family..... Input and quality of education is so different in Tunisia, to gain proper education it depends on your family background. Education in Norway is far advanced than in Tunisia but of cos if you have rich parents you have the opportunity to study abroad.” (Respondent, Tunisia).

The issue of inadequate university professor in their home countries was also a major factor for the movement. In some African countries as mentioned in the literature, Ethiopia the most

affected in the exodus of professionals had one professor of economics in a whole economic department of their biggest university (Facts & Figures, 2011). The statement was further echoed by one of the respondents this time not in the economic department part the information technology department in his home university:

...Man! I was a teaching assistant in my home university for 6 years because there were no professors in my department, especially the system administration and also robotics department. The non-availability of professors is a challenge to introduce more of such programmes in my home university. Some universities started IT course in 2012 but they are currently having challenges because of non-availability of professors (Ethiopia 1).

Similarly, another respondent echoed the non-availability of professors in her home university. The respondent stressed on the number of student a lecture handles. The respondent thus juxtaposed the student to lecturer ratio to the Norwegian educational system to the Zimbabwean system. Though one cannot compare the Zimbabwean situation to Norway, the ratio of student to lecturer in Zimbabwean Universities (1:40) makes it a challenge for lecturers to have proper assessments of students; inadequate external examiners for universities during examinations is a challenge in Zimbabwe as the respondent claimed (Zimbabwe).

Moreover, one of the respondents came to Norway for professional exchange. Consequently, with the knowledge of the opportunities abound in Norway, the respondent seize opportunity offered to further her education. The respondents' reasons were based on push- pull factors like better conditions of work, relatively better facilities, employment opportunities, healthy working condition and deteriorating educational system. These push-pull factors according to literature influences the decision of these skilled talents not to return home after their training abroad (Mitra, 2014). When asked of her particular reason for coming to Norway:

"I only came for a professional exchange and upon completion of my exchange I decided not go back but take chances to develop myself here and also try get a job here as well, though didn't

get the job but I felt there is more I could learn here to add to my international exposure which I may one day go back to use to help my country” (Respondent, Zimbabwe

More so, it is estimated that individuals who are highly educated and frustrated based on economic, social and cultural conditions in their home countries are expected to migrate for proper utilization of skill (Lowell et al., 2004). This is evident from the above (see table 3) that most respondents have the requisite skill to stay in their countries to assist with development, however due to lack of utilization of skill, educational apathy in home countries, unsure of job prospects, educational scholarships, inadequate job training, political crisis and social and cultural ties, students migrate in the name of further education in search of opportunities in supposedly greener countries. These were further confirmed by some of the respondents, when they were asked why they are in Norway:

“My story is different, the University of Sudan has collaboration with the University of Bergen, and I was one of the best Students in my University in Sudan. We get to apply for quota programme and I applied from Sudan... Unfortunately I married my boyfriend who is now my ex-husband, but when I came here his family decided not to allow me continue with my education.... No masters for you, So I got divorced and applied for self-finance. I was supposed to apply for the quota but again my ex-husbands father who was the dean of my University gave me wrong information that it's better to apply as self-finance rather than a quota student which was not true; priority was only given to the men to apply, students from my university had no idea about the quota scheme as it was only given to family members. When i applied to read medicine my ex's father due to his connection with the department head my application was rejected but I had applied at the department of Bio-medicine which is different from my area of study but because I had no choice I settled for that” (Respondent, Sudan).

A related story was also shared by another respondent who was already having a job in his home country and working on his PHD, however, migrated to Norway because he needed to re-unite with his wife in Norway:

“Marriage brought me to Norway; I was married to a Norwegian woman. My Norwegian wife wanted us to start a life here so I moved to Norway. I was still doing my PHD back home but studied Pedagogy and started as guest lecturer in some universities here but the marriage didn’t last and had to divorce to start life all over again. It was sad , I wanted to go back but looking at conditions back home I stayed to continue with my PHD here and did some courses to develop myself together with the Norwegian language and now it’s been good so far” (Respondent, Senegal).

In another vein, some respondents were influenced by the prospects of gaining international exposure and as well as matching their qualification with the wages earned which is related to career development. Literature estimates that migration increases with the educational level of the trained talents as some believed that, the more they are developed the more chances of acquiring a job matching their qualification (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999), this were the motives of some respondents. Some came to Norway with the idea of developing themselves professionally as well as seeking international educational experience as stated by one respondent that: he was motivated by the desire to experience foreign education and to develop himself professionally as he already has two master degrees. *(Nigeria)*

More so, higher education provides an alternative means for supporting oneself hence it should offer these qualified talents the needed job desired (Olumide & Ukpere, 2011). However, despite the high level of education possessed by the respondents it can be recognized from the findings that less than half of the respondent had a permanent job at the time of migration hence their decision to take up education abroad with the hope of securing jobs in these developed countries. For some, respondent like Ethiopia 2, Senegal and Sudan their qualification secured them a job but moved due to Political and social constrains. Employment opportunities, political stability, quality educational facilities and socio-culture liberty may create enough evident for individuals to stay home and not use foreign education as a yardstick to leave. As long as these factors exist to frustrate men and women in home countries, foreign education is likely to be a causal agent of the brain drain or gain phenomenon.

It is however, noteworthy to state that the following factors; *employment opportunities, social ties/constrains, quality of education, relatively better educational facilities, political stability,*

Scholarship opportunities, professional development and international exposure were the Push-pull factors gathered from the findings.

4.3 Preference upon Completion of Studies (Stay or Return)

This section is aimed at exploring African students' preference upon completion of studies whether to stay in Norway or return. The first research question will be examined in this section. The section will provide imageries on how respondents responded to reasons of return or stay. The following elements; the role of the Norwegian educational system and labour market, Quality of higher education and international exposure, Employment prospects, Re-immigration and Enticing the African student Migrant to return will be discussed to enable our understanding of these preferences.

4.3.1 Norwegian Educational System and the Labour Market

Norwegian educational system is explored to find out how respondents consider the choice of Norwegian Universities and labour market, since the aim is to find out the respondents preference after completion of course. Although all the respondents were full time students expect one, it was imperative to ask respondents: *Is there anything interesting about the Norwegian educational system/labour market?* Respondents basically referred to the free tuition as the most interesting and not much was said about the labor market. Attention was then shifted to approach and practice with regards to the Norwegian educational system. Respondent had varied views though they all seemed to compare education and conduct of professors in Norway to home countries. 8 out of the 12 respondents believe professors in Norway are able to relate more with the students. Overly the respondents had lots of praise for the Norwegian educational system and not the labour market as one respondent stated:

“Norwegian education system is errm! Positive, it is less strict than education back home, back home you don't argue with your professor; you don't have your own point of view. You can't express yourself; you have no option and have no argument. Professors here relate to students as their equals, they prefer to be called their first names, (laughed) rather than titles, at home, you need to address a prof with the title, like I was shocked when professors didn't want to be addressed as professors, like it gives you comfort with discussion, very open... The labour market

is quite a challenge since there is always the language to contend with but as a dentist with 2-years' experience I hope to capitalize”(Sudan).

Furthermore, 4 out of 12 respondents were of the view that the educational system makes them more critically aware of issues than education back home. The education back home is generally, more of memorize and sometimes without any understanding just to pass the examination. The education is more structured in a more theoretical form than its practical nature. Some however made emphatic cases for education in Norway:

“The Norwegian education makes you a critical thinker; there is a big difference in style and approach. NMBU has made me to be more critical and dependent on myself, am not sure if its related to my age because am more aware than before,... though I still make mistakes but I still say NMBU has played a big role in shaping how I see things but in Kenya you are mostly thought but here you are given tools to work with” (Kenya 1).

Facilities in Norwegian universities are in abundance; this therefore makes student life quite easy for example learning materials and access to information are readily available on websites of all universities. Most universities in Norway have free internet access to enhance information search thus making learning very easy. This however is not the case with universities back home. Respondents say they are forced to spend on modems which are very expensive in an event where assignments are submitted online. One of the respondents was quite impressed with facilities in Norwegian universities as he states:

“.....and of cos the facilities, the library with all these computers and boards and all of those things and the online platforms, where can we connect with other students so there a couple of other things that are generally good (Respondent,” Ghana 1)

Further, apart from availability of facilities and research funding in Norway, system management work efficiently as well based on the findings. Respondents acknowledged that the approach of learning and working systems are well coordinated at workplaces and higher institutions in Norway as one respondent state:

“to be honest, look if you want to further your education this is the best place to continue, everything is so well organized and I will not hesitate to recommend friends back home who wants to add to their knowledge to seek further education here or any European country” (Tunisia)

Additionally, technological advancement in Norway is also another interest that attracts foreign students. Participants consider Norway as a technologically advanced as this is evident in most universities. Respondents were of the view that education back home lacks some of these facilities which enhance research especially for the physical sciences. Students expressed their desire on the easy access to information, which is cumbersome in their home countries. Technology according to respondents play a big role in the development of countries, thus the Norwegian education presents a good opportunity for further development. The respondent’s response confirms earlier assertion by literature on technology as a pull factor that pulls students from developing (African) countries to developed countries (Eassys, 2017). Respondents’ however, concluded that technology makes their lives easier and comfortable; hence if incentives are available in their home countries life might be a little easier as a student of higher education

4.3.2 Quality of Education and International Exposure

Despite most respondents comparing the education system of Norway to their various countries; it is however important to examine how quality of education contributes to the brain drain or gain processes. Respondents were asked: *if they could have gotten the same education back home?* Respondents had varied views with regards to quality of education. One respondent mentioned that the quality of education back home depended on the school attended:

“I must say, i am one of the few Kenyans who have been very fortunate in life by attending private schools all my life. I have never lacked anything in terms of better education though it cannot be compare to education here” (Kenya 2)

Though the respondent attended a good school, the respondent acknowledged that the level of education in Norway cannot be compared to the standards in his home country. The educational experience gained in Norway cannot be compared to the one back home hence, he will want to stay and experience more and gain that international recognition. Similarly, respondents attributed the quality education to international exposure where students have the opportunity to have exchange programmes, seminars and conferences outside the country of study. The student believe all these opportunities offer them enough experience to prepare them for future endeavor, while with education back home , such opportunities are rare. Thus the quality of education in these developed countries attracts these bright talents towards them.

More so, the approach and methods of teaching was also mentioned by one respondent, for instance professors do not revise their notes and continue to use the same materials in which some may be outdated to teach for several years as one respondent noted. There is no dynamism in some of our professor's method of teaching another echoed.

Consequently, eight (10) out of the twelve (12) respondents agreed that the quality of education is another motivating factor that will make them stay either for further studies as well as keeping their family in Norway to enjoy such quality.

4.3.3 Employment Prospects

Respondents were asked a question related to job prospects after their education. This was aimed at finding out if the influx of African students to Norway is related to job prospects. Participants were asked: *Could you apply for job in any other country than Norway and your home country?* There were mixed opinions about job prospects especially back home. Respondents had challenges with regards to jobs back home, eight (8) out of the twelve (12) respondents had temporary jobs after their bachelor degrees before they travelled, one (1) also left her home country to seek employment outside, Only three (3) had permanent jobs at the time of leaving for further education. One respondent mentioned that the prospects of getting a job after a master's degree outside sets you apart from your colleagues who studied back home. It is not easy and for one to get a job you must be connected as he states:

“Aahh! That’s a tough one , but I had a cousin who studied here but it too him time(6-8months) for him to get a job, so I think education here puts you in a certain pedestal but it might take network, but I feel like the Kenyan situation is about networking but the education here really sets you apart”(Kenya 2).

The above explanation is an admission of the fact that yes there are employment opportunities back but it is only for a few, who have the needed qualification and are well networked. Another respondent was of the opinion that yes there job prospects back home but the question is whether after several years of education outside you will be satisfied with the job as well as salary paid in your home country as she makes the case of receiving five times the salary she receives as a cleaner here than her sitting in the office back home to receive one third of such amount (Zimbabwe).

The views though explains that the respondent had a job before coming to Norway but it can also be deduced that job prospects in her country though is possible but the challenge of more students chasing few jobs is quite evident here, hence job prospects back home to her is a challenge but not impossible.

Nonetheless, some respondents were of the view that, having a higher education abroad will not guarantee one a job back home. Higher education might not necessarily offer one a job but how well one develops him or herself. To some respondents jobs are available but there are challenges that have engrossed the labour market of their various countries. These challenges encapsulate nepotism and favoritism, corruption, tribalism and ethnocentrism. The respondent from Sudan and Zimbabwe admits that they see no job prospects in their countries respectively as corrupt and nepotism makes it difficult to gain employment. This opinion from the respondents thus endorses the swift influx of African student migrants migrate to countries (Norway) where a job that does not require formal qualification pays well. Apart from job prospects been challenge as stated by the respondents, the issue of remuneration was echoed by the respondents. Basically two (2) out of twelve (12) respondents referred to remuneration in their home countries as poor though they admit that living standards are not the same. They

were of the view that when highly educated individuals live an okay life and cannot save the prospects of these educated professionals migrating is high.

Some respondents also shared the view of their respective countries not taking interest in nurturing and promoting local talents. Government initiatives to equip young talented Africans are at the base of some government policies. One respondent contends:

“..If you are from a continent where leaders are basically old men, what do you expect.. We need young blood to continue the development of Africa” (Senegal).

Difficulties such as these, may curtail prospects in most of these African countries, thus students might want to migrate to countries where talents and careers are developed.

4.3.4 Re-immigration to home countries

The question posed to respondents was to find out students preference; willing to return home or stay in Norway to find jobs after their studies in Norway. The participants were asked: *What happens after your university education here? Are you looking forward to stay and work in Norway?* This was a delicate question as some respondent could not openly make the decision to return or stay. Two (2) out of twelve (12) respondents made firm decision not return to their home countries citing several reasons for their decision, as one respondent cited *“educational and social challenges”* as reasons for not returning:

“NO! I want to stay here and work here, I want find a job here, my interest is in the biomedical field and there no such competitive fields back home...again Norway offers the opportunity to research on new ideas in my area of study and as such research needs material and funding educational research in Sudan needs money and with research in Sudan it involves politics; which part you join, religious views that I don't really feel comfortable to involve with, again I will only work as a dentist not in the biomedical field”(Sudan).

Notwithstanding, the above reason, the respondent made a revealing socio-cultural practices that will make her not to return home:

*“...Even if I don’t get the opportunity to stay here I will move to another country, maybe Canada to continue my education... Look I don’t want to go to Sudan because going to Sudan means going to get **married**... Errrm! Here is the fact, yes, I hate to study, education, I don’t like working but am here because I need to **survive marriage** and not make a mistake the second time and get married” (Sudan).*

The other respondent who made a firm decision to stay in Norway after her programme also revealed some interesting views. Her decision not to return home was not just one challenge but address a number of recent happenings (political, social and economic) in her country as she states:

“(with a serious face)... [No am not, because am actually not, am going for a second round of job interview and if I get the job I will stay, if I don’t get the job I will go back home....eem! But I will not stay in Zimbabwe but apply for jobs in South Africa because the unemployment rate. But to say am planning to go back home NO! I will only go back home when UDI says it’s time to go, but if I get the job here then am not going” (Zimbabwe)

The respondent went on to confirm her decision about not returning to her country because of certain economic and political crisis that the country has undergone for the past 37 years:

“YES! Its brain drain if I don’t go back home as professional but errr! You can’t keep people in your country if you cannot offer them job opportunities, of course Zimbabwe has had series of economic challenges, it’s now that Robert Mugabe has left and trying to fire fight but revising something that has suffered for 37years is not easy, of course Zimbabwe has suffered some brain drain issues in the past as the best engineers are building roads in Dubai but Zimbabwe does not have roads. The period (2000-2010) is described as the “lost decades” because that was when we lost everything, our currency, high emigration and economic drain, so the people suffered from great brain drain. It was when the first opposition part was formed in 2009 that people realised there was something wrong with the country. ..Of course we have suffered brain drain during SAP but it cannot be compared to the last decade (2000-2010)... (Zimbabwe).

More so, two (2) respondents were undecided whether to return or to stay with both citing *social ties* as the main reasons why they are undecided. They mentioned that they cannot make the decision alone, as both had Norwegian partners hence, decision to return or stay will depend on their relationships; however they will be glad to stay but are also open to movement to other places as well (*respondents, Tunisia and Kenya 1*). *Kenya 1*, however, admitted that if life was good in Kenya, he could have manipulated his social tie to return to Kenya.

Five (5) respondents were however opened to the view of staying or returning depending on the opportunities offered here. The plan for all five respondents is to find work in Norway but if the opportunity is not presented they will obviously return home. Some of them had interesting remarks about their stay or return as one states:

“first priority is to find a job and stay here , especially in the IT field of course it’s not a problem to find a job in Ethiopia but the IT industry in Ethiopia is not as competitive as Norway , so hoping to find a job here to improve my finances. I will definitely return to Ethiopia if I don’t get a job but the main thing now a job in Norway” (Ethiopia 1).

The same opinion was shared by respondents Ghana 1 and 2, Kenya 2 and Nigeria. However Ghana 1, shared an interesting perspective about his decision to stay or return:

“Eerm! So my field of study is eer! I have studied peace and conflict studies and development, so basically peace and development. Norway is definitely one of the best considered for this combination of these two (Peace and development), so I have tried to look for jobs in these areas and done couple of internships and I seek to [I will say this , I have one gray hair now and it shows my maturity and wish I can get more or 50 of these grey hair before I go back to Ghana], so I can be much influential and affect the society in Ghana. If I would go now am still naïve and have very little job experience, so am trying to get the job experience here so If I find one I would be very happy to stay here but if I don’t am also happy to go back home and give this experience from the grass roots now, so these are my thoughts” (Ghana 1)

The remaining three (3) respondents Ethiopia 2, Malawi and Senegal had all made up their mind to return home after studies. All three respondents had permanent jobs before coming to Norway. For Ethiopia 2, he wants to return home to continue his teaching profession but his status as a political refugee means the access to go home is curtailed unless he is cleared. Again respondent Senegal finished his studies and has a permanent job in Norway but wants to go home because he has his wife and children back home and feels the education and experience acquired here is enough to affect his society back home. He however advised African students studying outside to go home and help with developments when the experiences and education is acquired.

Respondent Malawi's decision to return after her studies was based on ties with her home organization, as she was sponsored by her home university to further her education. She signed a bond which will let her return after her education. Furthermore she is also a mother of two and says she needs to go back home take care of her children. However her position as a deputy registrar at a university makes her feel she has something to offer back home as she states:

"I feel that I have a lot to offer my country. It's my country and it's nice to live abroad but for me I feel that what I have learnt here will benefit my country formally and informally. Our countries have problems and back home with my job I can take care of myself and won't lack, so I feel everything else is a luxury, I would miss Norway but I would rather go back it's my country, I know it's better here and some of my friends tell me to stay here because of the conditions in Malawi; transportations electricity, economic challenges, internet and water problems, there is not much opportunities there and it's a thing to live outside , your social status is up graded living abroad but we need to promote our countries" (Malawi).

4.3.5 Enticing the African Student Migrant for Re-immigration

A question was asked to find out what changes respondents will want to see in their home countries to consider re-immigration. This was aimed at understanding the factors that influenced their preference. Respondents were asked: *What has to change for you if you return to your home country?* Respondents had the same thought but most directed the thoughts to their various governments. From the findings it could be gathered that most of them want to return after studies but certain measures should be put in place before they return. The entire respondent

agreed government should play key role in the re-immigration processes. The respondent from “Sudan” again expressed her desire for government to curtail the “*force marriage syndrome*” a practice in the Sudanese society. She contends that most women especially from her country do not return home because they are scared to be married without their wish. Again political crisis, religious fanaticism and nepotism prevent brilliant young men and women to return after studies. Government should invest in research funding to enable more research for further development. Similarly, respondent Nigeria shared a thought as higher educated individuals would want to return home after their studies to lecture but the lack of funding and governments’ inability to invest in education is a hindrance. He revealed that for African students studying abroad to return:

“I want to see funding; government should invest in universities back home for more research works. Mismanagement is a big problem, so government should make sure funding is used appropriately and accountability in the use of the funding. It must also reflect in the infrastructure and technological advancement. The total mentality of organization of education must change” (Nigeria).

Furthermore, employment opportunities should be at the core of governments’ policies to aid the return of these student migrants. As gathered almost all respondent contends that government should create more jobs and these jobs will definitely enhance return of higher educated students as Ghana 1 illustrates:

“To be honest lots of people would want to live in warm Ghana rather than cold Norway but because the labour market in Ghana is so saturated; more graduates fighting for few jobs and opportunities are not in abundance, these brilliant minds look for opportunities elsewhere”

Another respondent mention that if jobs were readily available in his home country, he would only come to Norway just for educational expansion and career development and return as he prefers stay in a warm climate than been here (Ghana 2).

The issue of *proper facilities* was raised by some respondents. Most of the respondents after studying abroad expect the same kind of education for their children hence they decide to stay in these countries to also offer such opportunities to their children. They were of the opinion that educational facilities must be enhanced; internet facilities, libraries, computers and learning materials to make learning at higher institutions comfortable. Likewise, some respondents suggest that technology in higher institutions should be upgraded to enable efficient research studies. According to the respondents, governments should be able to match up with the growing technological advancement, innovation and allow the university free hand to operate as one respondent state:

“My university are trying hard to change the way things are done especially with the educational system but the government’s regulations are limiting them to function as a university” (Malawi).

The above statement explains how politicians in some African countries meddle in our educational system. Politics and education should not be bed fellows; a mix of these two will be catastrophic to a country’s development.

Four respondents agreed that the salaries of higher education graduates should be based on their qualification. They contend that most often, when these highly educated individuals return they are paid below the wage limit hence some based on experiences of others decide not return. But in a condition where these highly talented professionals are paid well, these people are prepared to return. Some were also of the opinion that for highly educated individuals to return bureaucracy, nepotism and corruption in the labour market as well as universities must be truncated. The educational system according some respondents must be restructured as they are of the opinion that education offered back home should bring out the best in the students. The level where our educational system is purely based on theories should be restructured to equip students do things on their own after studies. Again local talents should be supported as it was the concern of *respondent Tunisia*. The school system should provide courses that are relevant to the job market as this will increase chances for more students studying abroad to return. There should also be knowledge sharing as one respondent mentioned. Some also stressed that apart

from introduction of more research centers, more scholarship packages should be opened to all and not offered to students whose parents are connected with government and business owners.

More so security concerns were raised by some respondents. Two (2) respondents Kenya 2 and Sudan indicated that the political and security of students are not the best at the moment. Sudan indicated that *“if care is not taking no student would return as the country may encounter the same situation as Somalia”*. Students feel insecure because institutions become target groups of such religious extremist; thus for students to return after studies respondents sought for governments support for adequate security on university campuses especially in Kenya and Sudan. Two (2) respondents admitted it is a challenge to compare our situation with Norway but social support systems can be introduced.

4.3.6 Disincentive to Stay in Norway

Though the study revealed that only three (3) respondents were quite passionate about returning home, the remaining respondents who were unsure about their stay or return shared similar challenges if they were to stay in Norway. All respondents including the two who affirmed their decision to stay had challenges concerning their disincentive to stay in Norway? The major obstacles that the findings revealed were *language, family and Culture*. Respondents showed concern with regards to language as yardstick to gain employment. Some of the respondent showed their level of disappointment as they felt the language offered a hindrance in acquiring a job. One of the respondents had already planned to move to an English speaking country, even if it meant taking up another master’s programme to get him acquainted with the system of the country to acquire a job there:

“.....As am talking to you I have already gained admission to another country to continue life there. It would be nice to live here but if situations are not helping you, you must move to where you feel the comfort of being part of the system without thinking of an additional burden of language” (Ghana 2).

Again, some respondents attributed their disincentive to stay in Norway based on the job they do in relation to the language. Some were frustrated about doing jobs that does not reflect their intellect as this was echoed by one respondent from Ghana 1:

“.. when we stay here the kind of jobs we do here does reflect or give us any experiences, so at the long run when you stay, it’s like you wasted several years of experience because jobs such as cleaning, sharing newspapers and home care does not give you a proper experience to affect society back home, so sometimes it’s good we find our way somewhere to gather experience based on what we learnt” (Ghana 1)

Another disincentive, raised by respondents was the issue of family ties. Family ties were one of the factors that influenced respondents to leave Norway after their studies especially, one of the three respondents who decided to return home. The respondent was of the view that, the cultural system is different from the cultural setting in Africa and that he would like to train his children back home. Similarly, other respondents attributed the social factors to living far away from their family. The challenge of living far from their family was also a disincentive to stay in Norway and that they will prefer to look for job back home to be able to stay with their family.

4.3.7 Summary of Preference of Students

African student’s preferences of stay or return were assumed to offer solutions to how foreign education influence brain drain or gain processes. This was to define students’ impending plans of either staying in Norway or to leave. The findings revealed the following elements as students’ motivations to stay or leave: *foreign education, Norwegian education system/labour market/ employment prospects, Quality of education in Africa, and re-immigration incentives* were the subject of analysis in this study. In terms of motivation for foreign education, most respondents had the desire for international exposure. This they believe will aid their career development, income levels and standards of living. Some of them were however aware that gaining international exposure does not correlate with afore- mentioned positives. However, some assumed that the kind of study experience acquired would not have any considerable impact on their future remunerations if they go home after studies. *Norwegian education/ labour*

market as feature prominently as respondents were of the view that the education system offer the less privilege in society to be educated to climb the social ladder through scholarship packages which are lacking in their home countries. Respondents been aware of the advantages assume the prospects of getting a job in Norway are apparently greater than back home. Respondents also questioned the quality of higher education in their home countries. They related this to inadequate facilities and funding for research in home universities. The quality of education they believe presents a reward for future investments since education here is more pragmatic than back home. Additionally, some also considered better education for their children hence their decision to stay in Norway. Further some respondents were not prepared to return as a result of social pressures like been forced into marriage. Further families believe studying abroad is an opportunity to start a life as some were advised by their family members to look for jobs and stay. From the findings it was clear that some were undecided whether to return or stay because they have partners in Norway and thus decision to return home depends on their partners.

Notwithstanding, the above, some respondents had made up their minds to return home after their studies. They addressed concerns about the language as a barrier in acquiring a job as well as family commitments. Again the prospects of raising children home by some respondents was also an influence in their decision to return as some believed it is favourable back home. Consequently despite the challenge of indecision coupled with those who have decided to stay and not stay most of the respondents hope to go home at some point to help with the developments of their country. Below is a summary of push-pull factors that accounted for students stay or return from the findings.

Table 4 showing the push-pull factors influencing students' preference

	Push Factors	Pull Factors
Economic	Low wages Unemployment Lack of quality education Over Crowded lecture Halls Inadequate facilities	Free Tuition Scholarships incentives Professional Development International Exposure Prospects of high wages Approach & Learning Methods Healthy working conditions Advance Technology
Political	Insecurity Nepotism Mismanagement of education Interference of educational Institutions	Safety and Security Political Freedom
Social and Cultural	Religious Fanaticism Forced Marriage Tribal discrimination	Family reunification

(FieldWork , 2018)

4.3.8 Factors influenced students' choice of preference

The findings confirm that *Tuition free (Scholarships), employment opportunities, better wages quality education, social and cultural status* were the most dominate factors that influenced students' choice of preference. Some respondents indicated that the *absence of tuition fees and in*

some cases scholarship availability was decisive in their preference to stay in Norway. The availability of this the absence of tuition fees and scholarship allows student to soar higher and develop their career paths. This they believe offer equality to every individual to attain education. Some also attributed their decision to *employment opportunities* in Norway. Respondent contend there is the potential of acquiring a job which is linked with *higher wage rates* compared to having a job back home. Respondents were of the view that education abroad will put them in better pedestal to acquire a job even with the saturated job market; they are seen as experience than the local graduates. Some also contend some part-time jobs give them extra to take care of family needs back home.

Socio-cultural concerns were raised especially *issues of marriage* by one respondent who would not wish to go home due such fears. The respondent dream of developing academically and professional career and feels Norway offers the opportunity and that going home will crush the dream. Some also raised the issue of *social background* in home countries which may curtail their ability to continue with their education. *Quality of education* in Norway was another constant factor as students relate the education here as more tailored to enhancing the students ability to think and use available tools on his or her own. More so, education abroad offers one practical experience as student are allowed to have job experience (internships) with organizations related to their field of study hence professional development is high on the cards of student to stay and develop.

More so, better standards of living which include social benefits, peaceful environment and safety were also stimuli's for students to stay after their studies. It is thus evident that students desire to stay or return essentially rest on pull factors of migration (refer chapter 3). Despite the economic and political challenges experience by some respondents back home, these according to respondents did not have a direct influence on their decision to stay or return. Hence the findings revealed that push factors that forced individuals to migrate were not crucial in the respondents' decision to stay in Norway.

Nevertheless, some respondents though were undecided to return or stay, mentioned their return after their studies will be affected by their inability to speak the Norwegian language. This will put them in a disadvantageous position to acquire a job. They admitted that looking for opportunities outside Norway but not return to their home countries after their studies. It worth

note that respondents however had concerns with the ambiguous Norwegian immigration law as they believe it will play an inconsequential part in their decision to leave.

4.4 Applying the Neo-classical Theory (Push-pull factors)

This section will discuss the relationship between the findings and the theories designated for the research. In developing countries brain drain can cause a reduction in the human resource as well as economic growth, there is also a reverse of increase in both when there is a brain gain for developing countries in terms of brain circulation. According to scholars, the phenomenon can benefit both home and host countries (World Bank, 2010). Brain drain in this context, describes the movement of highly educated individuals from their country of origin to another country. The movement of people from one country to another is determined by varied factors from socio-cultural, economic and political. (Ramin, 1995). Several scholars, have listed some factors that stimulates students to move from the developing world to the developed for further studies. These factors includes; High cost of education, inadequate scholarships programmes, lack of educational facilities, overcrowded lecture halls and shortage of professors (Nganga, 2015). Furthermore, other factors such as low remuneration, employment, and professional development, networking, societal pressure (marriage), and political crisis could also motivate highly skilled migrants to leave their countries (Glennie & Chappell, 2010).

Respondents admitted that their motivations to come to Norway for further studies was largely due to free tuition and scholarship opportunities which corresponds with higher cost of academic fees at home. Most students admit it is difficult to work and study at their home countries, hence their inability to finance education. This could be contended that high cost of education is a decisive push factor in students' decision to migrate outside for further studies.

Another relatable factor mentioned by respondents was lack of facilities and inadequate research funding/Centers in higher educational institutions. The above mentioned factors contributes to frustrate students to leave as lack of facilities coupled with research constrains may also contribute to loss of human resource to industrialized world as one respondent mentioned "It is a challenge to conduct experiments in the laboratory when she was schooling back home"

More so, from the findings it was revealed that apart from one (1) respondent, most respondents were not driven by economic gains but socio-cultural factors which includes; family reunion and forced marriage; religious reasons also proved decisive in leaving their home countries.

The Norwegian educational system could also be argued as a pull factor that attracted respondents to stay in Norway. Respondents preferred to study here because most Norwegian universities are government funded. According to experts, developed countries are, where they are because they invest greatly in education (research and development) (Ionescu & Polgreen, 2008). Respondents mentioned that governments' inability to fund universities has affected education in their various countries. Again, studies on brain drain claims that countries that invest in education are likely to attract more highly qualified personnel's than countries that do not (Romer, 1994). This was evident in respondent's responses as some respondent migrated to Norway due to lack of funding in local universities. Respondent described the situation as frustrating as governments only meddle in the administrative running of home universities but does nothing to enhance the work of the university administrators. Stiglitz, is of the opinion that the most powerful tool a government can possess to enhance economic progress is to nurture talents (Stiglitz, 2015). Stiglitz assumption however is a reflection of current situation between the developed world and developing world.

Another pull factor identified from the findings was the job market of Norway. Though respondent were skeptical about the prospects of the job market, they associated the job market in their country with better remunerations, availability of jobs and good system practices. These determinates according the neo-classical theory can cause migration; neoclassical economic theory contends that labour migrate from low to high salaried economies to earn salaries better than in home countries (De Haas, 2008). Again highly skilled labour want returns on their investments from education (Massey, 1998). Respondents, claim though their migration was not motivated by economic gains, it was prudent to move to a country were their talents will be rewarded. Respondents believed that one of the reasons that also motivated their migration was to develop their careers. One of the respondents who had a job back home before moving claims living conditions are not that expensive as one can live with the wages earned back home, however, to be comfortable, career development must be compromised and that is why he

moved; nevertheless to curtail the brain drain phenomenon, governments should solve unemployment and wage difference challenge (Schmelz, 2009). Some respondents also contend that though there nepotism in terms of job searches in Norway; however the practice in home countries cannot be compared to the practice in Norway. Consequently jobs available in their home countries are normally offered based on tribal lines, there are no equal rights in terms of job offers as one respondent claimed.

Additional, in applying the theory for the research, it is imperative to discuss how respondents observe the main concern (Return or stay) of the research. The findings discovered diverse responses with regards to respondents return or stay. Based on the findings there were three groups of people, those who decided to return, those who decided to stay and those who were undecided to either stay or return. The decisions of the respondents were made according to the above mentioned push-pull factors. According brain drain or gain literature, the notion of return or stay depended on the push-pull factors that attract migrants to these countries (Hunger, 2002). For instance the respondents who decided to return based their decisions on pull factors such as family ties, already existing jobs and certain conditions in acquiring a job in the host countries. Again to some respondents who decided to stay mentioned push factors such as attractive wages, better condition of life and stability. Moreover, Schmelz assumes that migrants can contribute to the development of their countries from host countries when they are settled in the host countries, hence the decision of some respondents to stay (Schmelz, 2009).

Respondents on the return or stay concern mentioned pull factors like job creation and institution of fair minimum wage polices as vital for their stay. When this factors are put in place respondents are of the view that most educated skilled students will opt to go back after studies. According to the neoclassical economic theory, when wages commensurate qualification across host and home countries migration will ease, however in the process where there are wage disparities migration will increase (Beine et al., 2001). The assumption of the theory however might be a challenge for most workers from developing countries as standards of living are different. One respondent claims since moving to Norway she earns five-times more than she earned in her country considering the job she does which is below her qualification in Norway.

The submission made by the respondents further adds to the call on government of developing countries to reform the labour market.

Literature, suggests that investing in knowledge and technology brings socioeconomic growth in a country, since knowledge and technology can stimulate growth (Romer, 1994). Respondents mentioned that their return or stay might depend on the governments' ability to invest in these two. When there are more investments in education and technology and home universities are well equipped technologically, equal opportunity as well as human resource is critical for development and a gain for developing countries. Again, Stiglitz argues that for countries to be competitive there is the need for labour force to be highly educated and professionally equipped (Stiglitz, 2015). Furthermore, respondents believe it is not all about investments of knowledge and technology but it must also reflect in the quality of education offered in higher institutions in these countries. Provision of quality education in higher institutions means there is availability of study materials and adequate facilities for research which increases competition of talents for economic growth (Lindberg et al., 2014).

Despite the economic and political push-pull factors, respondents raised moral and ethical concerns related to the job market and educational institutions. Respondents contended that religious activism, ethnocentrism, nepotism and favoritism are all challenges that are faced by the labour market and educational institutions. Respondents claim these moral and ethical issues makes job search in their various countries difficult despite the availability of jobs and qualifications. Apart from these moral issues some respondents attributed their decision not return after studies on security grounds as one mentioned political instability as a major problem in her country.

4.5 The Heart of the Matter

The findings revealed how foreign education influenced the brain drain or gain processes. The responses of participants on their preference after studies revealed how education influenced the brain drain or gain processes. Based on the findings, the phenomenon affects both host and home countries as it was established by literature. According to brain drain experts the phenomenon

benefits both home and host countries (World Bank, 2010). Nevertheless, the second generational advocates of brain drain disagrees and contends that brain drain thrives more in developing countries whereas brain gain is more associated with developed countries (Lien & Wang, 2005). The findings thus agree to earlier literature by the third generation brain drain advocates that brain drain or gain is of mutual benefits for both home and host countries (Gaillard & Gaillard, 1998).

Similarly, a respondent shared his view of the brain drain or gain on two angles. The respondents' views were basically driven by social status of a family. The respondent explains that, in an instance where rich people in society send their children out for further education with the mindset of returning to take over family business it becomes a gain for the host country as the returning migrant will affect the family business as well as other organizations with his or her expert knowledge; however, it becomes a loss when individuals travel for further education without any hope of a job back home, it becomes a gain for host countries and a loss for home country depending on his or her expertise as literature confirms (Sekkat & Docquier, 2006). These social inequalities according to push-pull factor can also be a driving force for individuals to stay in host countries to enhance their social status (Rosenborg, 2018). The family's contribution in the decision making of the individual to stay or leave the country of study thus conforms to the new economic theory approach.

Furthermore, in an attempt to justify the use of theories employed in the study, the findings of the study reveal that students preference to "stay or leave" were not principally based on economic gains and wage disparities as the neo-classical theory assumes (Kurekova, 2011). The preferences of the students to stay or leave in Norway were made up of different factors, which included family decisions, the main outlook of the new economic theory (Stake, 1995). In an event where one particular theory is employed to access the students' preference of staying or leaving Norway, the actual results of the findings will be a challenge to ascertain, hence to achieve the objective of the study as confirmed by literature moving beyond these two theories to ascertain the micro level analysis of the phenomenon is an attestation to the findings of the study (De Haas, 2008).

These two theories were previously consulted to access the phenomenon from the macro point of view. Since the factors involved in students preference includes diverse factors including socio-cultural factors, it was essential to move beyond these two theories by relating them to the push-pull factors. The push-pull factors, as discussed earlier are hostile and encouraging conditions that allows student to leave or stay in a particular location (Olumide & Ukpere, 2011), as such based on the findings the decision to stay or leave depended on these factors identified by the push-pull theory (refer table 4 above).

Finally, Critics claim the phenomenon is not all negative as some have portrayed. When there is shared knowledge as well as exchange of expertise between foreign talents and local talents it is a gain for both home and host countries. Again when individuals settle in host countries after studies, remittances sent home also affect the development of the home countries (Schall, 2012). In another instance, the loss of talent from home countries can become a blessing for home and host countries as these migrants send monies home and host countries also increase their tax revenues. In effect brain drain is not only a threat to developing countries. In developed countries, the loss of skilled people does not only mean poor economic investments in their education, but also the loss of huge amount of those high achievers would have paid during their professional career as assumed by the positive brain drain advocates (Hunger, 2002)

4.6. Summary of Discussion and Analysis

The chapter has presented and analysed the findings from the data collected with regards to the research questions. The study observed the brain drain or gain phenomenon through the lenses of African student Migrants living in Norway. In order to understand the brain drain or gain phenomenon students preference after their studies as well as factors that accounted for their preference were analysed. Some respondents have already made up their mind to stay, others want to return and some were undecided. The push-pull factors and other relevant literature sharpened the discussion of the findings. The preceding chapter summarises the main findings of the research and expounds on the implications of the findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1 Conclusion and Implication of the Study

The universal flow of highly educated workforce offers a critical challenge to developing countries particularly in Africa. With the rampant influx of Africa's best talents to the developed world, discussions of how to address and ease the rapid trend of brain drain or gain have become relevant among researchers. Civil conflicts, political strife, social inequalities, economic disparities and unemployment have all been identified as challenges pushing Africa's best talent away. The study is conducted in an attempt to explore how foreign education influence the brain drain or gain processes. As such, some African student Migrants living in Norway were selected to provide an in-depth analysis. The purpose of the study was to identify the factors involved in students' decision to return or stay after studies as well as the factors that motivate their preferences. The push-pull theory (Todaro & Smith, 2006) was employed as the framework for the analysis of the phenomenon. The study began by observing how literature examines the reasons for the brain drain or gain phenomenon. In understanding the phenomenon various stages of the phenomenon was extensively examined. In my observation, the debates on brain drain or gain including discussions of the push-pull theory do not sufficiently capture the social effects and some lived experiences of African student migrants, hence the decision to explore the micro aspect of the brain drain or gain phenomenon with the focus on African student migrants. This final chapter shawls the study conducted over a period of twenty-four weeks. The concluding part is divided into two parts. The ensuing part will highlight the implications of the main findings whiles the final part will highlight the limitations of the study and how the study can be supported in future studies.

5.2 Implications of the Study

It is evident that the movement of highly educated talents has insinuations on both home and host countries. Scholars contend that since this affects both countries the best form of addressing the brain drain problem is to confront the primary challenges that make these talents leave the country (Tani, 2017). The brain drain phenomenon as some advocates believe is not all negative; hence it is significant not limit migration of highly educated talents as this can

aggravate the situation (Sriskandarajah, 2005). In order not to aggravate the brain drain situation; scholars endorse the focus on a specific sector in a particular country (ibid). A particular instance is Rwanda providing better incentives like befitting wages, health care, housing and transportation to keep its best workforce around for rebuilding (Harvard Medical School, 2013). The country has entered into a seven-year agreement with the United States to train more of its health workers who are already assured of employment after their training abroad (ibid). Again some countries in Africa such as Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa and Uganda have allowed dual citizenship to enable them to invest in their home countries (Mutiso, 2016). Most of these dual citizens from these countries have formed networks with their various governments to stimulate re-migration as some are contending for voting rights to have a say in the development of their countries. Hence the brain drain phenomenon may not be entirely negative on developing countries as claimed by opponents of the phenomenon.

Furthermore, literature confirms that most of the populations of the developed countries are shrinking, hence the reliance on high skilled labour migration to fill the gaps in the areas of expertise lacking. On the other hand, as revealed by the findings, some of these skilled labour returns to their home countries after their studies resulting in a brain drain for these receiving countries. However, there is a suggestion that developed countries should encourage dual citizenships as well as offer these skilled workers incentives that will be difficult to reject; which should include consistent professional training to get the best out of these workers (Michel, 2015).

More so, grounded on the findings, push-pull factors influenced the way education influences the brain drain processes. The findings revealed that quality education which encapsulates; methods of teaching and learning, availability of lecturers, research aids and proper facilities (Technology) were all issues that affect the individuals' decision to stay or leave in Norway. Education based on the findings should be a focus of development cooperation and government priority on capacity building among developing countries with particular reference to African countries. Further, family and societal issues were also a major outcome of the findings. African governments despite the idea of preserving culture and tradition should review certain aspects of the socio-cultural practices. Job creation coupled with attractive wages should also be a priority for governments, for these student migrants to return after studies abroad. Students were willing

to go home if there were opportunities' of jobs to return to. One positive was a respondent who had a job back home and was willing to return after study because she had a job waiting for her.

5.3 Limitations and recommendations for further Studies

The findings and analysis may have its weakness and limitations as some areas or issues may have been left out. However, it is of significant value specifically in helping to explain how foreign education influences the brain drain or gain processes. Thus the study shifted from the macro discussion of the brain drain phenomenon to the micro level. For this intention, it is vital to highlight other potential areas and issues of the brain drain phenomenon that were not effectively taken into account in the study. I am of the view that the following issues will be of interest for further research.

Owing to the nature of the study as a theory guided research work, other possible brain drain sources that were identified by the study were not sufficiently factored in the discussion. One of such issue is gender and socio-cultural issues, how it can influence the brain drain or gain phenomenon; it will be fascinating to explore such an issue with gender becoming a prevalent topic in academia. Further the research only provided a qualitative insight of the phenomenon; therefore I recommend further studies on the quantitative aspect of the topic.

This study was not to expose African student migrants in their future plans to stay or leave in a country of host, but rather adds to the current debate of the brain drain or gain phenomenon from the subjective stand. I conclude with three recommendations that can be added to the policy direction of governments in Africa. First, increase financial assistance through grants, donations and scholarships, secondly, support academic research with prime focus on local needs of Africa and Africans and finally, enhance educational exchange to improve professional development and international exposure.

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APPENDIX 1: Interview Guide

African Student Migrants living in Norway

Educational Background/motivation

- ✚ Could you describe your situation back home?
- ✚ What was your occupation back home?
- ✚ **Why didn't you decide to study in your country?**

Perception of study period in Norway

- ✚ How did you finance your coming here? Was it by the family assistance or what other means helped you come here?
- ✚ Do you get any support/ scholarship?
- ✚ How does your financial situation affecting your studies and would have been any better in your home country?

How Did Norway Become Your Study Destination

- ✚ Do you have some international study experience in another country?
- ✚ What brought you here? Or what factors influence your choice of Norway or why did you choose Norway?
- ✚ What do your family or friends think about your decision to come here?
- ✚ Are you the only children of your parents or you have other sibling who also want to come here or travel abroad to school?
- ✚ Do you think you can get same kind of education in your country like the way you have it here?

Motivation to Stay on In Norway

- ✚ Is there anything interesting about the Norwegian education system /labor market?
- ✚ What happens after your university education here? Are you looking forward to stay and work in Norway?

- + What makes a perspective of employment in Norway attractive to you?
- + Could you apply for job in any other country than Norway and your home country

Disincentive to leave

- + Are there any obstacles for getting job in Norway upon graduation?
- + Do you have some negative job-seeking experience in Norway?
- + Are you considering a job in another country either than your country?

Future changes in your home country

- + What has to change for you if you return to your home country?
- + Place of Origin
- + Gender
- + Age
- + Educational level



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