LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AU   African Union

B.A.   Bachelor of Arts

BBC   British Broadcasting Corporation

BC   British Council

CARA/IOM   Council for Assisting Refugee Academics

CEB   Cambridge Examination Board

CHEA   Council for Higher Education Accreditation

CNN   Cable News Network

CSC   Cambridge School Certificate

DRC   Democratic Republic of Congo

EFA   Education for All

EMIS   Education Management Information Systems

ERASMUS   European Community Action Scheme for the

                  Mobility of University Students

ERIC   Educational Resources Information Centre

E.U.   European Union

GATS   General Agreement on Trade in Service

Grad. C. E   Graduate Certificate in Education

HECP   Higher Education Commission of Pakistan

HIV and AIDS   Human Immuno-deficiency Virus and Acquired

Immuno-deficiency Syndrome

ICEF	Inner City Economic Forum
IEASA	International Education Association of South Africa
IIE	Institution of International Education
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IORARC	Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Cooperation
ITCs	Industrial Training Centres
JHEA	Journal of Higher Education in Africa
JSTOR	Journal Storage
KAUST	King Abdullah University of Science and Technology
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MESDC	Main English Speaking Destination Countries
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MHTE	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education
MIT	Massachusetts Institution of Technology
MP	Member of Parliament
NAMACO	National Manpower Advisory Council
NEPAD	The New Partnership for Africa's Development
OECD	Organisation for Economic and Cultural Development
PMI	Prime Minister's Initiative
QS	Question and Answer

RESA	Regional Education Service Agencies
SAD	Southern African Development Committee
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SARUA	Southern African Regional Universities Association
SOL	Skills Occupation List
TNE	Transnational Education
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
U.A.E.	United Arab Emirates
UCT	University of Cape Town
UGC	University's Grant Commission
UIS/IB	UNESCO Institute of Statistics/ Information Bulletin
U.K.	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNEVOC	International Centre for Technical Vocational Education and Training
U.S.	United States
U.S.A.	United States of America
UZ	University Zimbabwe
WB	World Bank
WES	World Education News
Wits	Witwatersrand University

WTO	World Trade Organisation
www	World Wide Web
ZANU (PF)	Zimbabwe African National Union (Patriotic Front)
ZICHE	Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education
ZIMCHE	Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education
ZIMSEC	Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

In this investigation the researcher has attempted to assess the effects of Zimbabwean student migration to South Africa for higher education, on Zimbabwean education. The students referred to are enrolled at the undergraduate level.

In her experience as a teacher in secondary schools in Zimbabwe, the researcher came into contact with a number of students who passed their Advanced Level ('A' Level) examinations with the intention of studying at one of South Africa's universities. Even to this day (2014) many students still register for and write a 'foreign' examination in order to comply with the entry requirements for admission to 'foreign' higher education institutions. The most popular examination board is the Cambridge Examination Board (CEB). The students write their final examinations of secondary school education in order to obtain a Cambridge School Certificate (CSC), which provides them with access to foreign-based universities. The students either forgo the examinations set by the local board, the Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council (ZIMSEC), or they write both the CEB and the ZIMSEC examinations. The choice to write a 'foreign' examination is a clear indication that the students are determined to migrate because the CEB examinations meet the admission requirements into foreign institutions of higher learning.

The parents contribute to their children's migration process by paying the Cambridge examination fees. These fees are very high because they are paid in a foreign currency. Some schools assist in the student migration by registering their institutions as examination centres where the students can register and write the CSC examinations. Some of these institutions conduct lessons based on the CSC syllabus. The parents pay an additional fee known as the 'centre fee' at these examination centres. Individual teachers further contribute to the student migration

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process by conducting private lessons to assist the aspiring student-migrants with the CSC syllabus. Some of the students, assisted by their parents, schools and private instructors end up at 'foreign' universities, with South Africa being the most popular destination.

It became important to try and ascertain what effect the migration process has on higher education in Zimbabwe. It was also significant to find out how the migration of students influences the economy of the country. The findings of the study were necessary in Zimbabwe's student migration. Thus, the study sought to establish the effects that student migration to South African universities had on higher education in Zimbabwe.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In the available literature it is indicated that student migration is a global happening. According to Gürüz (2008:1), the term *global* refers to the worldwide scope and substance which de-emphasizes the concept of nation, but without negating it. Gürüz's (2008:1) view of globalization is in agreement with that of Carlos, Byron and John (1999:ix), who clarify that 'global education' provides a means to respond to the challenges and promises of the new era, seeking to provide the students with a global perspective from which to study and work.

The present research attempted to find out whether Zimbabwean students were responding to the global challenges by not limiting themselves to study in the country of their citizenship only, and what effects their choice had on higher education in their country.

Knight and De Wit (in Jackson 2010:2) define *globalization* as "…the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values [and] ideas... across borders". Rosaldo (in Jackson 2010:2) portrays *globalization* as a "... spatial temporal process, operating on global scale that rapidly cuts across national boundaries, drawing more and more of the world into a web of interconnection...and compressing our spatial and temporal horizons". The two definitions above are bound together by

the idea of cutting across borders and national boundaries in order to expand horizons. In relation to the above views, the present research sought to survey whether Zimbabwean students were being caught up in the global mobility web for knowledge and ideas, and migrated more to South African universities.

Gürüz (2008:1) looks at the migration phenomenon as far back as medieval European universities when, at some time, foreigners accounted for 10% of the student enrolment across the continent. He points out that students and scholars have always left their homes in a quest for educational knowledge. In comparison, Zimbabwe has a history of students migrating to South Africa for the purpose of studying. The *Wikipedia* (2014) website, under the heading *Zimbabwean American* says Zimbabwean students have a history of migration to South Africa for higher education. During the medieval period students travelled to other places because there were no institutions of learning where they lived. Gürüz (2008:2) says that today there are more institutions of higher education in the world, and opportunities for access have been vastly improved for the masses. Equally worth mentioning, today Zimbabwe has a total of 15 universities. Yet, students continue to migrate to South Africa for higher education. It has become necessary to assess the rationales that are driving this expansion on the part of students and their families, and the effects of the migration process on Zimbabwe's higher education system.

According to *International Education Association of South Africa:* (IEASA) *International Student Landscape* (no date: page 23), the internationalization of higher education in South Africa earnestly began in the 1990s after political reforms were announced. South Africa, now a model of democracy in Africa, realised the benefits of the internationalization of higher education, which included wider recognition of the country's qualifications. The qualifications would forge its relationship with African and international researchers. IEASA (no date :page 23) also states that in 2008 higher education in South Africa conducted a desktop survey to explore how South African universities at that time connected with the rest of Africa. The survey, done on South Africa's 25 universities, ascertained that, in 2007, approximately 16% of the University of Cape Town's students, undergraduates and post-graduates were international students. According to that survey, international students were

represented at every South African university (IEASA, no date: page 23). The same source says that, in Article 7A1 of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Education and Training signed in Malawi in 1997, the "…member states agree to recommend to universities and other tertiary institutions in their countries to reserve at least 5% of admission for students from SADC nations, other than their own". South Africa was said to have reached that target in 2003, and in 2008 5.7% of the country's student cohort came from the SADC region. Zimbabwe, being a member of the SADC, was equally represented at every South African university. The students' choice to study in South Africa confirms the quality of the country's universities and the international standing of their academics and qualifications. The following statistics of 2011 from the Department of Education show the increase in the number of international students.

Table 1.1 Increase in student numbers

Year	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2008	2009	2010
SADC	6 209	7 822	21 318	36 207	35 917	45 851	41 906	46 496
Non-SADC Africa total	1 521	2 079	4 263	6 664	8 569	9 554	10 663	10 986
REST OF THE WORLD	4 827	5 268	5 568	7 108	7 673	6 619	7 011	7 302
NO INFORMATION			14 228	1 447	1 574	1 928	1 276	1 353
GRAND TOTAL			591 161	717 793	741 383	799 490	837 779	893 024
% Non-South African			7.68	7.16	7.25	7,76	7,31	7,25

Source: IEASA, 'International Students: Trends in South Africa' (no date: page 9)

In the above table, IEASA (no date: page 9) quotes the *Department of Education's* 2011 statistics which show that South Africa has long been a preferred destination for students from countries in Africa.

South Africa has housed as many as 71% (45 718 students in 2008) of international students from neighbouring SADC countries. The Department of Education in South Africa indicates Zimbabwe as the major "source" country, representing 39% of all international students. The percentage of Zimbabwean students rose from 27% in

2006 to 39% in 2008. This rise in migration to South African higher education institutions has been fuelled by the political and economic crisis in the country (IEASA, 'Internationalisation in South Africa-International Student Landscape': no date: page 23).

Just like many countries in Africa, Zimbabwe has been a hot-spot of political and economic instability (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:86). These researchers point out that political and economic factors are the strongest 'push factors' for the students' decision to adopt an international dimension, and to study in South Africa. By accepting students from the rest of Africa, South Africa takes it as a way of contributing to the development of the continent's human resources, and helps stem a crippling brain drain to developed countries (IEASA, no date:26). It therefore remains to be established whether the Zimbabwean students who migrate to South Africa return to develop their country of birth, hence the impact on higher education and the economy of the country.

The *Universal Periodic Review (UPR) of the Republic of Zimbabwe* (2011:1) says that on attaining political independence in 1980, Zimbabwe adopted an 'Education for All' (EFA) policy. The policy was intended to be an answer to the social justice, equality, equity and economic arguments. The EFA policy commenced with free and compulsory primary school education. Primary schools became flooded with students, because anyone, regardless of age, now had access to education. The sudden growth at primary school level was later reflected by the expansion at secondary school level. The government had done away with the 'bottle-neck' type of education and allowed all children to have access to secondary school education. This, in turn, called for the need for the expansion of the provision of tertiary education (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:30). In his thesis, Chikuya (2007:2) gives a comparative expansion of primary and secondary school education between 1979 and 1986. The table below shows growth in student numbers in primary and secondary schools.

Table: 1.2 Growth in student numbers

YEAR	NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS	NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS
1979	819 128	755 540
1986	2 260 367	1 545 841

Source*: (Chikuya, 2007:2)

The table shows the rapid growth in the number of both primary and secondary school students during the first 7 years of Zimbabwe's political independence.

In 1986 Zimbabwe still had only one university, catering for about 2 000 students (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:31). Yet, 7 000 'A' Level graduates applied to enter the University of Zimbabwe (UZ) in 1987. The figure of 7 000 did not include diploma-holders and other candidates who qualified to enrol for university education (Chikuya, 2007:2; Mohamedbhai, 2008:37). The UZ could not cope with the expansion from the secondary sector, nor could it accommodate the applicants with diplomas who wanted to upgrade their qualifications to degree level. The affected students had to seek alternatives for higher education in other countries, including South Africa.

The 'massification' of education is yet another driving factor leading Zimbabwean and other students from Africa to South African universities. This research adopted Altbach's and Scott's (in Mohamedbhai, 2008:4) definition that *massification* in the context of higher education systems, pertains to the increase in student enrolment. Zimbabwe, like South Africa and Malawi, experienced high enrolments of students at both primary and secondary school levels, following the EFA movement supported by UNESCO and the World Bank.

Zimbabwe had been served by the UZ only for more than forty years (1946-2000) since that university's inception in 1945-1946 (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:31). To date-2014- Zimbabwe has 14 more universities which have emerged within twelve years, (1991-2005), serving approximately 50 000 students, in a range of a number of new

disciplines. Despite the expansion in higher education institutions in Zimbabwe, there is still a growing demand for higher education. Supply continues to fail to meet the demand. Annually more than 75 000 students apply for enrolment at the universities (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:31). Many of these students look outside the country, especially to South Africa, to provide for their education needs. Thus, a lack of capacity in Zimbabwe's universities is driving student migration to more developed South Africa, creating a ready market for South Africa to recruit regionally.

Maringe and Gibbs (2009:87) pointed out that the general movement of students and staff in higher education seems to be from less developed to more developed countries. Such movement has tended to exacerbate the brain drain, which represents economic losses to poor countries. In the case of Zimbabwean universities, the brain drain has left a skeletal staff, giving negative perceptions of the poor quality and the inadequate provision of resourced higher education (*The Mail & Guardian,* April 8-14, 2011:38). Thus, more and more students seek university entrance in the more developed and more economically stable South Africa.

Funding for higher education is another possible reason for students migrating to South Africa. In Zimbabwe the students are expected to pay a substantial fee towards their education. However, paying for knowledge does not depress demand for places in universities. Rather, the students see a greater need to see tangible evidence for the outcome of their higher education experience (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:7). By opting to study in South Africa, Zimbabweans, like any other (SADC) students, benefit from the recommendations of SADC Protocol that stated that SADC students receive the same government subsidy as local students, and are charged the same fees, plus a modest international levy (IEASA, 2007:11). The argument is that by providing quality training to African students, South Africa contributes to the development of the continent's human resources. It was hoped that African students who chose South Africa as a study destination were more likely to remain on the continent than if they studied abroad (IEASA, 2007:11). The question was whether migrant Zimbabwean students in South Africa returned home to develop their country of origin. The study precisely tried to establish the consequences of the movement process on higher education of Zimbabwe.

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1.3 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

From the background information regarding the problem being investigated, it is evident that the migration of students is an age-old phenomenon, even in respect of Zimbabwe. The information also shows that a large number of Zimbabwean students migrate to South African universities. Despite the provision of more institutions of higher learning in the country, the students are still leaving to other countries for their education. Sometimes these students are supported by their schools and teachers who prepare them academically, and by their parents who bear the costs of very expensive fees.

1.3.1 Awareness of the problem

This research has largely been inspired by the researcher's experience of teaching in a number of Zimbabwe's best schools with high pass-rates. The researcher once worked at a school which had a pass-rate of 100% at 'A' Level. In 2004 and again in 2007 the researcher received awards for attaining 100% A and B grades in her 'A' Level Literature in English class. Like many of the teachers in other subjects, the researcher would, as a teacher, give extra tuition to interested students. Some of the students who attended the extra classes and also others who did not do so wrote both the ZIMSEC and CSC examinations and many of them would migrate to other countries for higher education. This student migration process was experienced in many schools across the country. The observation of student mobility from Zimbabwe to universities in other countries became a motivation for the researcher to carry out a research on student journeying to South African universities, in order to establish the results of the migration on higher education of the country.

Once in a staff meeting, a number of teachers suggested that the school be registered as a CSC examination centre, for the convenience of those students who wished to write the CEB examinations. One of the teachers was assigned to do research on that project. Although the school could not register because of reasons involved in the registration process, it could be noticed how the teachers were ready to avail themselves to assist with the migration process.

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Every year, in the last term of the school year, there would be gaps in the classrooms of 'A' Level students. Many of the 'good' students and also other students, whose parents could afford it, would be at home or anywhere closer to the CSC examination centres to write the examinations. The fact that the students were away from school for the CSC examinations was a clear indication that the parents were supportive of the student going abroad for higher education.

The CSC examination results would be available before the start of the ZIMSEC examinations. Some of the students who had passed the CSC examination would stop coming to school, even if they had registered for the ZIMSEC examinations. Other students would leave the country, with the intention of attending 'foreign' universities.

Thus, the teachers' cooperation, the students' enthusiasm and the parents' sacrifice and support in the migration process became a motivation for the researcher to carry out the current study. The question was if the students migrated, how did their migration impact on the higher education of the country? The study also attempted to establish whether the students' migration affected the economy of the country as well because of the close link between higher education and a country's economy. Experiencing the assistance rendered to the students became a motivation for the researcher to attempt to establish the effects of student migration, especially on higher education in Zimbabwe.

1.3.2 Formulation of the research problem

The research problem proposed to bring to the surface the effects of the migration process of Zimbabwean students to South African higher education centres. From the background information to the problem, it was clear that student migration to higher education institutions in South Africa had important implications for the Zimbabwean higher education system. The question then was what the effects of the student migration to South African universities were on higher education and on the economy of that country.

1.3.3 Sub-problems

This study investigated the following sub-problems:

1. What international and local factors contributed to the migration of Zimbabwean students in general, and particularly to South African higher education institutions?

2. What were the effects of this migration process on the education system and on the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe?

3. What were the effects of the students' migration on the economy of the country?

4. What recommendations could be made from an investigation in respect of student migration to inform future policy-making in the development of higher education in the country?

1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 The main aim

The basic concern of the study was to establish the effects of student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe and on policy-making in terms of higher education.

Ultimately the study was able to identify the following sub-aims.

1.4.2 Sub-aims

- To establish the general and local factors that lead to the migration of students to 'foreign' universities.

- To ascertain what, in general, was driving students to South African higher education institutions.

- To analyse the effects of the migration on the education system and the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe.

- To analyse the effects of the migration on the economy of the country.

- To recommend future policy guidelines for the development of higher education in the country.

1.5 METHODS OF THE RESEARCH

The research methodology below presents the steps followed in collecting data for the research study. The section also provided the justification for the use of certain methodologies, and indicated the limitations involved in the selected methodologies.

The selected methods are:

- grounded theory;

- narrative qualitative inquiry;

- interim analysis; and

- interpretive epistemology

The above methods fall within the scope of a qualitative research inquiry and they suit the qualitative research design. These methods were most appropriate for the achievement of the research aims, as was explained in full in Chapter 4 (cf. 4.2.2).

The narrative qualitative inquiry was selected for the first and the second sub-aims of this research (cf. 1.4.2). Both aims involved interviewing participants in order to establish the general and local factors that contribute to the migration of students to 'foreign' universities, including to South Africa (cf. 4.3.2).

The interim analysis (cf. 4.3.3) helped in an attempt to come up with a scrutiny of the third sub-aim, which was an effort to analyse the effects of the migration process on the education system and the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 1.4.2). The cyclical or recursive process of collecting data for this research called for such a method of analysis.

Many socially-created realities exist, which suggest a single reality. Student migration is a social reality. The interpretive epistemology helped in coming up with the judgements from the opinions provided by the individual participants (cf. 4.3.4).

A full interpretation of the empirical investigation was presented in Chapter 4.

The main aim of this research was to explore the views on student migration from the perspectives of those directly involved in the migration process, and the impact that the process had on higher education in Zimbabwe, as well as providing relevant information regarding student migration. This research thus consists of a literature review and an empirical study.

1.5.1 Literature Review

A review of the literature indicates the existing empirical evidence on the migration of students internationally. In addition, a literature review of the already conducted research, theories and trends gave the researcher a perspective on student migration. One of the major sources of literature used was the World Wide Web (www), with Google as the main choice. The source provided a wide choice of relevant literature, including information from the Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC) and Journal Storage (JSTOR).

The researcher also utilized primary sources in the form of books on student migration. Most of the sources used were ten years old and less, from the time the research started to its completion. This was done for the credibility of information, because events change very quickly. The other sources which were more than ten years old were used only to emphasise the information on the more recent research. The literature study also included the effects of student migration on higher

education internationally. The international trends were then compared to the Zimbabwean situation. The Zimbabwean literature on student migration was also investigated. The reviewed literature helped to document how the migration of students to South Africa impacted on higher education in Zimbabwe. Due to the comprehensive research in this regard and the importance and extent of the findings, the literature review was presented in two separate chapters, in order to adequately achieve all the sub-aims of the study.

1.5.2 Empirical study

Empirically the study was guided by systematic research methods. The study employed a qualitative research design for the purpose of data-collection. The study mainly encompassed the non-experimental descriptive research design. The data were collected by means of an informal conversation interview. The researcher made use of the interview-guide, that is, questions written down so that relevant concerns in student migration might not be forgotten. Interviews with participants in distant places were done over the cell-phone.

A survey was conducted from a sample of the students who migrated to South African universities, the parents who assisted in the migration process and from the administrators and lecturers who worked in Zimbabwe's state universities. The interviews were conducted at South African and Zimbabwean universities.

The researcher followed a purposeful-sampling strategy in the selection of the participants. This sampling strategy was appropriate for this research because the targeted population was large. The selected sampling-strategy added credibility to such a large target.

A full explanation of the methodology and the motivation for its use was given in Chapter 4.

1.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study did not seek to prove, but to understand Zimbabwean students' migration to South Africa, and its effect on higher education in the country. This meant that the study was based on Glaser and Strauss's (in Ryan, Coughlan & Cronin, 2007:740) grounded theory with specific implications for the study. The background to the study presented the observation that students from Zimbabwe were leaving to South Africa to pursue higher education, for reasons best-known to themselves. The research included four diverse groups of participants. The reasons for the migration, in other words, were grounded within the participants. While there was no specific theory to explain the decision to migrate for the purposes of higher education, the theory was grounded in the data. The theory helped to induce the grounded information from the participants (cf. 4.3.1).

Another reason why grounded theory was relevant to the study was that the researcher employed informal and cell-phone interviews. An enormous amount of data was collected through this method. Grounded theory assisted in identifying, processing and analysing the information relevant to the study. As Walker and Myrick (2011:549) indicated, the analysis of qualitative data seeks to organize and reduce the data gathered into themes or essences, which, in turn, can be fed into descriptions, models, or theories. The data gathered in this research were coded in order to come up with an analysis (cf. 4.5) of the effects of student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe, as presented in Chapter 5 (cf. 5.10).

Given, Vincent and Anfara (2013:8-9) are of the opinion that a theoretical framework frames every aspect of a study, from the questions asked to the sample selected, to the analysis. In relation to the above outlook, this research employed the interview-guide, even for the cell-phone interviews, and the selection of the sample relevant to grounded theory.

Basing the premises on Willis' (2007:150-151) observation, student migration in Zimbabwe is a social issue. This is because it is a subject that affects the general public. This research fitted into the above perception, namely that the subject under study determined it as qualitative research. The effects of student migration to South

African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe, as to be presented in Chapter 5, were accomplished not through numerical, but by means of qualitative evidence.

The researcher borrowed from pronouncements by Given, et al., (2013:8-9), and was aware of the possible biases in the nature of the current study. In other words, grounded theory for this research helped the researcher to be accountable and to ensure that the methodology, the data, and the analysis were consistent.

A full explanation of the above theoretical foundations of the research methods were presented in Chapter 4.

1.7 FURTHER STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provided the relevant background detail that gave the study value and purpose by stating the problem. The breaking-down of the problem into sub-problems enabled the researcher to establish the findings of the study. The aims and methods of research aimed at justifying the grounds for student migration in current Zimbabwe. Furthermore, a brief explanation of the theoretical framework of this investigation was provided in order to justify the methods sought to understand Zimbabwean student migration to South African universities, and its effect on higher education in the country.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature related to student migration from an international perspective. The review shows the general international 'drivers' of student migration into 'foreign' universities. The literature review helped with the establishment of the study aim that tried to ascertain the general factors contributing to the migration of students from Zimbabwe to 'foreign' universities. These factors assisted in identifying the local factors of student mobility in the country. The second chapter dealt with the concerns of the first sub-aim, namely to establish the general and local factors that contributed to the migration of students to 'foreign' universities.

Chapter 3 focused on the trends and patterns of student migration in Africa. The literature study focused on the migration of Zimbabwean students to foreign

universities and specifically to South African universities. The chapter centred on the first sub-aim, namely the establishment of the general reasons why African students migrated; the second sub-aim, namely why they migrated to South Africa; and the third and fourth sub-aims, which called for an analysis of the effects of student migration, based on the literature. It gave the reasons why, in general, African students migrated in search of higher education. The chapter also presented why Zimbabwean students, in their capacity as members of the African student body, migrated. Chapter 3 attempted to ascertain the second sub-aim of the study - finding out what in general was driving students to South African higher education institutions.

Chapter 4 presented the research design and methods of data-collection for the study. The chapter focused on the third and fourth sub-aims of the study, which required that after the data were collected through relevant methods and data-collecting instruments, it was analysed. The analysis helped to identify the aims of the study.

Chapter 5 presented and analysed the data collected using the methods stated in Chapter 4, with the emphasis on its relevance to the problem discussed in Chapter 1, namely that of the effects of the student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe. Chapter 5 thus related to the third and fourth sub-aims. The findings were presented in discussion-form and demographically. While Chapter 3 attempted to discover what information was available in the literature about the second sub-aim of the study, namely finding out what in general was driving students to South African higher education institutions, Chapter 5 attempts the same second sub-aim, but through the actual collection and analysis of the data from the participants.

Chapter 6, which presented a summary of the findings and recommendations, indicated the conclusion of the research. The chapter presented important information on the findings of the study. The chapter, focusing on the fourth, the fifth and the final sub-aims, carried recommendations for future policy guidelines on the migration of students, higher education and the economy of Zimbabwe.

1.8 DEFINITION OF THE KEY CONCEPTS

1.8.1 Higher education

The *Wikipedia* website, under *Higher Education* (2014) says that *higher education* refers to the stage of learning that occurs at universities, academies, colleges, seminaries and institutions of technology. The above source also says the right of access to higher education is enshrined in a number of international rights instruments. This research adopted the definition that higher education was an educational level done at a university and it followed the completion of education at a school that provided secondary education such as a high school and/or secondary school.

1.8.2 Student

A *student,* according to the *Wikipedia* (2014), is defined as a learner or someone who attends an educational institution. It also says a student is anyone who is learning. In this research a *student* was to be understood as someone who had completed secondary education and was enrolled and learning in a university.

1.8.3 Student migration

Student migration, as defined by *Wikipedia* (2014), is the movement of students who study outside their country of birth or citizenship for a period of twelve months or more. This definition was adopted for the current investigation.

1.8.4 Student mobility

The *Random House Kernerman Webster's College Dictionary* (2010) defines mobility as the movement of individuals or groups of people from place to place. The movement is done for a purpose. Student migration is synonymous with student mobility. Jackson (2010:19) says *student mobility* is whereby the participants go

abroad for educational purposes. One of these educational purposes is *studying*. The link in the two definitions is in the freedom of movement for the students. The current study related to the two definitions in that it was an attempt to establish the effects of the freedom of movement by the Zimbabwean students into South African universities and how this movement impacted on the higher education of Zimbabwe. In this study, *student mobility* and *student migration* were used interchangeably.

1.9 CONCLUSION

In the introduction a brief background to the study was presented. It also presented the efforts made by the students and their parents to help the students migrate to 'foreign' universities for the purpose of higher education, especially to South Africa, and how some schools and individual teachers contributed to the student migration process in Zimbabwe. The background of the study presented the international and the local history of student migration through authoritative literature that related to the research problem. The introduction indicated the reasons for undertaking this research. The background of the study placed the research in the field of student migration and showed that the topic had been considered before as proven by the relevant literature. The research problem was then formulated. The study was predominantly qualitative in nature. The research methodology indicated which research methods were adopted to achieve each of the formulated research aims. The purposive-sampling and snowball sampling techniques were employed to identify the participants to contribute data on the problem of student migration. The main data-collection instrument was the interview and the type of the interview was determined by the aim to be achieved. Interpretive validity was adopted for this research in order to attempt an accurate portrayal of the meaning attached to the question of student migration. The participant feedback strategy then helped to clear any areas of the miscommunication of the data by the researcher. The research thus aimed to establish the effects of student migration to South Africa on the higher education in Zimbabwe. The chapter also discussed what the researcher undertook in each of the six chapters of the study. Finally, the study indicated the conceptual

and operational definitions of the key terms from the title of the study in order to make the position of the study clear.

In the next chapter the researcher reviewed the existing relevant literature regarding student migration and its effects on higher education. The international perspective was then compared to the Zimbabwean situation in order to establish the effects of the students' migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: STUDENT MIGRATION FROM

AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the aims of this research is to establish the general and local factors that are currently contributing to the migration of students from Zimbabwe. In relation to this aim, this chapter discusses the general factors on student migration by means of a review of the relevant literature. The review is based on the opinions of international students who journey to various countries for study purposes. The current chapter specifically reviews the literature on student mobility in the main international destination. The emerging hubs in the mobility of students are also examined. Finally, this chapter presents the theoretical framework of the current research. The critical discussion of literature in this part of the study is an attempt to acknowledge the work of other researchers in relation to student migration.

The work to be reviewed is expected to help establish what is currently driving students into mobility. The literature includes a combination of contemporary studies, articles and research in order to place the current study within the context of the existing body of knowledge (cf. 1.5). It is hoped that a critical evaluation of the literature which relates to students' mobility may create a basis for establishing reasons for the migration of the Zimbabwean students to South African universities, and for establishing the effects of this migration on Zimbabwe's higher education, as well as other effects that may result from this migration process.

2.2 ORGANIZATION OF THE CHAPTER

Firstly, the background to international student migration is given. This background forms the framework in which student migration occurs, that is, its historical background, the changes that have occurred and the general trends that this process of student migration follows. The context within which student mobility occurs is presented next. The framework gives, in some detail, the major international destinations for students, which are the United States of America (U.S.A., or U.S.), the United Kingdom (U.K.) and Australia. Next follows a consideration of the emerging hubs in international student mobility in Asia and countries in the Middle East, which have become the students' alternative destinations for migration. An evaluation is given of the impact of student mobility on both the 'sending' and the 'hosting' countries, based on the information from the reviewed literature. A look at the general observation of the international movement of the students is an attempt to make clear what is known about student migration in general.

The discussion then presents theories and myths that are applied in student migration, and how they generally impact on student mobility.

2.3. THE BACKGROUND OF STUDENT MIGRATION

This section presents the background to student migration in the form of a summary of the history of the process. It also indicates some of the changes that have taken place in the progression, before looking at the current trends in this regard.

2.3.1 The historical background of international student migration

Information from the literature indicates that student migration is an age-old process. Traces of student mobility go as far back as Pythagoras (569-475 B.C). At one stage 10% of the European medieval university students were international. Research indicates that the medieval university had no physical location, and a faculty could relocate to another city (taking its students with it, which suggests that the students

migrated *en masse*) (Portnoi, Rust & Bagley, 2010:236; Gürüz, 2008:1; Lyons, 2008:19; Teichler, 2007:1). The implication is that the migration of students is not a new phenomenon, it has run though ages to the current era, and it is likely to continue. Though the form of today's migration differs from that of the past, student mobility is a never-ending process.

It was indicated that mobility in the field of knowledge has been part of the history of the universities' systems, with the aim of achieving equivalence in universities (Chessa, 2012:63). Thus, while universities have always differed in the ways they teach and in the courses they offer, student mobility gives them equality and balance when they include students from other countries in their enrolment. Another view presented was that academic and student mobility were factors towards the development of a more flexible establishment of education provisioning and broadened research interests, hence the balance.

Higher education students, who migrate (including students from Zimbabwe) to South Africa, do so in search of the best and acceptable learning. The flow of students across international borders in the mid-twentieth century grew from 107 589 in 1950 to 2.5 million in 2008 (Portnoi et al., 2010:236; Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:1). The on-going process of student mobility brings about an increase in the numbers of migrant students. Thus, the observation is that the growth in the numbers of students, as well as the on-going process of student migration, is a reality to be reckoned with.

The information given above suggests that student migration is an important global aspect throughout history. The process is linked to the evolution of institutions, the structures, the function, governance, administration and the financing of higher education, all of which are aspects which support the mobility of students. This is the reason why governments are interested in higher education and student mobility to the extent of organizing and funding the process. Research indicates that universities have always been international in outlook. The word *university* itself subsumes a notion of the universe (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:82-83; Rizvi, 2010:1). In other words, through mobility, universities embrace that worldwide notion through students from the international arena. It can therefore be said that student migration is an unavoidable process, and that students migrate in order to generate and develop knowledge and

an understanding about the world, both as individuals and as communities of people with similar interests. Global mobility by students, thus, has always been and still is an important aspect of higher education. This perhaps explains why Zimbabwean students find their way to South Africa for higher education. Time has proved that the process of global mobility by students has changed with regards to its motivation, the experiences, the guiding principles and institutional forms (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:82-83; Rizvi, 2010:1). This research, accordingly, also looked at how governments and higher education institutions have responded to student migration.

2.3.2 Changes in student migration

Globalization and internationalisation are on-going processes, and together with them is student mobility. With international changes, student migration has taken a turn which is unlikely to be reversed. As discussed above (cf. 2.3.1), one of the changes is the rise in the number of students who migrate for the sake of higher education. There are notable and visible numbers of students, including those from Zimbabwe, moving to international destinations for the purpose of study. Changes in student migration are a result of globalization which, as a social phenomenon, has a long history (Maringe & Foskett, 2010:1-2; Teferra & Knight, 2008:1).

The above researchers are also of the view that globalization is broadly understood to mean the creation of world relations based on the operation of the free markets. They say that the development in technology, namely computers and the internet, have accelerated and intensified globalization. Travel and communication have now become very fast. Individuals - and information - now travel quicker and cheaper between countries and continents. There is a large amount of information at one's disposal now. The advance in technology has stimulated the growth in the mobility of students, according to Junor and Usher (2008:2).

While readily available information and easy accessibility of transport have prompted students to travel elsewhere for higher education, universities have equally responded to globalization through internationalization (Junor & Usher, 2008:2). The above researchers view internationalization as the methodical, on-going effect by the

government to make higher education institutions more responsive to the challenges of the globalization of the economy, and of society. Based on the above perception, there seems to be a give-and-take situation between globalization and internationalization. The sharing comes in respect of the fact that globalization steers-in changes, and the governments react to the changes that are a result of globalization. In other words, globalization makes it easy for students to choose what and where to study. Both the governments of the 'sending' and of the 'host' countries find themselves obliged to respond to the new changes in order to assist the migrant students, hence internationalisation. The change in student mobility comes because the governments are now involved in what originally was the enterprise of individual students. The particular students are motivated differently to study in international destinations (Ninnes & Hellstén, 2005:199-200).

The changing nature of international student mobility has been viewed in two ways - growth and diversity. *Growth* and *diversity* have been associated with emerging models and types of student mobility, which are *physical* and *virtual* modes (Woodfield in Maringe & Foskett, 2010:109-112). The *physical* mode is when mobility, in terms of growth, relates to the increase in the numbers of international students enrolled at universities in the host countries. A variety of courses are offered in this 'growth', and they seem to be increasing with the internationalization of higher education. On the *virtual* mode side, some students enrol and study at foreign universities without leaving their home country, a change which has come with globalization. The current study, however, focuses on the students who physically move to a foreign country for the purposes of study, in the hope of understanding how the migration of Zimbabweans to South Africa impacts on higher education of their country.

Diversity in student migration, according to research by Rizvi (2010:3) and Teichler (2007:1), has also been summarised in various ways. The above researchers indicate that one of the ways is the post-colonial era (1960-1980s), when student mobility was motivated largely by the ideology of 'developmentalism', which focuses on the economic progress of the politically independent countries. This view is assumed in programmes such as the Colombo and the Fulbright Plans, with the focus on the transfer of knowledge and skills, and local capacity-building through the development

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of postgraduate courses. This is when postgraduate education is received in the 'donor' country, and the recipients return to impart the knowledge to their countries of origin. Another variation is that the former colonial rulers' concern with meeting the developmental nationalist aspirations of the newly independent countries, resulted in the creation of such programmes as referred to above. Rizvi (2010:3) and Teichler (2007:1) pointed out that student mobility has been linked to various interests, which include 'cold war' politics. Relevant to this research is the fact that the intensification of student mobility has resulted in some institutions' strategy to increase overseas student recruitment, and the decision has contributed to the further intensification of globalization. On the other hand, the intensification of the curriculum internationalization process results in making the university education product more attractive. The outcome is increased student mobility, hence the reciprocity of globalization and internationalization (Rizvi, 2010:3; Teichler, 2007:1).

Gürüz (2008:3-6) states that globalization and internationalization have altered the retrieval patterns of knowledge. The same researcher points out that with the movement of time, the characteristics of, and the methods whereby knowledge is created, stored, accessed, transmitted and acquired also change. It is the change that determines how that knowledge is accessed. The quest to access knowledge ends up in the students' response to globalization and internationalisation by their choice of destination countries and their migration in search of higher education. Students choose where to go and what to study for them to be able to fit into the global knowledge economy. At the same time globalization obliges the governments and higher education institutions to create the means for storing and transmitting knowledge in a way that attracts international students.

Part of the anticipation to the dramatic rise in international student mobility is the knowledge economy. The *Wikipedia* (2014) says knowledge economy is the use of knowledge to generate tangible and intangible values. Knowledge economy implies that an effective higher education system is integral to the success of a country's economy. Knowledge is an essential resource providing countries with a competitive advantage and a means for economic advancement (Fernandes, 2006:133; Portnoi, et al., 2010:236). The outcome from the above argument is that higher education has

been 'commodified', that is, higher education has become equivalent to an 'item for consumption'. The provision of higher education roused interest from both the government policy-makers and individual higher education institutions alike. The government now focuses on the economic potential value of higher education as a resource, not merely the general education for its people. Individual students, on the other hand, are attracted to the universities which assure them economic rewards. The students, therefore, end up migrating in search of relevant knowledge.

Change is also noted in that student mobility has become big business and essential to the financial health of universities and other providers of higher education. This view is based on the observation of the growth in the international market for academic and scientific personnel (Gribble, 2008:26; Choudaha & Chang, 2012:5). The growth of the international market is based on the growing influence of the higher education institutions which operate in order to make a profit by offering courses which are relevant to the creation of economy. The change lies therein that before, the student was self-motivated to study for the sake of acquiring knowledge. Currently higher education providers and the universities have capitalized on the growing demand for higher education and are 'selling the commodity' at a profit. Thus, students migrate to colleges they consider to be the best in terms of offering what benefits them in the world of economy.

Hazelkorn (2011:4-10) is of the opinion that higher education, (which, in turn, affects student mobility), has been influenced by four aspects. The first one is the position of knowledge as the foundation of economic, social and political power which has driven the transformation of economies. This aspect is of interest to governments, and they pay special attention to higher education. Secondly, a combination of reasons which include the aging of the population (cf. 2.4.4.6 & 2.6.1), and the retirement of professionals in some countries coupled with the decline in the number of local higher education students. The affected countries recruit from other nations, ending up not only in the migration of human resources, but also in student migration. The students are offered employment in the 'host' countries after completing their studies. Hazelkorn (2011:4-10) is of the view that while the world population is likely to increase to 2.5 billion by 2050, the developed regions are probably to rely on

international students. Thirdly, higher education has been transformed from being considered a social expenditure to an essential component of the productive economy. Programmes have been restructured to make them more compatible, competitive and attractive in order to attract sufficient students and to meet quality standards. Finally, education and graduate outcomes and lifestyles are strongly correlated with higher qualifications and career opportunities. Such attractions are a lure to students who are already searching for welcoming and lucrative destinations. This is also the reason why students and their parents have become confident consumers in higher education, especially at foreign universities, with the parents going the extra mile to pay expensive study fees in foreign currencies (cf. 1.1). They expect rewarding employment for their children. The result is an even higher migration by international students in an attempt to acquire relevant education which may allow them to fit into the chances that are created by the world of economy. With all this going on, it can be said that student migration certainly remains a dynamic process.

It is important to note that globalization has a less attractive side in the internationalization of higher education. The negative side is where global standing appears to be more important at the expense of quality education, and international students are considered just another form of business. Murray, Hall, Leask, Marginson and Ziguras (2011:32) question this form of internationalization when they point out that,

> *Recent national and worldwide surveys of university internationalization priorities show that establishing an international profile or global standing is seen to be more important than reaching international standards of excellence or improving quality. Capacity building through international cooperation is being replaced by status building projects to gain world class recognition. International student mobility is now big business and becoming more closely aligned to recruitment of brains for national science and technology agendas. Some private and public education institutions are changing academic standards and transforming into visa factories in response to immigration priorities and revenue generation imperatives. More international academic projects and partnerships are*

> *becoming commercialized and profit driven as are international accreditation services. Diploma mills and rogue providers are selling bogus qualifications and causing havoc for international qualification recognition. Awarding two degrees from institutions located in different countries based on the workload for one degree is being promoted through some rather dubious double degree programs.*

In some way, such internationalisation as a way of responding to globalization is questionable. It is the responsibility of different countries to take measures against such practices. In South Africa the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and in Zimbabwe the Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education (ZICHE) assess how genuine foreign qualifications are.

Another form of change is what Smart (2011:14) calls "skilling up the national workforce". In this case the governments encourage outbound student mobility. The researcher cites China and Saudi Arabia as examples of nations that harness the demand for overseas education to the national agenda. One of the objectives given for the above motive is the 'soft diplomacy practice' where the intension is to let the world get to know Saudi Arabia or China through their students. In a way student migration is some form of establishing international relationships. At the same time the practice is an attempt to reverse the brain drain by encouraging overseas education, and then attract the graduates back home so that their experience abroad benefits the home country. However, luring graduates back home can be a massive challenge, especially in the case of developing countries, where a notable number of students migrate with the intention of settling in the host country. Smart (2011:14) cites India as an example of a country where students might not want to return home after studying abroad. Nevertheless, whatever motives the governments may have about student mobility, the result is growth in the process.

It can be concluded that it is evident that student mobility has changed from being an individual enterprise only, to incorporate the government and other stakeholders. Interests in student mobility by the governments vary, and the student is at the centre

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of the enterprise. The changes in international student migration have resulted in the process following particular trends.

2.3.3 Trends in student migration

The purpose of this section is to provide an understanding of the trends and issues related to international student migration. The flow of international students is becoming an increasing important aspect for both the 'sending' as well as the 'receiving' countries. The current study hopes that the comprehension of international trends in the movement of students would equally help to realise student migration in Zimbabwe, and its effect on higher education in that country. It is also hoped that an analysis of international student mobility would assist institutional leaders and administrators to make informed decisions, and effectively set priorities about student mobility.

It has been found that the flow of international students has grown steadily over the years. From what Mukherjee and Chanda (2012:11) say, the growth-rate is from 0.92 million in 1998 to more than 3.05 million in 2009. The authorities say that the growth since 2000, however, has not been consistent. They proclaim that the period between 2001 and 2002 witnessed the strongest rise in the flow of international students by over 16%. However, since 2004, there has been an overall slowdown as the flow in international students increased at an annual average rate of only 4%. A possible reason for this slowdown may have been the growing opportunities in the home country for internationally mobile students, resulting in a lesser demand for higher education abroad. Thus, the understanding is that student migration could be paradoxical where in its growth there is decline, a change which calls for the attention of the governments who seem to be more affected than the individual students. This may be because the students seem to prefer specific destinations and higher education systems, and even different modes of higher learning, such as e-learning. According to Teichler (2008:3), there are two types of student mobility trends, *vertical* mobility and *horizontal* mobility*. Vertical* mobility is the movement of students towards countries with an advanced economy and advanced levels of higher education. Mostly the movement is to study for a degree. In *horizontal* mobility there is equality of terms,

as what happens with the Erasmus form of student mobility. In this case the qualifications received in any of the member countries are all equal. Currently, *vertical* mobility is the dominant trend over the *horizontal* type. This is confirmed by the one-directional movement, such as from Asia to the U.S.A., the U.K. or Australia (perhaps the same for the movement of Zimbabwean students to South Africa). One of the reasons for this is that all the three countries are English-speaking. English is gaining ground as a mode of instruction in international higher education institutions. The other reason is that the countries have also managed to supply the massive high demand for international higher education students, especially for students from China and India (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:4). Another factor is that the three countries' marketing strategies target potential students, with their world-class facilities and financial incentives. The U.S.A. and Australia, for example, offer students employment after graduation, depending on the countries' skills requirements. This is the major reason why they manage to recruit more international students, and why such destinations are likely to be international students' first preference. In other words, the aspiration of a degree, the use of English, and varied marketing strategies all contribute to the growth in student migration.

Available information indicates that student mobility saw a dramatic rise in the 1990s and in the early 21st century (Fernandes, 2006:133; Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:1). More than 2.5 million university students are now estimated to be studying outside their own country (Maslen & Marshal, 2008:1). Murray et al., (2011:2) found the figure to be 3.3 million in the year 2010. Given these figures as a basis, it is evident that growth in the migration process of students cannot be denied. While the statistics of international students may slightly vary because of different sources used, the fact remains that international student migration is a reality that is on the increase. The process may have been negatively impacted by events such as the bombing of the World Trade Centre in America on the September 11, 2001 (9/11) and the world recession. However, there have been ways for the continuity in the student mobility process. The suggestion is that there are always ways around challenges, and that student migration cannot be deterred, and therefore continues to grow. This is why various reasons exist for the growth in student mobility.

2.3.3.1 Reasons for growth in student mobility

Several reasons for the growth in student mobility have been found. Murray et al., (2011:2) attribute part of the rise to the strong growth in the global demand for education, training and research. They also point out that in the post-industrial era, with the emergence of the knowledge economy, attitudes to higher education have changed considerably, and this has had a significant impact upon the movement of international students. Modern society requires people with the know-how of work. The knowledge economy means that an effective higher education system is integral to the success of the economy of a country's economy, as knowledge is essential to the country's economic advancement. Higher education can be said to be effective if it produces individuals who are productive in the economy of their society. This view is of special interest to governments who now view higher education as a resource to be traded on the market. Governments work in order to make sure that higher education in their countries sells at a profit through the attraction of international students. Students are attracted to destinations which offer them the type of knowledge that makes them fit into the economic society. This is one of the reasons why student migration continues to grow.

Market forces also play a role in higher education and in the growth of student mobility. Rizvi (2010:5) points out that since the mid-1980s student mobility has been increasingly driven by trends of a market model, often informed by neo-liberalism assumptions (cf. 2.7.5). Maringe and Foskett (2010:22) explain that *neo-liberalism* is all about freeing the trade between countries so that trade relations operate on the basis of free-market principles. Since it is people who decide on free-markets, possibility of manipulation by those persons cannot be ruled out completely. Maringe and Foskett (2010:22) say that the manipulation of major decisions in the education market lies in some systems such as the World Trade Organisation (WTO), the Organisation for Economic and Cultural Development (OECD), the World Bank (WB), and the United Nations Educational, and Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). The market influences check the mobility drive in individual students. The student choices of a study destination lean towards the power organisations that have influence over the major resolutions. For example, the placing of education as a

marketable commodity under the General Agreement on Trade in Service (GATS) is a creation of the above controlling organizations (Portnoi et al., 2010:238). The GATS allows marketing and trade in education, and this encourages student migration because institutions market themselves. In response to the promotion of trade in education, students enrol at these universities and pay the fees, which are usually very high, so that they may receive higher education.

Following the marketing of education, student migration has been justified as both a manifestation of, and a reaction to, the present-day courses of globalization (Rizvi, 2010:5). Globalization has been hastened by the developments in technology, and it is this expertise that has influenced individual students to indicate their desire for knowledge. The response to this yearning shows itself in migration to where they believe that they can acquire the best and most beneficial of this knowledge. In other words, technology has made information on higher education and on universities readily accessible; an encouragement for those who intend to migrate.

Murray et al., (2011:2) indicate that another trend in student mobility is in the manner in which the rate of growth and distribution of higher education relates to host and sender countries. The researchers say that this dimension is of significant interest to both the government and policymakers and individual higher education institutions alike because of their economic and diplomatic interests. The argument rests on the fact that the government and policymakers of the host and sender countries may link student mobility to strategic interests and some disagreement issues, which may have nothing to do with education. The understanding here is that a country's hosting of international students is not always for humanitarian purposes, but for something that is of benefit to it. In such cases the government finds ways of promoting student mobility. Likewise, it can be asked whether one of the reasons why South Africa hosts students from the Southern African Developing Community (SADC), is that South Africa is doing its duty, namely to help curb the brain drain from the continent, still holds true.

In some cases in developed countries the governments have been allocating funds to higher education to improve the quantity and quality of students in these countries (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:1; Teichler, 2007:2) with the belief that the higher the

number of international students on the campus, the more internationalised the institution is. On the other hand, the belief is that quality education either naturally attracts international students or it is an added advantage when marketing the institution. The moves suggested above complement each other in that the improved higher education is worthy of being advertised and it usually attracts bright international students who are likely to raise the standards of higher education. At the same time the efforts encourage growth in student migration.

On a different note, individual higher education institutions work to attract international students for various reasons. Either they want to be higher on the ranking of their institutions, or if they are in the for-profit category they would do it for financial benefits. The main implication here is that institutions' interest for international students is more for benefiting the institutions themselves. In a way global mobility places the student in a strategic position in the global labour market. The connotation is that current student mobility seems to be more of a question of interest for some parties involved than for education in its own entity. The interested parties are, namely the students who migrate in the hope of later getting a rewarding job, the parents and families who pay for the students in the hope of enjoying the fame the other member is presumed to acquire, the governments who promote the student migration process in various ways (depending on whether they are sending or hosting), and the private higher education provider who usually falls into the for-profit category. In a way student mobility is linked to a country's economy. All the same, depending on whatever the views given, international student migration is an on-going process, and it is on the rise (*The Wikipedia* (2014) on *Student Migration*).

2.3.3.2 The magnitude in student migration

There is evidence that international student mobility is on the rise. Basing their argument on the Organisation for Economic and Cultural Development (OECD) statistics, Verbik and Lasanowski (2007:1) point out that traditionally more than 70% of international students are enrolled in institutions in the U.S., the U.K., Germany, France and Australia. At the same time, Roberts (2009:21) bases his observation on

the UNESCO and the OECD findings on the enrolment of international students. Expectations from both sources are that the growth in the number of foreign students is on the rise. The above observations are supported by Teichler (2008:3), who indicates that the total number of foreign students world-wide was about 200 000 in the mid-1950s, about 500 000 in 1970, 1.2 million in 1987, and moved towards 2 million in the late 1990s. The above information confirms the observation that student migration is not only an on-going trend, but it is also a growing process. The rising numbers specifically confirm the growth in this process.

Another comparison of the current trend of the rise in international student migration is given by King, Findley and Ahrens (2010:10), who weigh the development against that of international migration. They based their comparison on the data from the OECD, and came to the conclusion that international student migration has been rising considerably faster over the last three decades than the total international migration. These authorities say the differential has become increasingly marked in recent years. The cited example is the 52% international student migration growth over the period 1998-2004, compared to a growth of 13% over the same period. The observation is that in the general international migration the largest group is that of higher education student migration. Thus, the rate at which student mobility is rising is exceedingly high.

Further evidence of the growth of international student migration is reflected in the table below, which is adapted from a study by King et al., (2010:10). The table shows the top-ten countries of origin for the four mid-decade points between 1975 and 2005. It indicates the changing characteristics of the trend, as well as the rapidly increasing scale of student mobility. Key features of this layout are the rapid rise of the developing world, especially China and India, and also more industrialized Asian countries such as Japan and South Korea, and the relative decline of the U.S. and the U.K. (King et al., 2010:10).

Table 2.1: The origin of international students of the top ten countries between 1975 and 2005

1975		1985		1995		2005	
Country	No.	Country	No.	Country	No.	Country	No.
Iran	33 021	China	42 481	China	115 871	China	343 126
US	29 414	Iran	41 083	South Korea	69 736	India	123 559
Greece	23 363	Malaysia	40 493	Japan	62 324	South Korea	95 885
Hong Kong	21 059	Greece	34 086	Germany	45 432	Japan	60 424
China	17 201	Morocco	33 094	Greece	43 941	Germany	56 410
U.K.	16 866	Jordan	24 285	Malaysia	41 159	France	53 350
Nigeria	16 348	Hong Kong	23 657	India	39 626	Turkey	52 048
Malaysia	16 162	South Korea	22 468	Turkey	37 629	Morocco	51 503
India	14 805	Germany	22 424	Italy	36 515	Greece	49 631
Canada	12 664	US	19 707	Hong Kong	35 141	U.S.	41 181

Source: King, Findley & Ahrens (2010:10).

The above table summarizes the magnitude of international student mobility. It shows the rise in numbers in some countries of origin and the decline in the traditional destinations between 1975 and 2005. A clear example is that of China whose statistics are 17 201, 42 481, 115 871 and 343 126 respectively. In other words the table confirms the observation that student migration is on the rise and also that there is a shift in the phenomenon through the opening up of new study centres in other countries.

Among the identified reasons for the decline in international student migration are the four main ones, namely the post 9/11 climate whose impact is negatively felt in the U.S.A., the higher costs related with overseas study which is the problem of the U.S.A. and Australia, the increased competition in the market which concerns all the international destinations and the expansion of domestic capacity that has emerged in new hubs (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012:722-724; 731). In the above cases the decline may seem minimal and ignorable, but the impact is felt and it is a challenge to the affected regions. This explains the notion that the effects of student migration are not felt immediately. It is probable that some U.S.A. colleges are likely to feel the gap left where international students had been contributing by paying fees.

After the 9/11 attack, the U.S.A. is said to have responded by introducing strict visa measures to control the in-flow of foreigners into the country. The students intending to migrate saw the U.S.A. as unwelcoming and turned to other destinations for study. Similarly, the U.K. also introduced stringent visa programmes. The intention was to check on bogus students. In both cases the impact is negative through the loss of significant numbers of international students (Choudaha & Chang, 2012:9). One disadvantage of doubling the visa application fees is that the countries concerned may lose some qualified students who had intended to migrate into the country. Prospective students possibly turn elsewhere as they cannot afford the expensive destinations. Coupling with expensive visas are the higher fees for international students to those paid by local students. The implication is that studying outside ones country, especially studying in the traditional destinations, is expensive. Travelling expenses add on to the costs. Consequently considering these deterrents; decisions taken after 9/11, the hike in study visa fees, the double study fees and high travelling expenses, students are likely to be attracted to new and more affordable destinations for higher education.

The new visa programmes do not always work out quite well for the countries that implement them (Chiriliuc, 2010:1). With the popular destinations such as the U.K. and the U.S.A. who are competitive, expensive and for many, a great distance from home, marketing of higher education has encouraged students rather to consider alternative destinations. In a way, the increased competition in the market and the expansion of some universities' intake capacity has given students even a wider choice. The observation is significant in that it emphasises the fact that different world events affect international student migration. One of the results is the unforeseen negative effect for some destinations, such as loss of clients in the form of students. At the same time, home and emerging markets may gain popularity to some extent.

Choudaha and Chang (2012:5) write that trends in student mobility may also be affected by international recruitment practices. They say that this may depend on an understanding of student mobility patterns as student decision-making processes are complex and they are determined by several variables. Some of these variables

discussed above are the climate created by such decisions as the visas introduction in destination country, costs, competition on the market and change in the higher education at home. In relation to the above variables, it should be noted that policy change affects student mobility as well. The current research concurs with the above authorities that higher education institutions should be able to adapt to external factors influencing student migration in order not to affect their recruitments. There should be reliable ways of dealing with unexpected experiences without affecting the market.

Following the above challenges, it has been noted that the U.K., through the British Council, seems to have recognised the fundamental link between the globalisation of higher education and the advancement of economies (Murray et al., 2011:4). The same source acknowledges that global student mobility trends are changing, that there is a supply through expanding private provision, and that competition is becoming more aggressive. International student migration seems to be following changes related to economic advancement. This is why on the one hand students migrate in the hope of staying in the host countries should they get employment after graduation. On the other hand governments are concerned by the varied benefits associated with student mobility. Some governments are responding more positively to hosting international students than others, having seen the benefits that are associated with international student migration.

2.4   THE CONTEXT OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MIGRATION

In this section the researcher discusses the circumstances surrounding the most popular destinations in international student mobility. Following the observation in the changes that affect student mobility, the current study presents the context of international student migration. The discussion is in the form of a general overview of the three major host countries, namely the United States of America (U.S.A.), the United Kingdom (U.K.) and Australia. In the section will also be discussed the emerging hubs in higher education, namely Asia and the Middle East, and how these hubs impact on student mobility in the traditional destinations.

Maslen and Marshal (2008:1) remarked that an estimated 2.5 million university students are now studying outside their home countries. The researchers indicate that the number points to a 70% increase in the past decade, and seem to be growing. Verbik and Lasanowski (2007:1) refer to the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) which show that the number of international students increased to 3.4 million in 2009, up from 2.1 million in 2002. The researchers are of the opinion that international student migration has over the years become an increasingly important part of the global higher education landscape. The growth-rate implies this importance. At the same time the rising of the numbers with the progression of the years is a suggestion of how both the students and the host countries demonstrate high interest in mobility for the sake of higher education.

One of the circumstances under which international student mobility operates is that in many countries there is lack of accurate internationally comparable and comprehensive data. Different countries use different criterion such as nationality and citizenship to identify international students (Maringe & Foskett, 2010:112; Altbach, Reinsberg & Rumbley, 2009:8; Kelo, Teichler & Wächer, 2006:2). This is because the term *international student* carries different definitions in different countries. Therefore, there cannot be uniformity in the reference to the term. Despite these irregularities, the international mobility of students has considerably gained in prevalence as a policy in Europe over the last decades. The promotion of internationalisation in general and of international mobility in particular, has come to be regarded as important elements of higher education policy (Kelo et al., 2006:3). This promotion of internationalisation and international mobility further confirms the fact that student mobility is no longer an individual enterprise, but different stake-holders have taken interest into it.

The following table shows the top ten country destinations in international student mobility in 2004 and 2007. The main destinations have been the U.S., the U.K., France and Australia with the U.S., the U.K. and Australia being the major players (Kelo et al., 2006:3; Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:11).

Table 2.2: The top ten host countries for international students: global total and U.K. - origin students, 2004 and 2007

International students from all over, 2004		U.K. international students, 2004		U.K. international students, 2007	
U.S.	572 509	U.S.	8 439	U.S.	8 625
U.K.	300 056	France	2 611	France	2 595
Germany	260 314	Ireland	2 165	Ireland	2 282
France	237 587	Germany	2 154	Germany	1 854
Australia	166 955	Australia	1 652	Australia	1 687
Canada	132 982	Denmark	1 432	Denmark	1 485
Japan	117 903	Canada	781	Canada	636
Russia	75 786	Netherlands	590	Spain	447
New Zealand	68 904	Japan	403	New Zealand	431
Belgium	44 304	New Zealand	378	Czech Rep.	405

Source: King, Findlay & Ahrens, (2010:12)

The above table indicates how, in general, the number of students has been growing. The table also reveals how the most popular destinations, namely the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia have seen a marked increase in the number of international students. The results show the general belief that student migration is on the increase.

Student migration has been growing mainly in most of the destinations that use English as the medium of instruction and course delivery. The main English speaking destination countries (MESDCs) are the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia. English is also becoming the main language of instruction in higher education internationally. The emerging hubs, such as China and the Middle East, are introducing English as an additional medium of instruction as a way of attracting international students (Portnoi et al., 2010:236). Thus, the issue of language has become very important in student mobility, namely that students intend to study and later work in environments where communication is possible.

The major source countries or main markets for international students for the MESDCs are China and India. Not only have these countries been providing a large number of enrolments each year to all traditional destinations, but now they also do so to some new destinations. One of the reasons why a large number of Chinese and Indian nationals migrate for higher education is that the economies of these countries are growing rapidly. The growth of the economy has enabled households with higher levels of wealth to participate in higher education abroad, because they can afford to pay the high fees and other expenses associated with some of these destinations (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:1). The above view suggests how student mobility is beginning to promote social inequality. The process implies that international higher education is only for those who can afford it, because it is expensive. For example, India is well-known for its poverty, yet a great number of its population is educated outside the country. The reason why the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia are the key players in international student recruitment is that all three host the largest numbers of students from China and India, which are the world's two most prominent source countries, and they constitute the largest percentage of international students in the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia. The larger the numbers, the more prominent a host country becomes.

Finally, the World Education Review of October 2007 reports that education providers in the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia have developed impressive marketing strategies to target potential students. In addition to the opportunity of studying in English, the U.S.A. and Australia often offer substantial financial incentives to students, which give them an added advantage as a choice destination for migrant students, a move which is likely to make them remain at the top of the host nations in an increasingly competitive market.

2.4.1 Student migration to the U.S.A.

The U.S.A. hosts more international students than any other country in the world (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:4; Maslen & Marshall, 2008:1; Motivans, 2009:1; Fohrbeck, 2010:8). The other competing countries are the U.K., Australia and Canada.

The table below, adapted from Choudaha (2012(b):7), is an indicator of how far the U.S.A led the other three countries above between 2003 and 2010. While differences may emerge because definition of study levels come from two different sources, the observation remains that the U.S. leads as a host in international students.

Table 2.3: The number and percentages of International Students in Total Enrolment, by Hosting Countries, 2002-2009

Ending year of the academic calendar		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Number of international students	Country								
600 000								624 447 3%	660 581 3%
500 000	U.S.A.	582 996 4%	586 316 4%	572 509 3%	590 158 3%	584 719 3%	595 874 3%		
400 000					318 399 14%	330 578 14%	351 470 15%	341 791 15%	368 968 15%
300 000				300 056 13%					
200 000	U.K.	227 273 10%	255 233 11%						
							211 526 20%	230 635 21%	257 637 21%
	Australia	179 619 18%	188 160 19%	166 954 17%	177 034 17%	184 710 18%			
100 000	Canada	52 650 6%	60 027 6%	70 191 7%	76 482 7%	80 874 8%	81 825 8%	84 039 8%	87 798 8%

Source: Adapted from Choudaha & Chang: (2012:7)

Verbik and Lasanowski (2007:4) say that in 2006 the country had close to 565 000 international students, with Asia being the strongest source. Other source countries with notable numbers in the U.S.A. are Canada and Mexico. The U.S.A.'s draw of many of its students from one area is both an advantage and a disadvantage. It is an advantage in that the U.S.A. would associate and deal with people of the same nationality and from the same places and interaction with such people is easier. On the other hand it is a disadvantage to rely on a single source because, should policy and conditions change, the U.S.A. would be drastically affected by losing significant

numbers of students as the country's experience was with 9/11. This experience is discussed later in this chapter.

2.4.1.1 The growth in international students in the U.S.A.

The ranking of institutions is one of the important determinants in the students' choice of where to study. Harvey (2008:2) and O'Leary (2012:1) observed that the number of international students to the U.S.A. is on a seemingly unstoppable rise, and those students who are seeking overseas education target the leading universities. O'Leary (2012:1) indicates that the most recent rankings show a 10% growth in international student numbers at the top 100 universities. The Massachusetts Institution of Technology (MIT) is the new leader in the ranking of the institutions of higher learning. O'Leary's (2012:1) finding leads to the following discussion justifying why the U.S.A. is the leader in the world top universities, hence the world's number one host of international students.

The U.S.A. has 'world-class' institutions (Ortega & Aguillo, 2009:1; Sedghi & Burn-Murdoch, 2013).   The authors point out that the use of the World Wide Web (www, or simply 'Web') promotes the ranking of institutions of higher learning, and develops the academic, scientific and educational competencies of universities. It is the Web that promotes student migration to the U.S.A., because the Web too attracts students from around the globe.

The following table is adapted from Ortega and Aguillo (2009:1). The table shows the frequency distribution by country of the top 1 000 universities.

Table 2.4: The distribution of universities by country (first 15)

Countries	Universities	%
United States	369	36.9
United Kingdom	68	6.8
Germany	66	6.6
France	50	5
Spain	41	4.1
Canada	39	3.9
Japan	35	3.5
Italy	34	3.4
Australia	30	3
China	17	1.7
Taiwan	17	1.7
Sweden	15	1.5
Brazil	14	1.4
The Netherlands	13	1.3
Finland	12	1.2
Rest of the World	180	18
TOTAL	1 000	100

Source: Ortega & Aguillo (2009:1)

The information in the table shows the U.S.A. dominating in the world class universities, followed by the U.K. and Germany. As Ortega and Aguillo (2009:1) say, this is what attracts international students accordingly. Studying in one of the top universities especially in the U.S.A. assures students of employment after their studies. Prestige has provoked fierce competition among universities to achieve advantageous visibility on the Web.

The U.S.A. is a huge country, and its size gives it the potential to host a larger number of international students, as compared to other popular destinations. The country, with as many as 17 universities in the top 20 world rank, has more universities and other institutions of higher learning compared to other countries (*Times Higher Education University Ranking,* 2013-2014). A report in *Education Today* (2013:63) shows the 2010 distribution of international students with the U.S.A. hosting the highest percentage (16.6%). This also contributes to making the country the most popular destination for international students because of the large numbers of international students who can be accommodated at a given time. The U.S.A.'s education system is recognised internationally because of its provision of quality and

its high brand which is visible on the international market. Although education in the U.S.A. is very expensive, those who seek it are confident that it is worth investing in (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:5).

The new visa policy in the U.K. is likely to be an advantage for the U.S.A. as students are now more likely to be drawn to the U.S.A. The new visa policy can be compared to how the U.K. gained over the U.S.A. after the 9/11 attack (Choudaha, 2012(a):12). The U.K.'s intention to close the post-study curriculum from April 2012, a programme which has been attracting a number of students from non-English speaking countries, makes the U.K. considerably less appealing as a place to work after completing one's studies (The British Council, 2011:26). The other decision made by the U.K. is the doubling of the visa application fees for people intending to study in that country. Potential students are likely to prefer the U.S.A. because the U.K. has become more expensive.

The U.S.A. is one of the destinations considered to be less restrictive in respect of job opportunities after graduation in comparison with the U.K.; thus, international students are likely to migrate to the former rather than to the latter for higher education.   In the U.S.A. the students may stay in the country for up to a year after the completion of their studies. If they find a job in the country's critical areas they automatically obtain a work permit (The British Council, 2011:26).

It can therefore be said that the U.S.A. has a considerable number of advantages as a destination for international student migration. It, though, should be taken into consideration that as much as the U.S.A. is the world leader in hosting international students, there are challenges that the country needs to face in order for the process to be a complete success. Some of these are discussed in the following section.

2. 4.1.2 Factors affecting the mobility of international students to the U.S.A.

Research indicates that the U.S.A. has had to face a number of challenges in hosting international students. Between 1999 and 2005 the U.S.A. experienced a comparative

weak growth in international student enrolments. Part of the reason is that after the 9/11 attack, the U.S.A. toughened its visa and immigration requirements under the Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reforms Act of 2002 (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:5; Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:12). The above sources also indicate that a large number of applicants were turned away. This gave the impression that the U.S.A. had become less welcome. The stringent policies implemented by the U.S.A. in 2002-2003 caused a decline in the applications and issuances of visas. Stricter policies towards a country like China, which forms the largest proportion of the international students in the U.S.A., impacts negatively on the host country. The decline in the number of international students implies a decrease in the advantages that come with the hosting of international students.

The British Council (2011:21) further explains that after the relaxation of the policies on Chinese students in 2005, the proportion of Chinese students entering the U.S.A. witnessed an increase. Though the policies were introduced to strengthen the safety and security of American citizens post the 9/11 attack, these measures reduced the number of international students considerably between 2002 and 2004, suggesting the sensitivity of foreign students towards the policy changes. Stakeholders in higher education intervened, and the government responded by easing the requirements. The reaction by the international students, specifically visible in the Chinese students to the U.S.A., is a clear indication that international student mobility was directly affected by the policy change. The U.S.A. tightened its policies and the number of student entry into the country declined. When the policy was relaxed the number of students escalated again. In other words, the climate of a destination country influences the response of the prospective migrant students.

Another reason for the decline in the numbers of international students is the fact that the U.S.A. has the most costly higher education fees in the world (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:31). Like the other two leading English-speaking destinations, the U.K. and Australia, the U.S.A. charges higher fees from foreign students. Verbik and Lasanowski (2007:31) give the example of a Business and Management programme which costs approximately US$21 800 at the U.K.'s Oxford University and more than US$31 450 at the U.S.-based Harvard University. In contrast, the same degree costs

less than US$4 500 at China's Shanghai Jiaotong University and the National University of Singapore, and less than US$2,000 at the University of Malaya in Malaysia. The above figures confirm the fact that higher education in the U.S.A. is expensive. Students interested in studying in the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia end up paying much more than students in emerging destinations such as Malaysia and China. As much as students value international higher education, they eventually consider other destinations where higher education is more affordable.

Verbik and Lasanowski (2007:31) point to the new markets that have opened up elsewhere, resulting in competition for international students. Destinations such as Canada and Japan have come up with affordable solutions. Then there are other emerging hubs such as Malaysia, Singapore and China. Their costs are low, which is very attractive to prospective international students. Although these new markets are still small compared to the size of the U.S.A., they are probably to have an impact on the education of the United States. The impact is likely to be in respect of the number of students to be shared. Therefore, the U.S.A. needs to consider the influence the new destinations might have.

At the same time, another setback for the U.S.A. is that students are not allowed to stay in the U.S.A. upon the completion of their courses, unless they fall under special categories where their services are required. This policy also negatively impacts on the international student enrolment. Many students, especially those from the U.S.A.'s major and traditional markets, have the intention of staying in the host country after attaining their degrees. The policy may thus impact negatively on the U.S.A. by reducing the number of students who might want to study in the country. Close to the cost factor is the distance. This equally impacts on the U.S.A.'s recruitment of international students seeing that a number of students, especially from the traditional markets, now find it very expensive to travel all the way to the U.S.A. from their home countries. They end up looking for alternative destinations which are closer to home, but which have an international dimension alternative (Choudaha & Chang, 2012:6).

It can be concluded that despite the popularity of the U.S.A. as a destination for international students, some of this country's policies have had a negative influence, and prospective students revert to other destinations. This gives the impression that, to some extent, as much as the policies are intended for the good of a country, they eventually have undesirable outcomes.

2.4.1.3 Trends in international student enrolment in the U.S.A.

The enrolment trends of international students in the U.S.A. can be looked at from four aspects, namely source countries, destination states, enrolment by academic levels and recruitment practices (Choudaha & Chang, 2012:9). It is also documented that in 2009, there were more than 675 000 international students enrolled in the U.S.A. higher education or in post-secondary institutions (Fohrbeck, 2010:8). The above researchers show that the number of international students has been growing consistently.

This section of the study, on the enrolment trends in the U.S.A., is by means of a discussion of the country's markets for international students, factors that are likely to affect the enrolment patterns, factors likely to affect enrolment shifts, and recruitment practices.

2.4.1.3(a) The U.S.A.'s sources of international students

The greatest yields of international students in the U.S.A. are from China and India. Choudaha and Chang (2012:9) refer to the Institution of International Education (IIE Open Doors, 2011) which shows that the two countries contributed 84% of all increases in all the international student enrolments between 2000-1 and 2010-11. The two countries are large in size, and they are also highly represented in the number of international students. Of the two countries, China is more active in student mobility. The major 'push' factor for China is that the country cannot meet the demand from undergraduate systems that have expanded. The country has not been able to absorb all the students who are graduating in high school. Some of these students

who cannot be accommodated at the local universities, but can afford the high fees, eventually migrate to the U.S.A. for higher education (Sidhu, 2011:3; Mukherjee, 2012:8). Others migrate to the country, regardless of opportunities in higher education at home. It can therefore be said that the quest for quality higher education is one of the drives for Chinese students to the U.S.A.

Just like China, India is large, and yet its higher education system cannot absorb all the students graduating from high school. The number of students from India to the U.S.A. has decreased, probably due to the residual effect of the recession. However, the U.S.A. is enrolling international students from other emerging countries which include Saudi Arabia, Vietnam, Mexico and Brazil. Research indicates that in 2011 of the 723 277 international students studying in the U.S.A. 13 713 (approximately 1.89%) were from Mexico. This makes Mexico the ninth largest source of the U.S.A.'s international students. Most of these students receive financial assistance from different organizations to further their studies in the U.S.A. While it gives the impression of an achievement for Mexico to be ranked in the top ten countries which send students to the U.S.A., the latter benefits both from the loans paid in fees for the students, and also from the large numbers of international students. While the loans benefit especially the institutions attended by the students, the large numbers of Mexican students contribute to making the U.S.A. the leading and most popular destination in student migration (*International Student Loans,* 2011-2012).

According to Downie (2011:1), in 2011 Brazil, a giant in South America with a population of 200 million, had a student population of only 9 000 studying in the U.S.A. as compared to China which had 127 000, and India 100 000. The situation was expected to change with the government's new major programme that aimed to award 75 000 scholarships for students to attend the world's top universities to study mathematics, engineering, science and technology. Brazil was one of the Latin American countries aiming at sending its best and brightest students to universities such as Harvard and Stanford. With the presidents of the U.S.A. and of Brazil agreeing to work more closely on vital educational issues, the U.S.A. institutions of higher learning were set to enrol half of the grant winners (Downie, 2011:1). The U.S.A.'s cultivation of Brazil was a de-risking strategy, by focusing on one of the new

markets and not necessarily relying completely on China and India. Policy formulation and implementation in Brazil contributed to the U.S.A.'s dominance as a host for international students. Both the governments of the U.S.A. and of Brazil were promoting Brazilian student migration, though for different reasons.

The *Tuoitrenews* (2011) reports that Vietnam is currently 8th among all the countries sending students to the U.S.A. Basing its information on the Institution of International Education (IIE), in the *Tuoitrenews* (November 16, 2011), it is reported that Vietnam has surged up twelve notches since 2006-07, when it stood at number 20. The majority of the students (74.2%) are at undergraduate level. It has also been observed that a trend of steady growth in the Vietnamese student migration to the U.S.A. began in the 1990s. The newspaper reports that the trend has been escalating with double digits ever since, and total number stands at 723 277, just the cumulative number of students from Mexico. On the other hand, the *Look At Vietnam* (November 22, 2009) reports that some U.S.A. campuses have been seeing declines in the number of international students, citing reasons such as the students' concerns about the H1N1 virus, and various effects of the current economic conditions, a suggestion which was later disputed. The choice of the U.S.A. as a study destination by Vietnamese students confirms the former country's popularity with migrant students. By boosting the number of international students, Vietnam contributes to the U.S.A.'s lead, making it a giant in the number of international students. The rise in numbers in the U.S.A. comes with other benefits, such as firm, financial benefits and international political influence. The U.S.A.'s educational power is felt not only in China and India, her major markets, but also in the international nooks and pockets.

The Fulbright Program, though offering opportunities for degree programmes, scholarly research and lecturing in the U.S.A. for qualified graduate students and faculty members, boosts the number of students who come to the country for study purposes. Most grants are offered in conjunction with Brazilian partners. The important observation here is that the U.S.A. is diversifying its market (*Institute of International Education,* 2011:24-26).

2.4.1.3(b) Factors likely to affect enrolment shifts

There is a possibly of reduction in the number of international students to the U.S.A from its traditional markets, China and India. Roberts (2009:25), Sidhu (2008:11) and Bhandari (2009:26) indicate that the expanded capacity in the home countries' higher education sectors of China and India is likely to affect enrolments. The above researchers point out those domestic shifts, such as in respect of the political, economic, social and educational aspects, impact negatively on the country. The shifts act as drivers into migration for education. New developments always take time, and the U.S.A. is likely to enjoy the Chinese and Indian markets for a long time. Another observation is that there now exist transnational education and alternative modes of educational delivery as used by the students, and they may not necessarily migrate physically. These students would take up international education, but still at home.

Finally, the fact that other countries have increased their recruitment is to be considered seriously. Becker & Kolster, (2012:42-46) cite countries which have come up with national policy strategies for international student recruitment. Such a move has resulted in the emerging hubs which are beginning to share student markets. Thus the period of sole monopoly on traditional markets is facing some change and the U.S.A. needs to face this challenge.

2.4.1.3(c) Enrolment by academic levels

The number of international students at Bachelor level is increasing and currently constitutes one third of all international students in the U.S.A. International students at Bachelor level are self-funded so they provide more revenue as compared to the Master's programmes which are institution aided. What it implies is that institutions attempt to enrol as many Bachelor students as possible. These trends are considered as part of the solution to the fiscal challenges faced by some colleges. Enrolment by academic level have a link to the international students from Asia to the U.S.A. in that the accelerated urbanization and economic development in Asia has resulted in a large number of households affording to pay for their children to study at the destination of their choice. The improvement of the economy in Asia has

given the U.S.A. greater chances of higher recruitment from the Asian region (Choudaha & Chang, 2012:13).

The following table helps confirm the rising trends at Bachelor level. The table shows the number of active international students at that level in the U.S.A. for the 2010-2011 era. The table also implies that the trend is likely to continue.

Table 2.5: Active international students at various levels – U.S.A.

Level of study	2010	2011	Change of 2010/2011
Associate	76 616	74 175	-3.19%
Bachelor	240 282	268 182	11.61%
Master	198 792	209 369	5.32%
Doctorate	120 511	123 839	2.76%
Language training	84 529	95 015	12.41%
Secondary	33 809	39 109	15.68%

Source: Adapted from Choudaha & Chang (2012:13).

The above table indicates that the number of students at bachelor level is the highest. This is so, when considering the percentages of students in higher education. The findings in this table confirm the view that most international students are enrolled for the first degree.

Saudi Arabia presents another example where recruitment trends by academic levels has shown a significant rise in the number of students in the U.S.A. for the period 2010-2011 (Choudaha & Chang, 2012:12). The researcher also suggests that the rise can be attributed to the Saudi Arabian government's commitment to sending students abroad, as pointed out before in this chapter, namely that one of the intentions is to make the world see Saudi Arabia through its students (cf. 2.3.2). However, the observation remains that the student numbers are the highest at bachelor level.

2.4.1.3(d) Recruitment practices

Although the U.S.A. is a very large country, the number of international students enrolled in its higher education is relatively low. Roberts (2009:22) expresses the

above view and indicates that the 623 805 international students in the U.S.A. comprise less than 4% of the total U.S. higher education enrolment. The above researcher also says that only 153 institutions in the U.S.A. host 55% of all the international students. He compares the number with other international destinations. The comparison is presented below in the form of a graph. The graph indicates the total percentages of international enrolments in the five leading countries in the year 2007. In other words, the graph shows how low the U.S.A.'s international student enrolment is, and the researcher emphasises the view that it is more the country's size that makes it the leader, than as a destination for student mobility.
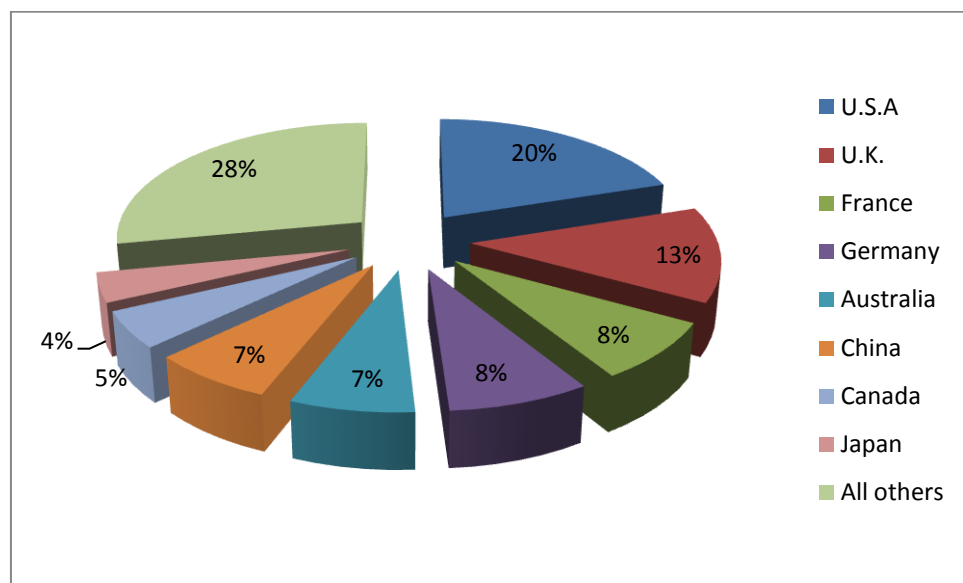
Figure 2.1: Global share of international students

Source: Adapted from Roberts (2009:22).

The U.S.A. has the opportunity to make use of its attractive brand. The U.S.A. is the leader in respect of top/world-class universities, such as the Stanford, Brown, Yale and Harvard universities. The U.S.A. can then use recruitment models such as service providers, the social media, alumni engagements, and state consortia-marketing in the recruitment of international students.

Unlike the U.K., Australia, Germany and France, the U.S. lacks a coordinated national strategy in recruiting international students. For example, the U.K. and other European countries have the ERASMUS programme for coordinating the recruitment of international students. Yet, in the U.S.A. institutions recruit individually (Fohrbeck, 2010:11). Individual effort usually has less of an impact compared to group-effort. Thus, institutions can make use of recruitment agents who would bring quick results (Murray et al., 2011:6). However, it should be taken into consideration that agents usually make a quick service at the expense of quality. The compromise of quality would be costly on institutional brand. There would be no guarantee for institutions to know their applicants, or the veracity of their grades and scores. Thus, institutions would need to undertake adequate measures to mitigate risk.

Information dissemination through the social media offers a more credible and cost-effective connectivity with prospective students (Fohrbeck, 2010:11; Murray et al., 2011:6). The advantages of the social media are that it is relevant, fast, and the costs are minimal. The social media is also personalized, a move which attracts individual students to specific institutions.

Students usually trust information acquired by means of word-of-mouth. Thus international alumni are excellent resources in student recruitment through referral. The social media finds a way to reconnect 'lost' students to institutions where they studied before, and prospective students usually trust information from 'those who have been there before'. However, the choice of the mode of the media to use would determine whether the information reaches the required destination. People do not always use the same type of media. One type of media choice may not reach the targeted audience it is intended for (Becker & Kolster, 2012:34-36; cf. 2.6).

Choudaha and Chang (2012:16) agree with Fohrbeck (2010:11) in respect of collaborative markets. The former indicates that groups of states are coming together in the U.S. as an out-reach effort to recruit international students. Choudaha and Chang (2012:16) gives the example of Ohio, currently the 8th largest host state which saw a 10.55% increase in international enrolment from 2009-10 through the collaboration of its institutions of higher learning. Some of the growth is attributed to recruitment strategies and marketing campaigns employed at state level. One of the

advantages of pooling resources and efforts is that it is cost effective, and enables even smaller or lesser-known colleges to reach students around the world. However, it should be taken into consideration that the exercise calls for commitment upon the parties involved if it is to be successful. State consortia marketing relies upon the trust of the institutions involved.

It is important to note the emerging destination states in the U.S.A. which mark an attempt to expansion in student mobility. Traditional study destinations are California, New York, Texas, Massachusetts, Washington DC and Illinois. These destinations continue to be the most popular destinations for international students (Choudaha & Chang, 2012:11).

The new destinations are Delaware, Oregon, Arkansas, Alaska and South Dakota (Portnoi et al., 2010:236). The shift is the result of a new generation of students who are considering a wider range of opportunities that might be found in the not so traditional host states. Some of the U.S. institutions are also contributing to the shift by proactively recruiting students. The upsurge of new destinations suggests a growth in student migration to the U.S.A.

2.4.1.3(e) Conclusion

Although the U.S.A.'s share of international students has declined over the past decade, the U.S.A. is likely to consolidate its leadership position due to the sheer size of its higher education and its ability to absorb international students at a higher rate compared to competitor countries. The country's world-class institutions of higher learning remain an attraction of quality education. The U.S.A., though, needs to take note of the challenges it faces, especially in respect of markets and recruitment policies in order to maintain its position at the top as a host in international student mobility.

2.4.2 Student migration to the U.K.

This section specifically focuses on the inbound students to the U.K., the trends of the students' inflow into the country, government policies relating to the migration, programmes that support student migration, the challenges that the U.K. faces in the process, and the predictions of student mobility. It is hoped that the U.K. experience, together with that of the other international destinations, would help to assess and shed light on the Zimbabwean situation, especially on the effect of student migration to South Africa on higher education in Zimbabwe.

The U.K. has been a popular destination for international students, and enrolments have been growing steadily (The British Council, 2011:17). Research (Fohrbeck, 2010:8) rates the U.K. as the second most popular higher education destination for overseas students. The country enjoys a 12% share of international students (Bohm, Follart, Hewett, Jones, Kemp, Mears, Pears & Van Cauter, 2008:66; King et al., 2010:1; Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:6;). It is also reported that in the 2005-6 academic year, more than 300 000 international students registered at U.K. institutions of higher learning. The above information confirms the U.K.'s popularity as a study destination. On the one hand students who come to the U.K. hope to gain through their education in the host country, while on the other hand the U.K. trades its higher education.

The economic benefits gained through trade in education have been a key motivation for the development of the U.K.'s policy to attract more international students (Fernandes, 2007:133). International students have been and are still contributing to making education contribute to the financial sector. In the U.K. education generated an estimate of £14.1 billion in 2008/9 (The British Council, 2011:17). The popularity of the U.K.'s higher education institutions benefits the country economically. The growth in the number of international students in the country's institutions of higher learning suggests the growth of the higher education sector through funds paid as fees.

Some trends seem to influence the mobility trends and the students' choice of the U.K. as a study destination. The next section explores some of these trends, and how they impact on the student mobility to the U.K.

2.4.2.1 Trends of student migration in the U.K.

Bohm et al., (2008:66) indicate that international education is at the centre of the U.K.'s knowledge economy and the nation's long-term wealth and prosperity. The researchers say that international education provides the U.K. with a dynamic, high-skill international and sustainable export industry that has far-reaching national implications. This section attempts to explore the trends, with the hope of understanding student migration in the U.K.

The U.K. is considered to have a healthy tradition of welcoming international students. This is because of its position in the European Union (E.U.) as a country that is highly advanced in higher education and the country's use of English as the language of instruction in universities. A major attraction for many E.U. students is the enhanced employability associated with an internationally recognised qualification from the U.K. where the English language has been used for teaching and assessment (Bohm et al., 2008:45). From the perspective that English seems to be taking a prominent place as the language of instruction in higher education, the U.K. is likely to maintain its position in the top three destinations in student migration.

The view that international education is at the centre of the U.K.'s knowledge economy and the nation's long-term wealth and prosperity is further supported by the launch what became known as the Prime Minister's Initiative (PMI) by Tony Blair, the then Prime Minister of the U.K. The aim of the initiative was to place the U.K. at the heart of the world's international student mobility, and to build long-term relationships with key economic allies. The PMI came up with changes which included strengthening the visa arrangements, reducing restrictions on working part-time, expanding the number of scholarships through the Chevening Scholarship Scheme, and launching the 'Education U.K.' brand. The above changes by the Prime Minister clearly support student migration. The changes are an open invitation to international students, providing a unified marketing message and displaying the British education process to its best advantage. Such changes ensure a more proactive and logical approach in an increasing competitive market. Like the U.S., the U.K. boasts world-class universities. Thus, its education brand aims at

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addressing the trade mark of the country. In other words, the U.K. aims to be a receptive country and welcoming to international students (Bohm et al., 2008:4).

Students often choose the country in which they would study first, and then select the institution to study in that country. That is why the branding exercise becomes important. This is further explained by Fernandes (2006:133) who says that the PMI set targets to increase the U.K.'s overall markets or sources of international students in order to increase the number of international students. Verbik and Lasanowski (2007:6) say that France, Germany, Greece, Italy and Spain have been sending a considerably high number of students to the U.K. The same source says that in 2007 students from these countries constituted 30% of the total enrolment of foreign students, an average of 64 200 students from these four countries, constituting more than 13% of the total enrolments (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:6). As Fernandes (2007:133) speaks, education is a great trade in the U.K. The statistics above suggests that the U.K. remains a popular destination for international students. The PMI is a success since it is not only students from the E.U., but also generally world-wide students who can afford to migrate to the U.K. Thus while the students themselves make efforts to migrate, destinations make even greater efforts to lure them, suggesting that students are also important to countries where they are accepted for higher education.

One of the reasons for the promotion of student mobility to the U.K. by the government is the question of desire to remain in control. The question of the U.K.'s control of higher education has some traces in that country's motive in the signing of the Sorbonne Declaration (Ravinet, 2005:18-19). According to the above author, the U.K. came in not because there was anything to lose, but because it wanted to "prevent" control of higher education by other nations. Historically the U.K. has had its power felt over many countries through colonialism. From another view, Shahjahan (2012:3) gives a brief overview of what is termed neoliberal higher education. The above authors' point of view shows how colonialism still holds sway on former colonies. In other words, the U.K. is still wielding power on its former colonies through higher education.

The question of the U.K.'s control in its former colonies discussed in the above paragraph continues in the post-colonial era where the U.K. still enjoys a world monopoly by maintaining global practices such as networks through people in power and influence and people who understand the U.K. These are the people who migrated to the U.K. for their education and later hold positions of influence in different parts of the world. Such people continue to be the U.K.'s way of influence indirectly because they tend to lead in the U.K.'s approach. The inspiration is propagated by the powerful alumni who act as the U.K.'s ambassadors. An example is that of the *British Council Bangladesh-U.K. Alumni Networking* (2015) under the British Council where interested people can register to become a member of official alumni. The alumni's word of mouth benefit the U.K.'s institutions of higher learning in that aspiring students trust the word of influential people and that of the people they know and would attempt to study in the same institutions attended by the alumni before. These students bring an international aspect that promotes the U.K.'s institutions of higher learning's quality and efficiency. The quality and efficiency are achieved through international competitiveness rather than trading domestically. The U.K. has spread its influence to sources beyond the former colonies through student migration.

2.4.2.1(a) Sources of international students in the U.K.

Bohm et al., (2008:36) state that Europe is currently the leading source region for international student places in higher education in the U.K. The above source also says that European students in the U.K. represented some 47% of the total global demand for the U.K. in 2003, compared to 23% overall in all the main English speaking destination countries (MESDCs). Although Bohm et al., (2008:36) forecast the decrease to 29% in 2020 they also say that the actual numbers are to grow by 1.5% annually to 146 000 in the same year, 2020. The major reason why the majority of the U.K.'s international students come from Europe is the impact of the Erasmus programme according to Bohm et al., (2008:36). The Erasmus programme (**EuR**opean **C**ommunity **A**ction **S**cheme for the **M**obility of **U**niversity **S**tudents) stems from the Sorbonne Declaration of May 25, 1998 which is followed up by the Bologna

declaration of June 19, 1999 (Bologna Declaration, 1999). The Erasmus programme offers students the possibility of starting higher education in one institution and then continue studying at another in the Euro zone Erasmus if the students wish. According to *Erasmus-Facts, Figures and Trends* (2010-2011:5) the U.K., which is a member state of the E.U., is one of the most popular destinations for student migration in the region because of its position as the English speaking country. Another reason for its popularity, according to the above source, is the attraction of its well established and world-class institutions of higher learning. The duration of the study of 3 to 12 months is long enough to enable a large turnover of students, promote cooperation between institutions and help enrich their educational environment, and to contribute to building a pool of well-qualified, open-minded and internationally experienced young people (Bohm et al., 2008:36*; Erasmus-Facts, Figures and Trends,* 2010-2011:5).

China and India are the major non-E.U. sources of international students (Verbik & Lasanowski 2007:6). The U.K.'s Higher Education Statistics Agency states that in 2005-6, there were 50 755 Chinese students and 19 205 Indian nationals studying in the U.K., representing about 24% of the country's total number of foreign students. The Chinese nationals' reasons for migrating to the U.K. are similar to those stated under the reasons for international students to the U.S.A., that China cannot meet the demand especially for undergraduate places (cf. 2.4.1.3(a)). The U.K. also gets a considerable number of students from Malaysia and Africa (Verbik & Lasanowski 2007:6).

A more than 10% per annum growth of international students from Mexico, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Brazil, Egypt, Uganda, Tanzania and Indonesia to the U.K. has been predicted (Bohm et al., 2008:36). The above source expresses that strong growth of greater than 10% per annum of international students comes from other countries, which including Mexico, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Brazil, Egypt, Uganda, Tanzania and Indonesia. The above information mirrors that the U.K.'s source of international students is wide, going beyond the E.U. Though the percentages of students from other countries may appear small, they are significant in that they reflect the U.K.'s influence in higher education internationally (Bohm et al., 2008:36).

However, there has been a notable decrease in the total number of international students in the U.K. The former providing countries, China, India and Nigeria, are said to now share just over 18% of the U.K.'s total overseas intake of students. The rise of the new providers of students from other Asian countries such as Malaysia, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka has corresponded with a considerable drop in the U.K.'s consistently performing sources (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:11; King, Findlay & Ahrens, 2010:2).

2.4.2.1 (b) Challenges

The unavailability of access to higher education in a country encourages students to migrate for university education. However, if a country were to step up its supply of higher education places and take in more of its local students, the demand for foreign higher education would be reduced. Bohm (2008:61) gives the example of China and India by saying that if the two countries were to suddenly increase the number of their local students, the impact would be felt in a country like the U.K. which usually has its highest numbers of international students from the two countries. At the same time there would be a reduction in rate of global demand for international study. This is a challenge which the U.K. needs to take into consideration and avoid over-reliance on the source for internal students.

Bohm et al., (2008:61) point out that pursued student enrolment plans by contenders of international students explain a slowdown in international students' choice of the U.K. as a study destination. This follows the view that while Australia has been launching campaigns to attract students from specific countries in Asia, the U.K. has not done the same. Instead, the numbers of Malaysians students into the U.K. have been declining. Similar to the U.K., the U.S.A. has witnessed dwindling registration of international students from fewer Taiwanese and Thai students. The reason for the decrease may be attributed to the effort by some Asian governments to raise the level of higher education in their countries to 'world-class' over the next decade through funding of higher education. Improvement in higher education in Asia, which has been a large source of international students for the U.K., would be a challenge

which the U.K. has to consider seriously if it is to maintain its position in the top three hosts of international students.

The U.K. has been reported to have experienced a drop in the number of E.U. member states students from 2006 (Bohm et al., 2008:45). The reason for the drop is linked to extra charges in study fees in the U.K. whose undergraduate programmes are currently suggested to be up to a maximum of £3 000 per annum. The affordability of higher education in the U.K. becomes a questionable factor if students now need to pay extra study fees. However, the E.U. students' relief is in the European countries' agreement that all E.U. countries are entitled to the same domestic fees. The drop in the number of international students affects the U.K.'s position as one of the major hosts of international students, at the same time making the country lose the money it would have benefited from through the students' fees (Bohm et al., 2008:45). That is why the U.K. has to keep the challenge under check.

2.4.2.1(c) The impact of visa changes

The U.K. made some changes for student visa applications and these came into effect on March 3, 2010. The British Council (2011:19) mentions the intention of the change was to make entry into the U.K. more possible for students from Europe. The changes included that applicants needed to be reasonably good in English even if they were coming to the U.K. to study English. The change affected those students who needed to first enrol for the short courses in English language in preparation for the main courses they were to study later on. Short term student visas for a period of less than twelve months doubled from £70 to £140 as from 2011 (The British Council, 2011:21). It would be expected that the U.K. should have learnt from the U.S.A. that stricter polices on countries like China lead to the decrease in the number of international students from the source. Chinese students form the largest group of international students in both the U.K. and the U.S.A. The policy changes by the U.K. government in 2010-2011 have made it difficult for the non-E.U. students to obtain a U.K. visa. The decision is likely to be the beginning of the downward trend of the number of the international students intending to study in the U.K. The

new visa policy change gives the impression that the U.K. is an unwelcoming country (British Council, 2011:19-21).

Some students require taking pre-university pathway courses. A career pathway is a series of connected educational programs and student supports that enable the non-traditional student to get the needed background to secure or advance in a demand industry *(Pathways to Success,* 2012:iv). The courses have always been either delivered at the campus by universities themselves or in partnership with private providers to prepare students on the path to a certificate or a degree. The courses are relevant to non-English speaking international students for they prepare them for their studies in English. One of the new visa conditions requires that students intending to study in the U.K. should have a certain standard in English, implying that the number of international students into the U.K. is likely to be reduced. Perhaps the group affected most by the new policy is that from the U.K.'s Asian market for students. Students from China require studying English first before embarking on their courses, but this is no longer possible because of the new British visa requirement (The British Council, 2011:24).

The U.K. introduced a tier system which categorises aspiring students into groups of the required and the not-required groups to study in that country. The U.K.'s major sources for international students such as China and India are the most affected since a significant number of students do not meet the requirements of the tier system. The international students annually contribute over £14 billion to the U.K. economy through fees and other charges (*Migration Watch U.K.*, 2012). The information is   based on a British Council forecast of future international student demand published in 2004. The tier system is likely to reduce the money contribution from international students' fees, given the U.K.'s new visa policy. The restriction on student entry into the U.K. through new visa regulations would discourage students from going to the U.K. and opt for a destination like Australia, for example.

The student visa policy changes have prompted concern that the U.K. might have major shortage of science and engineering skills in that country. In the U.K. universities, the stricter control of work consent rules are likely to cause recruitment difficulties at a time when other international students destinations are less strict in

order to augment their international academic and research profiles (The British Council, 2011:27). The situation calls for the U.K. to reconsider its new visa policy if it is to effectively remain in the lead of attracting large numbers of international students in the MESDC members.

2.4.2.2 Programmes supporting higher education in the U.K.

The prominent higher education programmes for the enrolment of international students in the U.K. are the Bologna Process and much later followed the Bologna-linked ERASMUS programmes designed to promote far greater student mobility first in Europe and later the rest of the world. Of these programmes, first is the Sorbonne Declaration, followed by the Bologna Declaration. The latter is succeeded by the Bologna Process. The Bologna Declaration builds on the Sorbonne Declaration on student mobility in order to increase international competitiveness of European higher education (European Commission, 2010-2011:5).

The Bologna Process is a revolutionary development by European governments attempting to bring higher education systems in line with each other. The attempt is also to harmonize them with a view to create a European Area of Higher Education. The Bologna Process was followed by the Bologna Declaration in 1999. The prime objective for the Declaration was the increase of student mobility. The four signatories (the U.K., Germany, Italy and France) renewed their commitment to the Bologna process and further reaching action to enhance mobility. Mobility aims at promoting employability, in essence an economic aim. The Bologna Process, which emanated from the Sorbonne Declaration (signed in 1998) which is the 'parent' of the Bologna Process, expressed the desire to enhance intra-Europe's mobility (43 countries at the time of signing). Student mobility among the member countries strengthens European integration where nations' identities and common interests can interact and strengthen each other for the benefit of Europe (Garben, 2011:1).

While Germany and France struggled with the unattractiveness of their universities, the U.K. faced too many applications who wanted to come and study in the U.K. The

U.K. seems not to need Bologna but was signed in because educational reforms were to be modelled on the British style. Yet according to a 2007 survey intending to see the position of the U.K. in the Bologna Process, it is argued that in the rapid developing global market for higher education, the modernisation could continue without the U.K. On the other hand the U.K. wanted to control from inside. This is after noticing the competitive advantage in attracting overseas students. Among other advantages, the U.K. would benefit from increased mobility and employment opportunities (Garben, 2011:41-46).

The Bologna Process, which is the succession of the Sorbonne Declaration, is of great significance for student migration in Europe. The process has led to sweeping changes in almost all the higher education systems in Europe, requiring legislative forms. The process marks the change of attitude towards higher education in that it calls for cooperation in educational maters and has far reaching ambitions. The aim of the Declaration and the Process is to establish the European Higher Education Area, and 'blurring the boarders' within the continent. Higher education students would not be limited to their active countries only, but would have the opportunity to travel to other countries within Europe for higher education (Jackson, 2010:2; Garben, 2011:42-46).

On the one hand the Declaration and the Process seek to establish a centre of European knowledge, emphasising Europe's intellectual, cultural and social dimensions, doing away with a Europe's conservatism. On the other hand Erasmus is the world's most successful student mobility programme. Since it began in 1987-1988, the Erasmus programme, which gives students the opportunity to take up their studies in different countries in Europe without being charged more or breaking up the study process, has provide many students with the opportunity to go and study at a higher education institution or train in a company. It should be noted that the U.K. seems to be at the centre of the Process as many students want to study in the U.K. especially because it is an English speaking country whose model of education has been adopted in the E.U. (European Commission, 2012:4).

The declaration mentions that its prime objective is the increase of student mobility. However, there is unevenness in the student migration where other countries attract

substantially more students than other members. This is a problem to countries that are over flooded by students because they have to subsidise the studies of foreign students. On the other hand, the export countries might experience a brain drain because the students might decide to stay in the host country after their studies. Because of such decisions there would be no competitiveness between the countries involved (Garben, 2011:13).

It has been found out (Chessa, 2012:70) that it is the children of the middle and upper classes families who mainly participate in the Bologna Process programme. The programme seems to make less impact on other social classes such as the less informed people who are not quite aware of the Process. Then there are some students who opt to study in a state closer to home because they want to cut travelling costs. The programme which could have united people ends up creating social classes, making distinctions between the rich and those who are not, a challenge which needs to be addressed by the member countries of the Process (Chessa, 2012:70).

2.4.2.3 The global competition and response to the challenge

The global education market is fundamentally changing, and dramatically increasing. Levels of competition are coming from a variety of sources. Becker and Kolster (2012:9) give an overview of international student recruitment and mobility policies by some national governments in key recruiting and recruitment countries. The policies show global competition in international student recruitment. The competition is a challenge to the traditional student migration destinations.

In the first place the existing MESDCs, led by the U.S.A. and Australia, are likely to continue to present the main competition to the U.K. which is second in hosting international students because of the use of English as the language of delivery (Eckel & King, 2004:1). However, all except the U.S.A., have significantly smaller national capacity for higher education provision in terms of the number of universities than the U.K. Other English speaking countries' ability to expand may be limited

because of students' tendency of preferring the MESDCs for higher education. An attraction that New Zealand, Canada and Australia offer, relative to the U.K., is the enhanced opportunity to migrate to those countries for international students qualifying in their universities. The employment offer would ultimately impact on the perception of enhanced employability associated with those destinations for students are allowed to stay and work if they find employment in critical areas. So the offer of employment is an added advantage to the use of English in institutions of higher learning (OECD in Anderson & Bhati, 2012:67).

There are new English medium providers of higher education on the scene. These are best described in two separate groups. First, there are those countries whose national higher education systems are predominantly delivered through the medium of English. Second, there are those with other primary languages of delivery, most notably the new European providers. Included in the first category are Singapore and Malaysia. Both countries have made it very clear that they wish to attract foreign students by improving the countries' higher education reputation. The University of Nottingham campus in Malaysia and its recent expansion into China is a good example of an approach that has the potential to be beneficial to both Malaysia and the U.K. However, there are other institutions from outside the U.K. developing, and such initiatives present an additional layer of competition. Similarly, India is a growing capacity to attract international students both in India and globally in Malaysia, through the improvement of its higher education. Additionally, a private sector medical school associated with established Indian universities has been established in Malaysia (Bohm et. al., 2008:68).

Singapore is growing its capacity to attract international students with a target of up to 150 000 by 2015 (Sidhu, 2011:7). A number of concessions are being offered to prestigious foreign institutions to establish operations to deliver in Singapore (Tan in the *University World News*, 2011). Additions such as payment of fewer fees than in the U.K. and Australia, offering employment opportunities and permanent residency after graduation, are likely to attract students, especially from within the region to study closer at home (Sidhu, 2011:5-7).

An additional factor is the growth of English medium higher education programmes now offered in a number of E.U. countries – e.g. France, Germany, Netherlands, and Sweden. Many have been developed to attract a mix of students from different countries, particularly non-E.U., either to generate revenue or to meet foreign policy objectives. Over a period of time, however not specific, these programmes may financially and academically attractive to other E.U. students. The fact remains that the U.K. faces competition in the market for international students. Its dominance on the basis of English usage is facing challenge (Anderson & Bhati, 2012:67).

Other challenges the U.K. faces are the private sector and corporate universities. In the U.S.A. about 25% of higher education students are in private institutions. Such institutions as the University of Phoenix, for example, offer flexible approaches to delivery by operating in the U.S.A. only. The university has campuses in Puerto Rico and Canada and it is said there are plans to extend into Europe. Similarly, the U.S.A. education company Sylvan Learning system is growing rapidly in Mexico, France, Guam, Hong Kong and Canada (Bohm et al., 2008:68). The U.S.A.'s growth in international higher education is more visible than the developments observable in the U.K.

The above challenges imply that the U.K. faces planned competition from its traditional competitors. However, the emerging competitors are not to be ignored since they have some impact on higher education in the U.K. with their impending competition on the markets. From another angle, the U.K. needs to meet the needs of the international students by continuing to offer a wider choice of programmes (Bohm et al., 2008:69). In a way the U.K. is challenged to face the growing demand for higher education. The move can be done through contesting in the establishment of more private higher education. Foreign providers, independent U.K. operators or through franchises can come in to expand the U.K. horizon on the higher education market arena. The various groups would facilitate in the provision of enrolments in higher education.

2.4.2.4 The future of student migration in the U.K.

Despite the challenges, student migration in the U.K. is on the rise. The country has an international market, drawing its clients from all world regions. The following table is a summary of the demand for the U.K.'s higher education.

Table 2.6: Forecasts of global and regional demand for international student places in the U.K.

Base scenario:

Year	2003	2005	2010	2015	2020	Growth
Africa	**19**	**20**	**26**	**34**	**44**	**5.3%**
Sub-Saharan	16	17	23	30	5	5.5%
North Africa	3	3	3	4	5	3.9%
Middle East	10	10	13	16	20	4.4%
Asia	**74**	**85**	**130**	**188**	**266**	**7.9%**
East Asia	43	50	75	112	164	8.3%
South East Asia	19	20	27	37	48	5.6%
South Asia	12	15	27	38	53	9.1%
Central Asian Republics	1	1	1	1	1	4.9%
Americas	**23**	**23**	**26**	**30**	**33**	**2.3%**
North	18	18	20	22	24	1.9%
Central	2	2	2	3	3	4.2%
South	3	3	4	4	5	3.3%
Europe	**111**	**115**	**127**	**137**	**146**	**1.6%**
Western	99	103	112	119	125	1.4%
Eastern	12	13	15	18	20	3.3%
Oceania	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**33**	**2.0%**
World	**238**	**256**	**325**	**407**	**511**	**4.7%**

Source: (Bohm et al., 2008: 36)

The growth percentage in the above table implies that there is still demand for the U.K. higher education from almost all international regions. The highest demand is from Asia while the list is from Oceania, West Europe and the Middle East. The high population in some of the Asian countries suggests the high demand.

2.4.2.5 Conclusion

From the above discussion, it is evident that the U.K. is the second most popular in hosting international students and its higher education is one of the most sought after internationally. Most of the immigrant students come from the E.U. following the Bologna Process whose aim is to establish a united and common education area. The U.K. seems to have its power felt even in education and has put in place policies such as the visa changes to accomplish the aim. However, some of these policies impact negatively on the country's major markets and the host seems an unwelcoming destination. Despite the challenges on the global market which the U.K. faces, its future appears bright, and it is expected that great numbers of students will continue to seek U.K. higher education for several reasons.

2.4.3 Student migration to Australia

Amongst English speaking destinations, Australia is the third most popular choice globally for education and training in the English speaking countries. Australia has got 39 universities and student mobility in this country dates back to the 1950s and 1960s when the wider Australian society was mono-cultural. With the growth in private students in the 1970s and then the rapid expansion of numbers with the introduction of the full fee program in 1985, international students became a very common sight in Australian education institutions and in the community, transforming them in the process. The above information indicates that student migration in Australia has been, and is, a growing process. Like in other countries discussed in this chapter, the individual, the government and the private higher education provider all contribute to the growth of student migration in Australia (Murray, Hall, Leask, Marginson & Ziguras, 2011:3-13; Smart, 2011:230).

2.4.3.1 Trends in student mobility in Australia

The international education industry, which includes student migration, is Australia's fourth largest export industry contributing $11.3 billion to the Australian economy in 2006/07. Among Australia's top eight exports which are coal, iron ore, tourism, education, gold, transportation, crude oil and aluminium, education is the only export that captures Australia as being more than *a quarry with a view.* This shows the importance of, to be specific, international students to Australian economy (Banks, Olsen & Pearce, 2007:7).

Australia's share of global demand for international higher education, forecast in a 2002 study to grow from 3.9% in 2000 to 4.9% in 2005, then to 5.9% in 2010 and 6.9% in 2015, grew more quickly than forecast. In 2004, Australia's market share of international students had grown to 6.3% as reported by the OECD (in Banks et al., 2007:4). The above information is an indication of a steady growth of 1% expected by 2015.The same research indicates that Australia's market share of international students expected to grow further for the reason that much of the forecast growth in Australia's market share already has occurred. The same source says that Australia is currently facing increasing competition in getting larger numbers of international students from both international and domestic provision. Policy changes in destinations such as the U.S.A. and emerging hubs like the Middle East and Asia all expose Australia to stiff competition for international students (Banks et al., 2007:4).

The high value of Australia's currency has contributed to the fall of international student numbers wishing to study in that country. The *Stakeholder Engagement Plan to Enhance the Tertiary Education Industry Strength in the Melbourne East Region* (2012:52) points out that the strength of the Australian dollar makes it rather expensive for some international students, the tendency is for these students to look elsewhere where higher education is less expensive (*Strategic Review of the Student Visa Program*, 2011:127)

Research (Banks et al., 2007:4) points out that Australia is facing shortages in the enthusiasm and capacities of its universities to supply higher education places in order to meet the international students' demand. The observation implies that to

some extent, some Australian universities may not be doing enough to attract more international students. Lack of enthusiasm on the part of Australia contributes to the rather slow growth in international student numbers in that country.

2.4.3.1 (a) Sources of students

Australia gets most of its international students from China, India, Malaysia and Indonesia. According to Banks et al., (2007:5) in 2005 these four countries represented 54% of all enrolments in Australia. The number of international students from the same countries is expected to rise up to by to 61% by 2025 (Banks et al., 2007:5).

Banks et al., (2007:6) say that in 2009 the total number of international student enrolment in Australia reached a high point of 630 663. The above authors imply that while the Australian university system can provide 268 156 international student places on campus in Australia by 2025, demand for that country's higher education is on the rise. It is assumed that demand will exceed supply in 2020, and by 2025 there will be a shortfall of 22 692 international places for higher education on projected demand of 290 848 (Banks et al., 2007:6). The rise in the demand of Australian higher education is a challenge which that country needs to address in order to host as many international students as possible.

2.4.3.1(b) The demand for Australian higher education

Murray et al., (2011:3-4) are of the opinion that international students are attracted to Australia for some of the reasons discussed below. These reasons encourage most international students to decide on Australia as the destination for their higher education. The major reason is the unmet demand for higher education in Asia.

Australia is the closest destination for students from the Asia Pacific region. Thus, the travelling costs are also low because of the proximity of Asia to Australia.

(Chaney, 2013:12). The following table shows Australia's major sources of international students.

Table 2.7: International students from Australia's major market

Rank	Country	Higher Education
1	China	149 758
2	India	54 396
3	Republic of Korea	27 219
4	Vietnam	22 551
5	Malaysia	21 587
6	Thailand	20 240
7	Indonesia	17 514
8	Brazil	15 092
9	Nepal	14 074
10	Pakistan	11 298

Source: *International Students in Australia (2012)*

Another reason for international students' choice of Australia as a destination for study is that there are chances of employment with an Australian qualification not only in the host country but also internationally. It has been reported (The *Australian Qualifications Framework*, 2010:7-9) that Australia's education operates in a global context. The report goes on to say that international students seek Australian qualification and those who qualify in Australia can work or advance their education overseas. While the above reasons are true of other popular higher education destinations such as the U.K. and the U.S.A., for students from Asia, Australia is the closest country for them to improve their employment opportunities.

Australia has high quality of education institutions and a flexible system of higher education (Murray et al., 2011:6). The above assertion implies that the system is accommodative of international students and assures these students internationally recognised education. *Quality assurance* in terms of Australian higher education*,* according to Murray et al., (2011:6), refers to the strength of national monitoring and enforcement of quality standards. Quality assurance then suggests that policies are in place for ensuring that entry and teaching standards are maintained in the

robustness of mechanisms that make ascertain that Australian degrees are recognised internationally. The above position attracts international students to Australia.

Alumni play an important role of marketing Australia's higher education. The impact of word of mouth recommendations contributes to increased student mobility. Australia benefits from the presence of several generations of alumni in the Asian region, with a high regard for Australian education (Chaney, 2013:20-22; Murray et al., 2011:3).

2.4.3.2 Competitor and competitiveness and response to the challenge

As a competitor in international higher education, Australia attracts the third-largest number of international students in the English-speaking world. International education has been one of Australia's exporting success stories in recent decades. However, there seem to be a decline in the number of international higher education students attracted to Australia. Research (Chaney, 2013:40; Murray et al., 2011:6-9) says that in the 2000s, some universities in Australia seemed to be of the attitude that they were reaching capacity in the number of international students they could accommodate. Other universities refined their international student recruitment policies either emphasising greater quality or an improved balance between undergraduate and postgraduate enrolments (Murray et al., 2011:6-9). This selectiveness discouraged international students' choice of Australia as a study destination. On the other hand, Australia's traditional competitors in the international education market, the United States and the United Kingdom, continued to target growth in international student numbers. This meant that Australia was likely to lag behind in the competition for international students.

According to Murray et al., (2011:15-17) international education is an instrument of public international relations. The authors go on to say that for the above reason the U.S.A. and the U.K. have successfully invested in education, which includes higher education. The above authorities observe that Australia seems not to have done as

much as the U.K. and the U.S.A. have in an attempt to build international relationships. Students' choice of Australia as a study destination, according to Murray et al., (2011:15-17), seems not to be a result of the Australia's effort to advertise its higher education. Investing in education in other countries could link Australia internationally and possibly advertise the culture brand of its higher education. International students from the countries with which Australia would have established public relationships would likely choose it as a study destination. The establishment of higher education public relationships by the U.K. and the U.S.A. attracts international students to these two countries, leaving Australia at a disadvantage. In addition to the above competition, Australia faces more contests for the higher education industry, which includes student migration, from the Asian region (Chaney, 2013:40; Murray et al., 2011:6-9).

Singapore, China and Malaysia have been major sources of international students in higher education for Australia. However, currently they are rapidly developing their own universities so that they become high-quality educational institutions. They are now offering courses in both English and local languages as well. In addition to developing capacity to educate their own citizens, these countries are also competing in attracting students from other countries in the Asian region (Banks et al., 2007:34). Increase in higher educational capacity in the Asian region may have some negative effect on the demand for Australian higher educational services by reducing the number of international students intending to study in that country.

A country like Malaysia which has always looked up to Australia for quality higher education is an emerging popular destination for international students. The above change is a challenge which perhaps Australia needs to deal with by looking beyond Asia for international student recruitment (Banks et al., 2007:34).

Smart (2011:7) states that Chinese and Saudi Arabian governments encourage students to go and study in other countries for the reasons which include providing skills to the national workforce. The governments stated above then attempt to lure back the students who have been studying out in a bid to reverse the brain drain (Smart, 2011:7). In other words Chinese and Saudi students migrate to Australia to learn skills for the purpose of applying them back at home. In cases where the return

home of students from Australia is a success, Australia would have lost on potential labour force. However, as Smart (2011:7) explains, migration of students from China to Australia is soft diplomacy on the part of China where the World (including Australia) gets to know Saudi or Chinese students (Smart, 2011:7).

2.4.3.3 Policy change

A country's success in attracting international students is crucially related to positive, supportive public policy settings (Murray et al., 2011:6).

Research (Hugo, 2008:13) is of the opinion that since 2001, international students completing qualifications in Australia have been permitted to apply for permanent residence in Australia as skilled migrants, without having to leave Australia after their graduation. Policy-makers' decision followed the credence that persons who had been trained in Australia, in English, would be more attractive to Australian employers than their counterparts trained overseas. Concerns about the labour market outcomes for skilled migrants, including those who had studied as international students in Australia, led to a review of policy and a media statement in the *Australian Immigration News* (April 17, 2007*)* by Australia's Minister for Immigration and Citizenship, the Hon Kevin Andrews MP and Minister for Education, Science and Training, the Hon Julie Bishop MP. The Ministers announced that policy was to be adjusted to benefit applicants with advanced Australian tertiary qualifications, Australian skilled work experience and strong English language skills. The decision is also based on the argument that:

"The changes are important for students and our education providers as it creates greater certainty that international students will have the language proficiency to gain the full benefit of their studies. This also assists in maintaining the strong reputation of our education sector as a provider of high quality education to international students," Bishop said (*Australian Immigration News*, April 17, 2007).

This change is likely to impact negatively on student migration into Australia for the reason that some of the students may not have the level of English language

required. The two ministers' specification of Australia's areas of interest is likely to skew the choice of Australia as a destination for study for it is not everybody who may be interested in the specified areas. The issue of specified study area is likely to have the same effect as that of fee paying (Lim, 2011:19; Murray, et al., 2011:3).

The impact of the tuition fee policy introduced in 2010, which was to start in 2011, is broad ranging (Marcucci & Usher, 2011:15-16). This impact is felt in the reduced numbers of international students intending to study in Australian universities especially. In other words the view that higher education has become a profitable commodity seems to be of great interest to countries that host large numbers of international students. Thus, universities feel the financial impact since they generate revenue from the fees paid by international students (Margison, 2011: no page). But at the same time the strength of the Australian dollar and the requirement of full fees scare away some of the international students.

It is stated in the *Department of Immigration and Citizenship's Annual Report* (2011-2012) that Australia was equally affected by the 2007-11 global financial crises as the U.S.A. and Europe. Yet Australian policy makers introduced changes to skilled migration numbers to offset the anticipated job shortages (Philips & Spinks, 2012:5). The new policies are likely to impact negatively especially on students who would want to study in Australia but may fail to do so.

In an article entitled *The Baird Review of the Education Service for Overseas Students Act* which was concluded in 2009, Koleth (in Sidhu, 2011:12) pointed out that migration driven enrolment had had a negative impact on the international education sector. *The Act* referred to above recommended more support for international students through improved protection and providing information on accessible sources so that authorised students would know who to approach when faced with problems. *The Act* also recommends the following series of changes to be made to the student visa and migration regime:

- Stronger student visa integrity checks are introduced to stamp out visa fraud.

- Students are to prove access to A$18 000 per annum up from A$12 000.

- Tighten the list of occupations in high demand so only high skilled migrants will be eligible to apply for independent migration visas. Here the intension was to encourage applications from: employers. This new rule is anticipated to decrease migrant applications from Asia if present trends continue.

- A new Skills Occupation List (SOL) is issued to be renewed annually.

The visa policy changes have triggered concern in Australia that there will be shortage of science and engineering skills in that country. The cost of acquiring a student visa in Australia is high, the time for processing the visa is long and the strength of the Australian dollar all work to reduce the number of student visa applications to Australia (Murray et al., 2007:7). In Australia the above concerns imply that the tightening of the student visa rules suggest that the country would not be able to meet the challenge of tackling skill shortages, particularly for projects in Queensland and Western Australia which have demands on labour supply. The above observation gives the implication that Australia's visa policy impacts negatively on its student migration process. The Baird Review gives the impression that it discourages genuine applicants and makes the education export industry less competitive (Sidhu, 2011:12).

2.4.3.4 Factors influencing student mobility to Australia

The rate of growth for the demand of Australia's higher education is slowing down (Murray et al., 2011:8). One of the reasons is that China has increased its domestic provision of university places significantly, from 5.8 million in 1999 to 18.1 million in 2004. China added 2.5 million higher education placements each year since 1999, amalgamating an annual growth of 25%. The move by China impacts negatively on Australia because China is one of Australia's major markets for international students. Other Chinese students would study at home instead of migrating to Australia and their choice to stay in their native country implies a loss of benefits that come with student migration for Australia (Murray et al., 2011:8). The impact caused by the Chinese students' decision to stay home will take long for Australia to feel.

One of the experiences is the violence against international students in the country in 2010 which branded Australia as a hostile destination for study. *Radio Australia* (2012) reports that Chinese students ended up campaigning against violence in Australia.

The damage to Australia's reputation, because of Australian higher education students' physical attack on international students, especially in India and also elsewhere, follows the media attention given to incidents of violent attacks especially on Indian students in 2009 and 2010. Particularly, some Indian students were fatally attacked. The incidents propagate accusations of racist violence against international students especially by the countries whose citizens were attacked. Though Australia tried to explain what may have triggered the attacks, the damage was done and it may take a long time to win China's and India's trust. In an article entitled 'Australia's reputation Still Poor in India', Sugden reports in the *India Real Time* (June 1, 2013) that four years after a series of high profile attacks on Indian students in Australia, the country still has failed to significantly improve its damaged reputation in India. Statistics in this article say that 62% of Indians surveyed say that Australia remains a dangerous place for Indian students (*Stakeholder Engagement Plan to Enhance the Tertiary Education Industry Strength in the Melbourne East Region,* 2012:50-51).The incident has a negative impact on Australia's higher education.

There also have been concerns about international students enrolling particularly in the vocational field for the primary purpose of securing permanent residency. There have been reports on visa scams. Therefore, the system of issuing visas had to be tightened. The tightening of the system of issuing gives perception in many countries that Australia does not welcome international students. How wide-spread this perception is and how long it might take for it to change are not well understood. Parret and Pyne in a *House Debate* (November 2, 2011), on international student enrolment, pointed out that the vocational training sector has to be controlled because of some dishonest agents who provided poor or non-existent training for students in Australia. Such reports do not go well in relationship to Australia's higher education.

The above challenge of irregularities in issuing visas, accompanied with the on-going occurrences of violence, and perceived discrimination and increasingly adverse visa arrangements is likely to delay the recovery in Australia's reputation as a destination for international students (Murray et al., 2011:8; Mason, 2010:461-466), giving the Australian government cause of concern.

In addition to the above irregularity in issuing visas and the violent attacks on international students, the strength of the Australian dollar is one of the most emphasized points by government as the main concern pressurizing the decrease in international student enrolments (Murray et al., 2011:8; Phillimore & Koshy, 2010:8). Murray et al., (2011:8) say that higher education in Australia costs much the same as it did three years ago, but the U.S. and U.K. are now comparatively cheaper and therefore more competitive in the source markets. Australia is thus at a disadvantage because it is likely to lose students who might consider affordable higher education in either the U.S. or the U.K.

Success in attracting large numbers of international students into Australian institutions and enrolment into programmes both onshore and offshore have on the one hand posed challenges and on the other hand, opportunities for institutions and for those who teach research. The government and industry efforts to strengthen and enforce existing consumer protection, quality assurance and anti-discrimination laws as they affect international students, and the communication of the outcomes of these efforts overseas, are fundamental (Chaney, 2012:8; Murray et al., 2011:20; *International Students Strategy for Australia,* 2010:5-60). The Australian government is compelled by the situation to seriously consider the challenges it faces in order to remain a highly competitive student destination.

2.4.3.5 Conclusion

The above examination pointed out that Australia is the third most popular destination for international student migration. The consideration pointed out that the main source of international students for Australia has been Asia because of its

proximity to the country. Like the U.S.A. and the U.K., Australia's higher education is demanded because of its quality.

However, much of the forecast growth in Australia's market share already has occurred therefore it is not expected to grow any further. One of the reasons why the growth rate seems to have decreased is that Australia is facing increasing competition, from both international and domestic providers of higher education. An example is given of Australia's major source of international students, Asia, which is developing its own higher education with the intention of attracting international students.

Higher education in Australia is expensive in comparison to other international destinations. The reasons for the high cost are that both the currency value is high and that the country charges international students more fees than what they charge the local students. Both are having a negative impact on demand for Australia because higher education cannot be afforded easily. In the past Australia had a higher demand of skilled labour and the demand have been attracting international students who would have the opportunity to stay and work in the country after graduation. New changes from September 1, 2007 in Australia's skilled migration program introduced uncertainty because it is no longer that possible for students to stay and work after they have graduated. For some reasons which include recruiting companies who offer non-existing programmes, the government had to change policies on the recruitment of international students. Yet Australia is facing lack of enthusiasm and aptitudes of its universities to create more opportunities to meet international demand. The attitude by universities encourages minimal development of student migration. This research agrees with the notion that in order to remain competitive in the increasingly forceful environment of attempting to host a high number of international students, the universities require a solid understanding of the future global demand for international education and Australia's competitive position within this global context.

2.4.4 The emerging hubs in student migration

Chiriliuc's (2010:1) observation is that there has been a significant change in preference for study destinations. Students have started to consider new destination locations to migrate to for higher education. The reasons for the preference of new destinations are that the rather popular destinations are very competitive, expensive for many and a great distance away from home for others. This research discusses Asia and the Middle East as the emerging destinations for higher education. It is hoped that analysing these new locations would help understand student migration in Zimbabwe especially into South Africa.

2.4.4.1 Asia

According to Sidhu (2011:3), there are indicators that traditional patters of student mobility are changing. The same author goes on to express that Asia, a long-standing source of international students, is now emerging as a destination for many seeking higher education. The above source also says that Asia is both a major source and destination for international students seeking higher education and that student migration, like most forms of popular mobility, is a highly politicised issue, exerting economic, social and environmental effects in both sources and destination countries. Student migration studies in the current top three destinations reveal the opportunities and challenges facing regional education hubs in Asia (Cao, 2011:8). A critical observation is that there is need for governments to work with and deal with the complications of human mobility which includes student migration in order to reveal opportunities and challenges facing Asia as an emerging hub Sidhu (2011:3).

Asia's growing profile as a destination of international students should also be read as an expression of processes of economic change, namely towards the production of knowledge forms the 1997 Financial Crisis in Asia in the region. Singapore, Korea and Japan are attracting international students as a means of building research capacity, and in the same process, Japan is consolidating the international profile of their universities. Singapore has marked itself as a dynamic global city offering employment opportunities and permanent residency to attract desirable student

migrants: namely the young and those advancing their educated from the Asian region. Also seeking to ride the knowledge economy wave are countries like Malaysia which, like Singapore, is capitalizing on the growing popularity of English as the international language of science and commerce. In a way the so called market place is growing (Sidhu, 2011:4-5).

It can therefore be said that the global widening of neoliberal guiding principles of marketization have pushed universities mostly in the U.K., Australia and New Zealand to enrol international students to augment institutional income.

It is important to note that governments and national policies continue to have big influence on the mobility of students. States continue to play important roles in shaping the decisions of individuals and families about education related migration. This is done through government's recognition of foreign credentials or their attitude to their out-bound students. The governments can also determine and allocate resources to improve and access tertiary education. Governments have authority to regulate student movement as is done in the issuing of study visas. The above experience has been felt within the major destinations for student migration. It is such control moves in the international student markets which has encouraged student mobility and resulted in the rise of Asia as a higher education study destination for international students.

2.4.4.2 Factors contributing to student recruitment in the Asian region

Different rationales inform the recruitment of international students by Asian countries. The British Council (2008:5-6) implies that raising revenue from fee paying international students is not the primary concern for higher education institutions in Singapore, Korea or Japan. These countries regard the recruitment of international students as an important part of development policies aimed at building powerful knowledge-based economies by building research capacities and providing service industries. The Asian countries, formerly a traditional source of international students for the U.K., the U.S.A. and Australia, are becoming active recruiters of international

students/suppliers to the international education market. In other words the Asian countries are concerned more with acquiring knowledge and less with financial or labour gain. The concern relates to the original cause behind student migration as stated in the history of the process. Although there may be differences in reasons for engaging in student mobility, the knowledge-economy factor unites these emerging destinations at the same time.

The British Council (2008:5-6) gives a range of the factors driving, encouraging and impacting on international student mobility within Asia. A summary of the factors are:

- *Strong and/or strengthening East Asian economies; and growing disposable income levels in some East Asian markets which have helped to increase expenditure on education by governments and consumers.*

- *The high value placed on higher education and international education by the students and the parents in East Asia due to perceived enhanced career prospects and/or dissatisfaction with the quality of local provision of higher education.*

- *The need to supplement local capacity to cater for unmet and increased local demand for higher education in some countries, leading some East Asian governments to allow increased local provision of higher education by private and foreign providers.*

- *Government policy placing education as a key part of national success or development, leading to the formation of goals to increase participation by citizens in higher education, and to Government reforms in many East Asian nations, focusing on improving education delivery and outcomes.*

- *Governments' desiring ranking their countries within the international education arena – for example, Singapore and Malaysia both seek to position themselves as regional education hubs. This means targeting greater numbers of students not only from international countries but also from the East Asian Region – thereby increasing student mobility within the Region.*

Along with China, these countries are also examples of some traditional sources of international students which are becoming active recruiters of international students.

- *A need on the part of institutions of higher education in the Asian region to internationalise their universities and produce skilled graduates who can contribute to international society; and facilitate international exchange and understanding of higher education.*

- *A desire on the part of universities to improve the quality of teaching and research and enhance their international reputation and student bases.*

- *Increased recruiting efforts for students from universities in the Region* (The British Council, 2008:5-6).

The above summary encouraging international student recruitment is an attempt by Asian countries to address challenges in higher education in the Asiatic region. The success of the programme of hosting international students is likely to make Asia a very popular region for both local and international students but not without impact on the U.S.A. and the U.K. whose major source of international students is Asia.

2.4.4.3 Global student mobility to Asia

The British Council (2008:6-7) reports that in the first half of the current decade most East Asian markets experienced varying growth in student numbers from their neighbours. The following table shows a comparison of student inflow and outflow by country.

Table 2.8: A comparison of student inflow and outflow by country

COUNTRY	INBOUND STUDENTS	OUTBOUND STUDENTS
Japan	100 986	21 910
China	86 417	140 449
Singapore	54 504	493
Malaysia	12 952	11 649
South Korea	12 115	76 270
Taiwan	3 740	4 211
Hong Kong	3 458	16
The Philippines	2 586	974
Thailand	2 306	6 590
Vietnam	178	16 679

Source: Adapted from *Executive Summary,* British Council (2008:7).

According to the British Council (2008:6-7) report on Student Mobility in Asia, one manifestation of the trends towards increased student mobility within the East Asian Region is seen on campuses in China, Japan and South Korea, where about half to three quarters of foreign students come from the other two neighbouring countries, Hong Kong and Taiwan. The largest number of international students is enrolled in undergraduate programmes. The high numbers of undergraduate students confirm the general observation in student mobility where the group is always the largest. However, Asia recruits from outside the region as well. The above table shows that China is the dominant player in terms of Asian student mobility, both as a provider and consumer of education with 140 449 outbound and 86 417 inbound students in the East Asian region alone. On the other hand, some of the Asian students still study in countries abroad – mostly in Europe and North America. Perhaps the size of

China's population and developments in its economy contributes to the country's move (The British Council, 2008:6-7; Kell & Vogl, 2012:83-85).

2.4.4.4 Student migration to Singapore

In an undated document entitled *The Quest for Foreign Skills- International Recruitment Strategies in the Asia-Pacific Region*, Zhang, Chan, Labrecque, Kincaide and Iturralde report how Singapore and Japan, as members of the Asia-Pacific region, are actively involved in the recruitment of international students. The one-child policy aimed at reducing population has negatively impacted a country like Japan by failure to get replacements in jobs where old people are retiring. The recruited international students, if they are offered jobs, replace those who retire because of old aged. The move suggests that Singapore and Japan are going to remain active in their recruitment efforts for the sake of their economies. They need reinforcement in their workforce.

Singapore's Global Schoolhouse, a key education policy platform, aims to transform Singapore into a knowledge and innovation hub. The government wants to establish networks and collaborations with foreign universities. The collaboration increases the presence of world class universities in Singapore which has set a target of enrolling 150 000 international students. The target is to be achieved by 2015 and the students are to be studying in both public and private education institutions (Sidhu, 2011:7). In accordance with the broader policy of a knowledge economy, domestic education institutions are being reconfigured to educate citizens for 'new economy' attributes so that the students become creative in entrepreneurial projects. In a way student recruitment is all about keeping the country's economy growing.

While the government's concern over local students is to educate them for the country's economic growth, as discussed in the above paragraph, one of the reasons why students are beginning to migrate to Singapore is that these students do not pay significantly higher fees as is done in the U.K. and Australia. Instead, the country pays the students' fees through the Tuition Grant which is available to all

international students admitted to Singapore's universities on application to the Ministry of Education. In order to get this grant, international students need to agree to work for Singapore-based companies for three years. There is also a range of financial aid schemes provided to international students through many of Singapore's government related companies. The offer is a way to attract international students to the country and the offer is likely to attract a considerable number to Singapore. High numbers of international students are likely to make a positive impact on Singapore by making its higher education more appreciated. Considering that one of the drivers into student migration is staying and working in the host country, Singapore's policy of allowing international students to stay and work after graduation would be welcomed, hence economic growth of the country (Sidhu, 2011:9).

Another reason why international students would be attracted to study in Singapore is the question of fees. Singapore offers scholarships to international students. The country has different categories of these scholarships which include Agency of Science, Hong Kong, India Youth and pre-university scholarships. The country also has attractive visa and work permit conditions, low crime conditions and other conditions conducive to study and work as given in information on *Study in Singapore* (2013) for international students. Such offers are likely to attract many students from the Asiatic region, thus impacting on the student migration to the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia. These three countries have been the traditional major international destinations for students from Asia.

Another important issue is as Mazzarol and Soutar (in Anderson & Bhati, 2012:67) argue that safety is a prime consideration in choosing a study destination for most international students. The authors sight the example of the Indian government which advised its citizens not to travel to Australia for study. This follows the violent attacks on Indians on racial grounds. This is why Indians seem to find Singapore a much safer place to study in than Australia.

Singapore is closer to India than any of the traditional higher education destinations (Anderson & Bhati, 2012:67). Thus, students would cut on travelling costs. In

addition, most students would prefer to be closer to home where even the culture is familiar.

2.4.4.5 Student migration to Japan

Japan is an innovative driven country which views international student recruitment as an important policy strategy to maintain and improve its position in the face of a changing economic climate and demographic decline (Sidhu, 2011:8). In other words, Japan's survival in higher education is in the recruitment of student migration.

2.4.4.5.1 Japan's policy

Japan has come up with two key policies to attract international students which are under way. The *Policy of 300 000 Foreign Students* was announced in 2008 by the Fukuda government and it seeks to recruit 300 000 international students by 2020 (Ota, 2012). The second policy, the *Global 30*, is to identify and find a group of core universities with impressive research and education profiles so as to make them attractive to international students (*Developing New Models for Global Partnerships-The Advertisement Feature,* 2009). Like Singapore, Japan is looking for migrant students as a solution to its declining demography. The Japanese government seeks to address the problem of university capacity which drastically declined between 2004 and 2009 from 1.41 million to 1.29 million respectively. In the same period the same time the number of universities rose from 709 to 756. The answer to university capacity would alleviate Japan's problem of the aging population at the same time creating opportunities for international students (Kuwamura, 2009:192).

2.4.4.6 Student migration to Malaysia

The *Ministry of Education* (MoE, 2011:481-490) reports that 70 000 international students are enrolled in Malaysia's institutions of higher learning. Most of these

students come from Indonesia and China and they make 23% of the total number of international students. The students are predominantly enrolled in the private institutions of the country's higher education system. The enrolment followed the government's introduction of the Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEI) Act of 1996 (Tham, 2011:3). The Act allowed the establishment of degree granting universities in other languages than Bahasa Malaysia. The Act also allowed the introduction of joint ventures between local institutions and foreign universities.

Public institutions are also targeting international students particularly those from the Middle East and North Africa. While Malaysia is praised for its capacity, with 20 public universities, 33 private universities, five foreign branch universities and 600 private higher education institutions, the question of quality may militate against Malaysia's ambition (Arokiasamy, 2011:73).

2.4.4.7 Student migration to China

China is both a rich source of international students and an emerging destination for higher education. Research (Douglas & Edelstein, 2009:1-6) says that 70% of the international students in the OECD countries are from China. This is discussed in 2.4.1.3.(a) which shows China as a major source of students for the U.S.A., section 2.4.2.1(a) refers to the same supplier for the U.K. and section 2.4.3.1(a) says Chinese students are the majority among international students in Australia. Not only is China a major market for all the three major destinations but also of other minor destinations and emerging destinations like Malaysia. The outbound student migration of China goes as far back as the time after ruling era Mao (Douglas & Edelstein, 2009:1-6).

2.4.4.7(a) Trends in student migration to China

Jiang and Ma (in Sidhu, 2011:8) say that China's Ministry of Education estimates that it hosts 240 000 international students from 190 nations. Sidhu (2011:8) goes

on to say that in 2008 China hosted 1.5% of the world's international students compared to the U.S.A.'s 18.7%, the U.K.'s 10%, Japan's 3.8% and Australia's 6.9%. Yet China's first destination of choice for student migration is the U.S.A. The above figures show that though China may be sending students to the traditional destinations, it is growing to be a popular destination at the same time (Jiang & Ma in Sidhu, 2011:8).

The British Council (2008:10) says that Japan heads the list of overseas destinations for Chinese students, followed closely by the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia. The following table shows the number of Chinese students in international destinations.
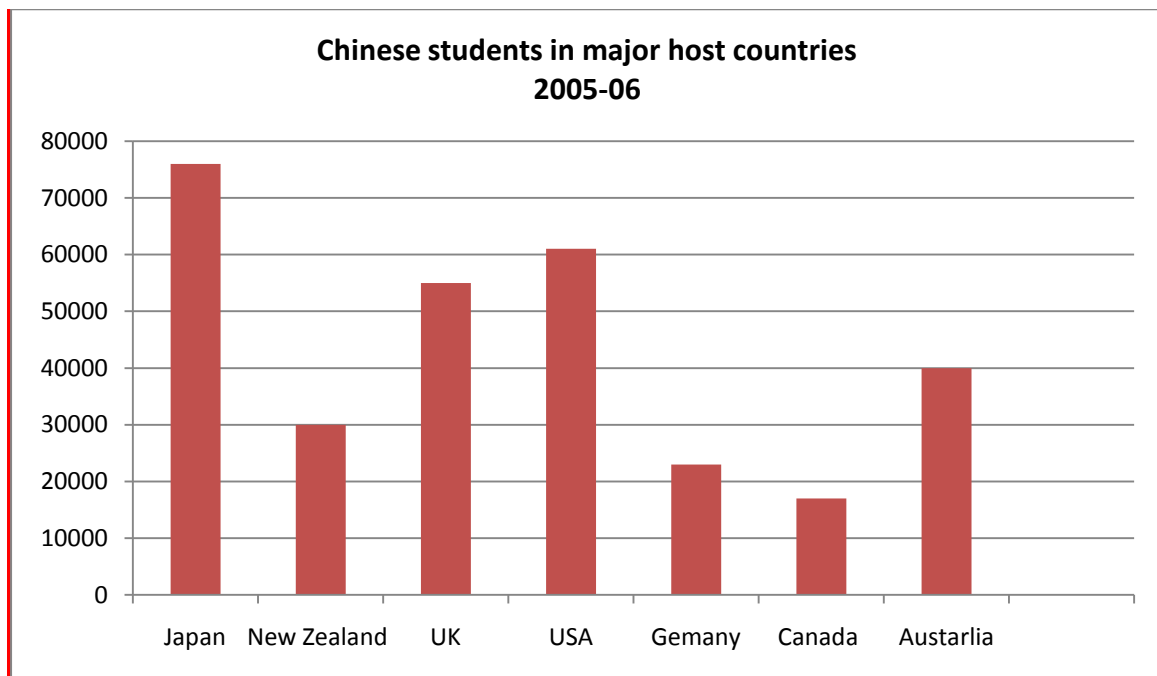
Figure 2.2: Chinese students in major host countries, 2005-2006

Source: The British Council (2008:10).

The above table shows how China is beginning to turn to other destinations for higher education. Japan seems to have overtaken the U.S.A. in the number of Chinese students it hosts while Canada receives the least attention from Chinese students. However, the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia still receive a good number of students from China. Competition from Asia is not to be ignored.

Earlier in the current study it was noted that the traditional destinations, the MESDCs have seen some slowing of growth in enrolments from China in very recent years. For example after the 9/11 attack the U.S.A. experienced a decline in the number of international students it hosted (cf. 2.3.3). With the emergence of new destinations, it seems likely that the MEDSECs may continue to experience increasing competition from Asian countries, particularly Singapore and Malaysia (Chaney, 2013:61).

China dominates as a source market in Asia. The chart below shows China's position as a source market compared to other popular Asian student migration destinations.

China's dominance as a leading source market of international students
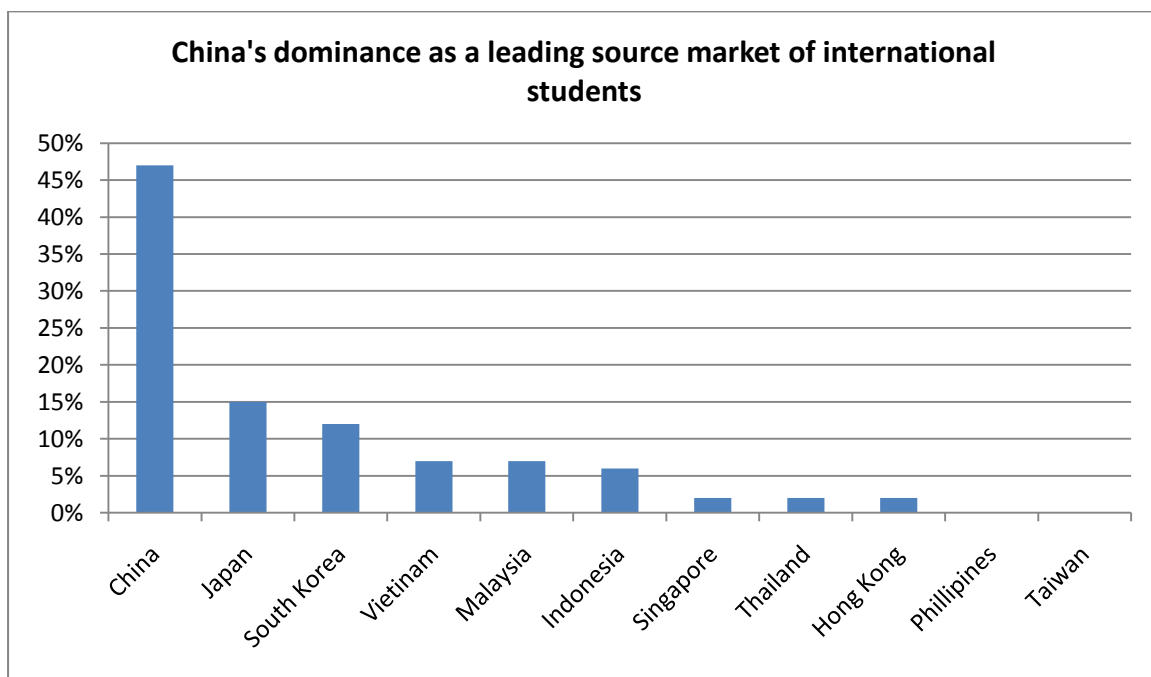
Figure 2.3: China's dominance as a leading source market of international students

Source: British Council (2008:11).

The Chinese government has an influence over the students, choice of international study destinations. For example the government recently discouraged its nationals from choosing New Zealand as a study destination because of concerns about the quality of pastoral care and teaching (Li, 2008:4-5). The above decision by the government impacts negatively on the former major destinations because it reduces

the numbers of international students that might have benefited these countries. The benefit is in the form of funds the students pay.

There is a Chinese-Japanese education relationship which goes as far back as the first two decades of the 20th century. By 1906 there were about 13 000 Chinese students studying in Japan. The relationship of the two countries is an indication that China will also continue to grow as a destination country for international students (Yao, 2004:2-3).

2.4.4.7 (b) Sources and policy

China's share of international students comes from South Korea, the U.S.A., Japan, India and Vietnam. Most of the students are at undergraduate level and the majority are studying humanities (*Project Atlas*, 2011*)*. The source also says the number of international students in China were over 292 000 in 2011. The following chart shows the percentage of students from different sources to China.
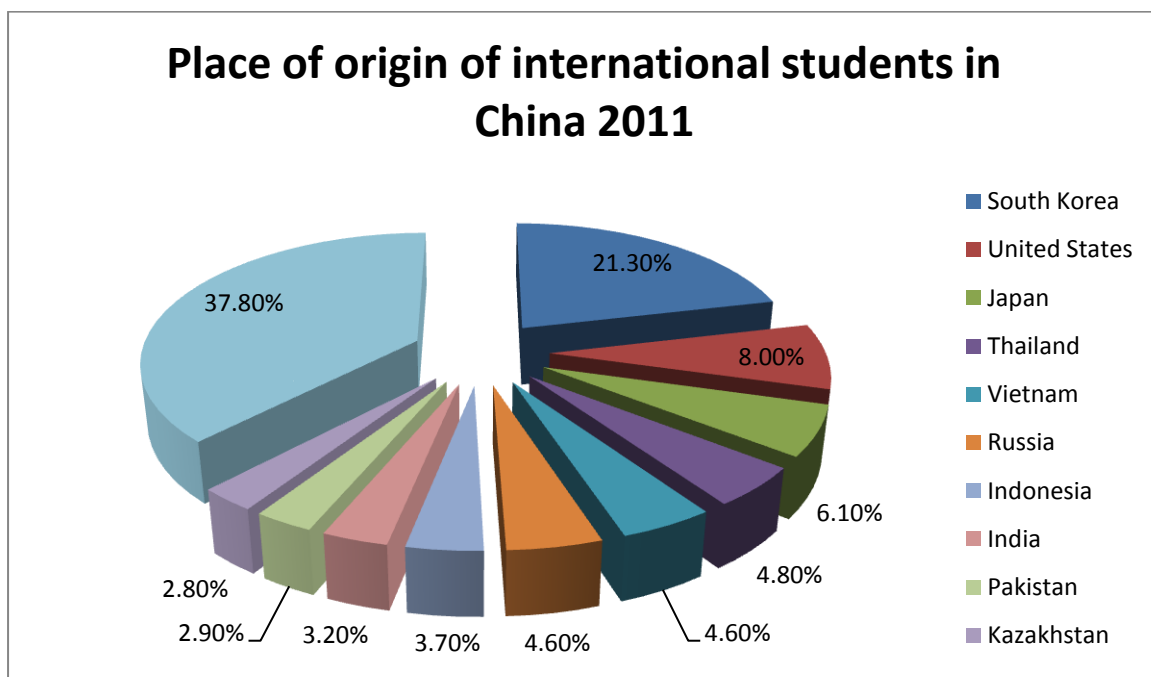
Figure 2.4: Place of origin of international students in China, 2011

Source: Adapted from *Project Atlas* (2011).

The above chart shows how China attracts most of its international students from the Asiatic region. The rest of the Asian countries are as reflected in the table below.

Table 2.9: Other Asian students studying in China

South Korea	21.30%
United States	8.00%
Japan	6.10%
Thailand	4.80%
Vietnam	4.60%
Russia	4.60%
Indonesia	3.70%
India	3.20%
Pakistan	2.90%
Kazakhstan	2.80%
Other	37.80%

Source: Adapted from *Project Atlas: China Scholarship Council, 2011.*

However, other world regions are also represented in Chinese higher education, confirming the emergence of the country as an international destination for students.

In an article in *The China Education Blob*, Quosdorf (June 14, 2010) says that China plans to continue with the massification as a way of reform in higher education. In addition to this, China also intends to accelerate the development of internationally renowned colleges and universities with a number of universities at or near the world-class level (*Programs 985* and *211*). The same article says China wishes to improve the quality of teaching and raise the level of scientific research. This is to be done under the *National Outline for Medium and Long Term Education Reform and Development 2010-2020* (July, 2010). Such moves would not only improve China's human resources, but also attract international students.

China also intends to become a knowledge-based economy through the improvement of its research capacities in its universities. In order to achieve this end, China has implemented two government projects, *Project 211* and *Project 985* (undated). The success of China's projects may encourage the study of Mandarin, thus opening up new markets for China. China's joining of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) has opened up markets for foreign education providers including branch compasses from America and British universities. The joining of

WTO has created lower cost options for students from South Asia now they can access overseas education, especially American higher education, within their borders. The impact of the decrease of student numbers from China is felt in the traditional destinations (British Council, 2008:9). At the same time China benefits by having it nationals receiving the much accepted foreign higher education on their native land. It is therefore likely that most of these students would stay to work in their country which is a benefit to the nation.

2.4.4.8 The impact of increasing East Asian student mobility on traditional destinations

While East Asian markets have been experiencing increasing enrolments from other East Asian countries throughout this decade, some traditional destinations have experienced noticeable declines in enrolments from some major East Asian markets or a flattening of demand. It seems that intraregional student mobility in East Asia will continue to increase at a rapid rate. The increase predicts a negative influence on future enrolment of international student enrolment in the conventional MESDCs (Bhandari, 2009:26; British Council, 2008:11 & Roberts, 2009:25).

The private sector and the transnational education (TNE) have positively contributed to Asia as an emerging popular destination in the international student mobility. Humfrey (2009:4) employs the OECD's definition of transnational education as "All types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based". The source goes on to explain that the programmes may belong to the educational system of a State different from the State in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national system. In this research the understanding is that the private sector and the transnational education are closely linked in that it is the former that employs the latter in a country. In an online article entitled '*Transnational education-The Shape of Things*', MacGregor (2013) discusses how TNE 'is expanding at a brisk *pace*' and says,

> *The research identified three sending countries – Australia, Germany and the U.K. – and six host countries and administrative regions – China, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Mauritius, Thailand and Vietnam...*

MacGregor (2013) says of the above hosts, three countries namely

> *China, Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates (U.A.E.) are successfully using transactional education to expand higher education access, boost academic capacity, develop staff and-or train and retrain a skilled workforce.*

The provision of TNE results in more higher education places, thereby increasing student capacity, and giving the potential for greater mobility, within many East Asian markets.

China and Vietnam have not yet met their local demand for higher education. The governments of the two countries have therefore encouraged the private sectors to provide higher education in order to boost their national capacity and international standing in higher education (Gallagher & Garret, 2012:6-9). As a result of this encouragement of the private sector, there has been a large increase in the delivery of in-country programmes by foreign providers, and joint foreign-local programmes. This is a positive sign in the growth of higher education in China.

In the face of the U.K.'s new policy on spoken English, one of the decision factors for student mobility in Singapore and Malaysia is the desire to improve their English. The students' staying and learning of the language in the two countries allow them to live longer in the European region, working there. The students also intend to study English in the U.K. in order to improve in English. The improvement in English would later help the students upon returning to their home countries should they pursue further education in English. The students' knowledge of English would help these students from Singapore or Malaysia should they decide to study in any destination where the medium of instruction is English (Sidhu, 2011:12).

The question of religion is at the heart of many students. In the face of recent attacks on international students, especially those of eastern religions in Australia, some students preferred the Asian/Muslim cultures in Singapore and Malaysia which they

consider to be more similar to their own and perceive them to be less discriminatory, assisting them to settle in more easily. The observation on the importance of religion is stated by Andaya (2013) in an article in the *Asia Society* who explains how the religions are related even though the Muslims are in the minority. Therefore the students would rather migrate to the Asian countries than to Australia.

Another important component influencing students from the Asian region decision's to choose either Singapore or Malaysia is the affordable cost and the growth of higher education. Malaysia, with Thailand and Singapore in recent times, have also become exporters, through providing educational services to students from neighbouring countries and setting up higher education institutions across borders (Hong & Songan, 2011:4). The fact that these two destinations are cheaper than the major English-speaking destinations is an attraction to those students who intend to study in the Asiatic region. These factors are likely to continue to impact negatively on the traditional MESDCs in favour of flows to East Asia.

2.4.4.9 Student migration to South Asia

Research (Abidi, 2012(b):3) says one quarter of the world's population lives in South Asia and the majority are in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. All three have been under the colonial rule of Britain and English is their official second language. The use of English makes the countries closely linked to the U.K. and other Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (Abidi, 2012(b):3). The language relationship determines the international students' from India, Pakistan and Bangladesh choice to migrate especially to the U.K. for higher learning.

2.4.4.9 (a) Student mobility to India

Education has been receiving the major share of its financial contribution from of the Indian middle class and education is regarded as the only market towards which Indians are not price sensitive. In other words Indian people love to learn and they would go a long way to pay for education. It has been Kharas (2010:30-35) pointed

out that India's middle class is growing. The same author says India could witness a dramatic expansion of its middle class, from the current (2010) 5-10 % of its population to 90 per cent in 30 years. The author goes on to say that with a population of 1.6 billion forecast for 2039, India could add well over 1 billion people to its middle class ranks by 2039 (Kharas, 2010:30-35). Parents felt that quality was important for their children. This quality includes internationally recognised higher education. This is why many Indians focus on determination and perseverance among other values for their children's higher education.

In one of his articles in the *University World News*, Choudaha (June 24, 2012(a): Issue No. 227) points out that India, together with China, has become critical to countries like the U.S.A. as a large source for international students. While the current trend is that in terms of numbers, China outpaces India, the above source is of the opinion that this situation is likely to reverse. The same news article sights the demographic shift as one of the reasons for the reversal of the situation. The estimation is that the Chinese population in the 15-19 year bracket is declining as compared to that of India which is on the increase. The situation suggests that more international undergraduate students in the U.S.A. are expected from India as the college-going population is likely to increase. This view is in agreement with the observation in the above paragraph on the growth of the middle class in India who can afford to pay high fees in foreign universities.

Just as in China, there is a significant expansion of India's domestic institutions with the intension of opening up these institutions to international students for the first time. It is difficult to predict the future market for branch campuses as domestic institutions have become increasingly competitive and strategic in attracting students. The same issue is emphasised by Praveen in his summary of a lecture by Altbach (July 12, 2010) on the first foundation day of the Kerala State Higher Education Council. Among other issues Altbach points out how higher education is no longer a privileged for the elite and how massification is unavoidable. However, it is still important to note that India has taken measures to expand its higher education with the international students in mind (Cao, 2011:9).

Closely related to the above situation in student mobility in India is the question of the pace of reform in that country. This situation is a result of political decision rather than policy. In an article entitled 'India: New Focus is on Quality in Higher Education' in the *University World News,* Mishra (January 8, 2012) says the foreign institutions bill, approved by India's cabinet in March 2010, is the most controversial of a raft of higher education bills pending in parliament. The writer is of the opinion that quality in higher education in India needs to be more encouraged in order to accommodate the many youths of the country. This follows unprecedented countrywide expansion in higher education which gained priority earlier. The writer says that quality is also crucial to enhancing partnerships with international institutions and preparing for the opening of foreign branch campuses. Improving the quality of central and state-funded universities would prepare the institutions so that they can compete with the global best India is likely not to catch up with the demand of quality higher education unless some of the private colleges are stripped of their status because of corruption. This implies that the situation where there are more outbound students from India is likely to continue for a longer period, despite the move by India to lure more international students. Given its situation, China has higher chances in the competition on inbound student mobility. However, India still is commended for taking strides to boost its state universities.

2.4.4.9 (b) Student mobility to Pakistan

Higher education in Pakistan is controlled and regulated by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HECP) which was founded in 2002. There are 62 private sector universities which are chartered by the HECP and 74 public sector universities both federal and provincial (Abidi, 2012(b):22).

Haq, in a blog on October 20, (2011), reports that like India, Pakistan is said to take education seriously, therefore there is substantial demand from parents, students and employers together with a willingness to pay for quality private education. The country is among one of the top 6 markets which accounts for 54% of the U.K.'s non E.U. international students. It has also been observed that post 9/11 has seen a

decline in the number of Pakistanis studying abroad, especially in the U.S.A., from the peak of 8 644 students to 5 222 students in 2001-02, ranking 13th and 23rd respectively (Abidi, 2012(b):23). The decrease in international student numbers suggests that the Pakistanis have identified alternative destinations. Unfortunately, the above source also reports that Pakistan has an under-supply of university places to satisfy the demand. As a result the students' only option is to migrate. The under-supply encourages international student mobility.

Another report by Haq an article published in *The Pakistan Link* (June 9, 2013), says that Pakistan has recently become the top market for Australia in vocational training. This may be attributed to Australia's new streamlined visa process or the prospect of working and claiming permanent residence. Generally, Pakistanis migrate more to the U.K., suggesting the influence of the former colonial power on these citizens. The above source also attributes the increased migration to the rise of the middle class in the country. Thus the observation is on the link between wealth and quality higher education. Like in India (cf. 2.4.4.9(a)) higher education has ceased to be the privilege of the elite.

As in India, in Pakistan the outbound mobility of higher education students seems to be more visible than the inbound mobility. This opinion proposes the estimation that whatever there is written information on the inbound student mobility to Pakistan.

2.4.4.9(c) Student mobility to Bangladesh

Higher education in Bangladesh is the legacy of the British colonial education system. The University Grant Commission (UGC) supervises the system. At present there are 82 universities in Bangladesh, of which 26 are public and 56 are private. The implication is that private universities charge more than public universities. While entry is limited into public universities, higher education in Bangladesh is only reserved for the few who can afford it (Abidi, 2012(a):4).

In *The Chronicle of Higher Education,* Neelakantan (2008) reports on 'Bangladesh Will Allow Foreign Universities to Set up Shops' that the government passed a law

that allowed private individuals and institutions to establish foreign campuses with prior permission. The source also reports that the campuses can be established at approved places so as to avoid the mushroom growth of campuses. The British Council has played an important role, working with the UGC, to attract British institutions into Bangladesh. The introduction of private universities is likely to see a growth in student mobility, and at the same time allowing the local students to acquire degrees from foreign universities while on their native grounds.

In terms of student mobility, Bangladesh still needs international support in order to revamp its higher education sector. The government of Bangladesh formulated a 20 year strategic plan for higher education with the support of the World Bank. The plan is an indication of the mobilization of the reality and the possibility of additional resources to the higher education sector. The government's focus is an emphasis on the improvement of science, technology and research in the next 10 years. It is expected that Bangladesh's efforts to establish quality education would attract international students to the country (Monem & Baniamin, 2010:12; Abidi, 2012(a):8).

2.4.5 Student mobility to the Middle East and North Africa (MENA)

This section focuses on the developments of higher education in the Middle East with the intention of viewing the student migration process in the Arab World. The Middle East has an approach to higher education unique to itself. A number of Arab countries are said to regulate the admission and distribution of students in higher education institutions through a centralized system based on the grade that the students obtained for their high school certificates. Such an approach implies equality of opportunity, because it applies specific criteria to all students without discrimination. However, there are geographical and social factors that always influence the quality and equitability of the distribution of higher education. These factors need to be addressed in order to increase the opportunities in higher education. The increase in opportunities has also resulted from economic considerations, as higher education institutions have sought to open up new tracks in education, which secure additional income for the institutions (Lamine, 2010:15-16).

The review of the current study is on student mobility. Yet, it seems as though not much has been written on student migration to the Middle East for the purpose of higher education. However, the unavailability of a lot of information may not necessarily suggest that international students are unwelcome in the Arab world. There is the possibility of publications yet to be exposed. Another reason could be that some sections of the Arab world are hot-beds of political unrest, and international students are likely not to be attracted to those places. It is again likely that the low numbers of international students are a result of religious differences. The Middle East is dominantly Islam, and some members of the Islamic religion are extremists who do not tolerate other religions. The majority of aspiring international students come from non-Muslim countries, and are likely to be attracted to destinations where they are more welcome and tolerated, as expressed by various individuals in the *Responses from the Faith Consultation* (2012:1-130*).* Another reason is the question of language. The national majority groups have been characterized as using the dominant language in an attempt to create national unity within the state – a process that evidently creates tension between the majority and the minority national groups (Yitzhaki, 2008:13-14). The legal stipulation is that Arabic should be the official language of instruction, and not English. It is only in some disciplines where English and French are modes of instruction, and are seen as rival languages. Other emerging hubs in Europe and Asia are introducing English in their teaching, and are not resisting the language. Thus the Middle East, to some extent, remains closed to international student mobility.

Nevertheless, the current study presents and analyses of as much literature that could be identified and that relates to student mobility in the Middle East. It is hoped that the findings on the Middle East student mobility would help throw some light on student migration by the Zimbabwean students into South Africa. The current study focuses on international students who come to study in the Middle East.

2.4.5.1 Trends of student migration to the Middle East

Lamine (2010:18) observes that Arabian states differ strongly in the size of the non-public sector in universities and other institutions of higher learning. It is such institutions that contribute in attracting international students to specific destinations. The author says that in countries like Bahrain, Lebanon, Palestine, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates, the share of non-public sectors exceed 80%. On the other hand non-public universities are said to range between 20% and zero in Algeria, Iraq, Libya and Morocco. In a way low percentages suggest little or lack of interaction with the rest of the international community in terms of higher education. Given the situation of the Middle East described above, it is highly unlikely that the international students are attracted into the state universities of those countries in large numbers.

It is also reported that the non-public sector includes universities that are affiliated to the countries to which they are administratively and academically linked. Examples of these countries are the New York University and the German University, to which some local institutions of higher learning are either twinned or partnered to. Generally the Middle East students seem to migrate among the Arab countries more than to the outside non-Arabic world although the number of international students on Arab university campuses is growing significantly as part of the increase in international mobility of higher education students worldwide which is the effect of globalization (Romani, 2009:4-5). Such a situation leaves the researcher with not much links, in terms of literature, to student migration to the Middle East. The internationalization of higher education in the Middle East is not clear.

Jaramillo and Ruby (2011:4) say that while most of the international students in the MENA come from Arab countries, significant numbers come from non-Arabic countries whose religion is Islam. These countries include some from Africa. The above researchers say that the largest group of MENA students come from Morocco, Iran, Algeria, and Saudi Arabia, who together constitute over 40% of all MENA students. Egypt has a relatively small number (8 700 students, or 0.4 %) of its higher education students who study out of the country, significantly less than Tunisia (17 900 students/5 % of its higher education enrolments) (Jaramillo & Ruby, 2011). The

minimal numbers of international students also come from Asia, Europe, and the United States. The same report indicates that nearly all the Arab universities and institutions of higher learning, including those in countries that are at odds with the U.S.A. politically welcome American students on their campuses, almost without any reservations or second thoughts. To a greater extent, this is a result of the high reputation of the U.S.A.'s higher education. The above report also states that higher education institutions in the U.S.A. enjoy a worldwide reputation and prestige, and students from American campuses are therefore perceived as a positive addition to Arab campuses. Such a move confirms the U.S.A.'s dominance in international education. The chart below indicates the distribution of MENA students who were studying abroad in 2008.
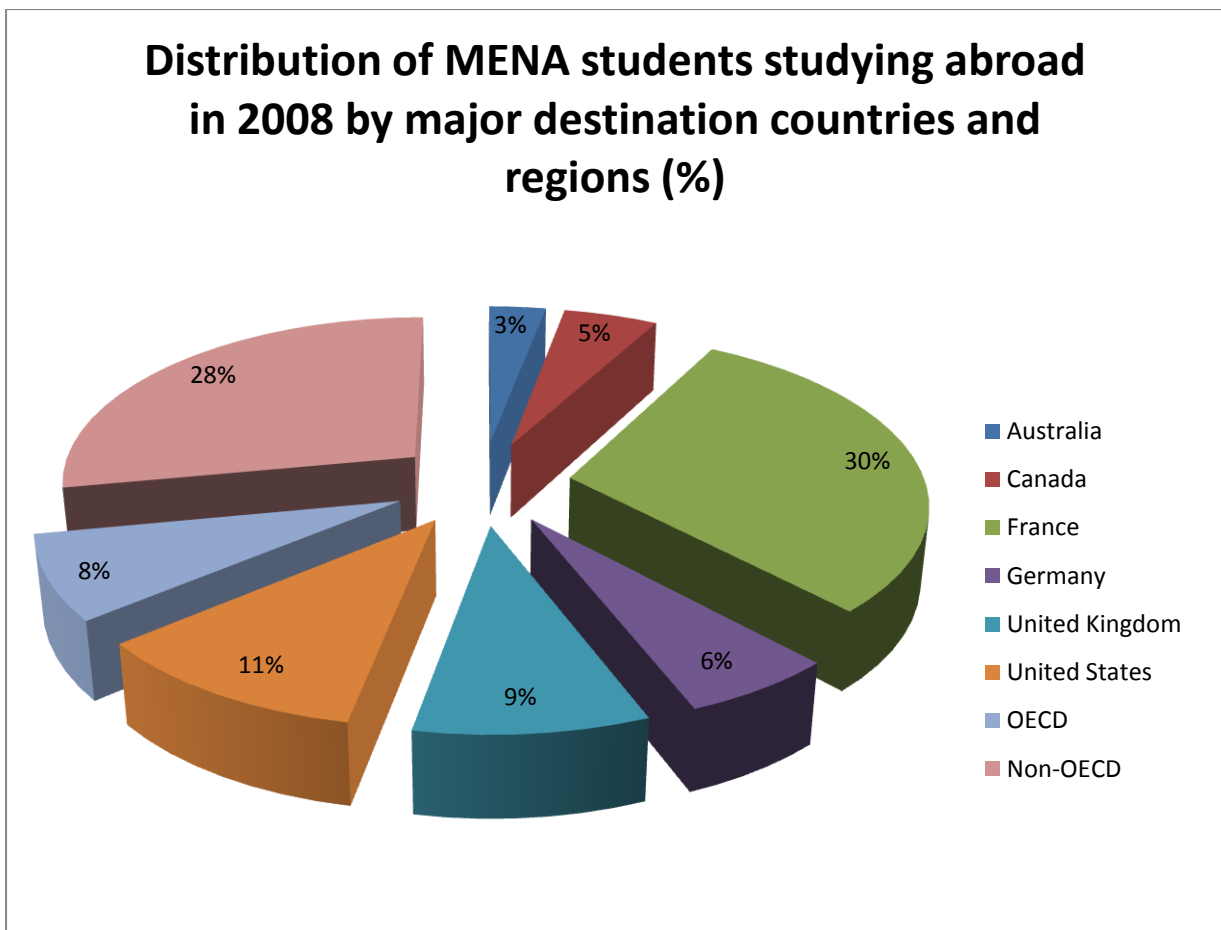
Figure 2.5: Distribution of MENA students studying abroad in 2008 by major destination countries and regions (%)

Source: Source: Jaramillo (2011:6)

The above chart, which is clarified in the table below, shows the growth of the outbound student mobility of MENA students.

Table 2.10: The growth of the outbound student mobility of MENA students

Australia	3%
Canada	5%
Germany	6%
OECD	8%
United Kingdom	9%
United States	11%
France	30%

Source: The author's creation

Unlike other countries which prefer the MESDs, MENA students seem to migrate more to France and the non-OECD countries. MENA students are also fairly distributed in other destinations. This is a sign that the MENA region is gradually growing into an education market.

The Middle East is also a destination for students from other regions. There are specific reasons why the Arab world accepts international students, especially from America. The Arab universities are generally said to be committed to facilitating and supporting the learning and understanding of the Arabic language, Islam, and the Arab culture. Students who attend Arabian universities are obliged to learn the Arabic language, and it is believed that these students would spread the knowledge of the Arabic world to the international community. The other reason is the question of identity. Like the Chinese who want the world to see China through their students, the Arabs desire to be identified through their language. This is one of the reasons why many Arabs are somewhat disappointed that, at university level, a number of disciplines such as medicine, engineering, and other sciences are taught in English, or in some places in French, instead of in Arabic, despite legal stipulations that Arabic should be the official language of instruction (Buckner, 2011:25).

A report by Kull (2011) in the *Cable News Network* (CNN) (September 5, 201) states that the Arab world feels it needs the U.S.A. to understand them on fundamental issues, including the question of Palestine, the Arab-Israeli conflict, the role of women, and the image and message of Islam. The belief therefore implies that the more American and other Western students there are on campus, the more the opportunities for the kinds of person-to-person encounter that would make understanding possible. In other words, as much as the Arabs seek to be understood by the Americans, they also hope to understand the American culture better.

On the other hand, American students seek the true view of the Middle East. The move especially follows the 9/11 attack on the World Trade Centre. Hundreds of American students are venturing to the Middle East, eager to learn Arabic, study Islam, and cut through media stereotypes, as they prepare for careers as investigators or as America's envoys to the MENA region.   An example is that of the America University of Cairo, whose enrolment of American students has doubled. Just as discussed in this study about the international students, the Egyptian government also benefits from an influx of students. The 9/11 event is a big 'push' factor into student mobility to the Middle East, because the young students have a practical approach to the understanding of issues in the Middle East (Ledwith 2012; *The New York Times* August, 2010).

The number of American students choosing to study abroad in the Middle East is said to have increased by 9.2 %, though the region is host to a little more than 1 % of the total number of U.S. students studying abroad (Lamine, 2010:18). The report shows the number of U.S. students rising dramatically in countries such as Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and the U.A.E., which Lamine (2010:18) indicates have more than 80% of the non-public sector of higher education and training, although the total numbers are still low. The understanding here is that American students are migrating more to the MENA institutions of higher learning than to other countries.

In the *Comparative and Higher Education Newsletter*, Buckner (2011:25) points out the importance of noting that the Arab States seem to have a similar rhetoric, that of wanting to be understood and to understand the Western World, especially America. But at the same time, the sub-Arab countries seem to be pursuing different

higher education reforms, focusing on expanding access, improving quality, or creating elite international institutions, such as the King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST). The Middle East's policy on student migration is, however, not clear.

Buckner (2011:25) observed that a growing body of literature is emerging on higher education in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) regions, but very little research focuses on why different states are pursuing various policies, and on the student migration policy, or how recent reforms are affecting the young people or changing their expectations, options, or experiences in higher education. Perhaps the youth's demands and expectations have been demonstrated by recent riots in Tunisia, Egypt, and Libya. It is still worth investigating which factors shape the nations' higher education policies, including student mobility, and how the youth who usually migrate for higher education are responding to the reforms taking place in the MENA region.

2.4.5.2 Conclusion

The Middle East and the North Africa regions are emerging as international student destinations for higher education. However, because of the regions' political and religious policies, the numbers of the inbound students are still very low. The researcher of this study found very little information on the American student migration to the MENA, and hardly any literature on the other countries. Students from America as the major market for international students, has its own reasons for wanting to study in the Middle East. Based on the article on *Myths and Facts* (Bard, 2013) in the Middle East, one of the reasons is that the Americans desire to know the truth about the MENA, and do not rely on media information. The reasons also seem to be more political than anything else. One of the findings of the current study is that migration for educational purposes is to stay and work in the host country after graduating. The question is whether the students would be willing to stay and work in the Middle East. While the politics and religion seem to be a unifying factor in MENA region, individual countries could come up with their own policies on student

migration in order to attract international students to specific countries. Perhaps the Middle East needs to come up with policies that support student mobility if the region is to become active in the student migration network and process. The MENA countries could collaborate and come up with a common agenda, perhaps similar to the Erasmus programme in the Euro-zone or the Protocol of Southern African Development Community (SADC) in order to promote international and inter-regional student migration in the region.

2.5 THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY

The assumption is that foreign students would return home after having assimilated not only expertise but they also would have established a strong link with the country where they earned their academic degree. This is important in the U.K. today because it strengthens its position on the world stage as a popular higher education destination. Hosting international higher education students emphasises the U.K.'s sphere of influence. To some extent the U.K.'s popularity as a destination for higher education by international students is greatly reduced, especially with China and India emerging as potential new destinations. However, the U.K. maintains a global network of people who have the experience and understanding of that country through its education system. Those people continue to be a way of facilitating indirectly the U.K.'s global influence in higher education (Fernandes, 2006:135).

Fernandes (2006:134-135) also points out that education institutions also benefit from the powerful international alumni who act as ambassadors, reinforcing recruitment messages in terms of career advancement. Examples of the countries that benefit from alumni are the three major international destinations, with the U.K. as an example of the most international influence through alumni who act as ambassadors to the British sphere of influence.

In the summary of the research done for the Ministry of Education in New Zealand, Ward (2001) says that international students provide quality and efficiency through competition. The suggested reason for the view is that those organizations operating internationally are normally more competitive than those that trade domestically. The

above view is similar to what Tom, the vice-chancellor of the University of Fort Hare in South Africa said, namely that Zimbabwean students are doing quite well; both the under-graduate and the post-graduate students" (*The Herald*, January 29, 2010) at his university. Good performance, among other reasons, gives a university a respectable name, and thus provides a reason as to why the university recruits international students.

Ranking of universities is important because the students sometimes choose destinations according to the institutions' ranks position. Shepherd (2012), Research Director for the British Council's Education Intelligence, in *QS Top Universities* (September 12, 2012), says that, "Students are looking for a 'value add', beyond the qualification they obtain to help them stand out from the crowd when it comes to employment". Thus, the more a country's universities are ranked highly, the more popular the destination. The U.S.A. and the U.K. are clear examples of rank popularity. While there might be challenges, the advantages of hosting students count more.

International students contribute to the academic richness of programmes by making certain courses to remain open in the possibility where there are shifts. King, Findlay and Ahrens (2010:10) say that international students often keep departments and programmes open by having enough numbers of students that ensure long-term viability of the departments.

Jarmul's article in *Duke Today* (June 5, 2013) is in line with the belief that the bigger the number of international students on campus the more international the institution is. He indicates how international students on campus benefit their U.S. classmates by sharing cultural experiences. Similarly, Spanier (2006:5-6) outlines the importance of international students to Penn State University for the college's global internationalization. Thus, destination countries have programmes that promote international student mobility, which results in the benefits enjoyed by these countries. The challenges assist in making the destination remain vibrant.

2.6 GENERAL OBSERVATIONS IN INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MIGRATION

A number of general observations which help in the understanding of why the governments have taken so much interest in student migration have been made and these help to understand why the governments have taken   much interest in student migration. There are a variety of ways of measuring internationalisation. These days, on the part of governments and institutions of higher learning, internationalisation of education (and research) is closely linked to economic competitiveness, the quest for global status, and soft power. Economic and political rationales are increasingly the key drivers for national policies related to international higher education, while academic and social/cultural motivations appear to be decreasing in importance. There are also observations which help the understanding of what motivates students to migrate for higher education. Some of these motivations are summarised below (Knight, in Murray et al., 2011:32).

2.6.1 Motivations driving the demand and supply of international students

A demand for international students exists for various reasons. International students in the top host countries like the U.S.A. and U.K. are especially valuable to these markets, as the students pay premium fees for obtaining their degree, up to three times the amount charged to local students (Lall in Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:8). The inflow of international students, therefore, injects financial resources into the host country economies, in addition to providing the much needed funds for the functioning of private institutions. The current research indicates (cf. 2.4.4.2) the findings on the estimate funds contributed to the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia through fees and other charges paid by international students.

Khadria (in Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:8) articulates that an important motivation for attracting foreign students is that they raise the performance standards of these universities, which is vital, as it bears a positive influence on their global ranking. International students help in maintaining competitiveness in higher education. Usually universities enrol the brightest international students. Arthur and Piatt

(2010:7) indicate that these students, together with the very best local students are vital to stimulating an intellectual environment that characterizes leading institutions. The researchers also point out that international students decide on their destination of study, basing their choice largely on their measurement of the overall quality of a country's higher education institutions. This way there is growing global competition for the best international students. The drive behind migration is that the quality of an institution must be high. The 'pull' of the host is attracting the best and the brightest from outside. This 'pull' then raises the performance standard, and places the institution higher on the rank of universities.

On another note, policies seem to be designed in favour of student migration in higher education. In some cases it is due to the deteriorating demographic trend of the most developed nations. Research (Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:8) indicates that ageing countries have experienced a gradual lapse in economic growth, alongside a number of related negative economic trends. The same source indicates that ageing countries not only look at the inflow of working-age adults but also recruit labour force through student mobility. (Malmberg, Tamas, Bloom, Munz & Canning, 2006:7-8; 62-63; 100-106). Thus, there is a way of to bringing together migration and development policies in a more positive way. Hawthorne (in Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012: 8-9) observes that as fertility rates remain below replacement level in the OECD countries, a shrinking workforce is bound to "intensify labour-market impacts". That is why ageing countries end up having a serious need to attract migrants, including students, who would form a vital component of their labour force in the years to come. A similar example in the current research is that of China (cf. 2.4.4.4) which, apart from its aging population, has adopted the one-child policy. The policy further impacts negatively on China's workforce. Respectively, these countries with an ageing workforce nearing retirement, coupled with a low fertility rate are heading towards a shrinking workforce and population. Since the occurrence intensifies with time, a policy change in migration, especially for international students, seems to be the answer.

The changes in the education policy perspective in the European context have led to a growing interest in recruiting international students who are non-European. The

recruitment of non-European students is a change from educational programmes which have always promoted regional or intra-European mobility. The implementation of the Bologna Process and the success of the ERASMUS Programme in 1987 is an example of the success of the mobility of students within Europe (Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012: 8-9). Policy change is the governments' responsibility. It can, therefore, be said that the adoption of the above policies shows the European governments' interest in the benefits associated with student mobility.

2.6.2 Factors that determine the students' choice of destination

Hazelkorn (2011:126-128) indicates that students first choose their destination of study before deciding on the college or university. The writer indicates a number of key factors that influence the students' choices. The view given above may be the reason why international students are more concentrated in some destinations than in others.

In an article in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (January 5, 2011), Ashburn says family connections help some students consider specific universities for study. In other words, the legacy factor plays an important role in where one ends up studying. Students prefer to go to a college where their parents, grandparents, or relatives have studied before. As the above writer says, the legacy status of any kind matters more at the most-selective and least-selective colleges. This practice, thus, influences student migration.

Whether it is through legacy or the personal choice of a university, students seek to get the best from their results by getting rewarding employment. Thus, the students apply to and enrol at what they believe to be the best institutions of higher learning. The *Pathways to Prosperity* (2011:27-32) gives explanatory examples of how students choose colleges which offer rewards later. The choice can be said to reward both the individual through remuneration at work, and the country that offers the graduates jobs. The family enjoys the pride of a member who attended a prestigious institution of higher learning.

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A well-recognized university matters to both students and their families. Students often perceive an institutional legacy of some kind in which implicit ranking of institutional prestige is closely associated with entry scores (Hazelkorn, 2009:14-18). In relation to the above view, students tend to give preference to highly ranked institutions. Perhaps this is why students from Zimbabwe migrate to South Africa for higher education, given how South African universities rank, not only in Africa but also in the world.

Institutional reputation plays a key role in the students' belief in getting an important job (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012:10). Companies prefer to employ students from institutions they trust. On the other hand, institutional reputation also plays a big role in the institution's reputation of social and professional success. People tend to associate with those they attended college with and with those they have something in common professionally. The profile of the country where one studied, and whether the qualifications are recognised by future employers, count as well. The above information brings one to the understanding that students attach great importance to the labour market, and to career prospects.

Ambition and the influence of socio-economic status also determine where students will study. A good number of students are supported by personal or family funds, therefore prices and costs count. Students choose destinations, depending on the sources of their funds and their grades at high school. Any participation in ERASMUS requires additional family resources, and students from less affluent families may be unable to participate in the programme (Nogueira, 2010:52). Prestigious institutions usually enrol and pay for the brightest students. Personal or family funds, for the majority, go to the best but most affordable colleges.

The students also consider the quality of the facilities and the social life on offer. A university with up-to-date facilities is always the place to study at (the facilities at the University of Zimbabwe are dilapidating). The social life of the institution of study should also prepare the students for life after college. Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges and Hayek (2006:75-86) indicate how grades and graduation determine a student's post-college outcome. They say that the effects of college are cumulative and mutually shaping as the student's cognitive growth seems to be influenced by a

variety of experiences and conditions on a campus, particularly when out-of class climates and experiences complement and encourage the students to integrate what they learn in class with their lives outside the classroom. In a way getting a degree has the greatest influence on the student's life after university.

Currently the world is inclined towards economic and business issues. The same issues influence students' choice of what to study. The location of a destination for study is yet another factor the students consider in the choice of where to study. This depends of what is most convenient to them (Wilkins & Huisman, 2011:5-6). 'Convenience' comes in the form of affordability and other social issues in the university that contribute to preparing the students for the world of work. For example Asian students would rather study in Singapore and Malaysia (cf. 2.4.4.9) than in Australia, because either the studies in these places are affordable, or their religious beliefs and practices are close to those in those destinations.

Peers, just like the family, play a part in student's choice of whereto to migrate for higher education. For example, some students like to study with their old friends, making life easier for them for they would not feel too lonely. The idea of studying with friends from the same high school or the same area helps the students in coping with unfamiliar experiences. In an article entitled *Violence against Indian Students in Australia: a Question of Dignity* (May 9, 2010) Mason says how international students can suffer loneliness in foreign countries because of isolation. The writer also refers to the experience of Indians who were attacked on racial grounds in Australia in 2010. *The Rediff News* (October 26, 2012) has an article which reads *Indians have become the Focus of Racist Attacks in Australia* which discusses the same attacks. In such circumstances of international students, friends become the source of consolation. Thus, studying with friends gives students moral support.

2.6.3 'Drivers' of student mobility

Several reasons exist why students end up migrating for higher education. This section discusses some of these 'drivers' in relation to the international student mobility.

One of the 'drivers' of student migration is the economic development in some countries. As a country's economy improves, the middle-class also grows. The growth of the middle-class implies the affordability of foreign higher education, for example in India (2.4.4.10(a)) where the rise in economy has created a middle-class who can afford to pay for the higher education of their children at a destination outside the country. To couple with the above observation, the one-child policy introduced in 1979 in China (though controversial) suggests that the parents can afford to pay the high fees required at foreign universities. In an article entitled 'China Considers Relaxing One-Child Policy' published in *The Guardian* (March 8, 2011), Branigan is of the opinion that the policy is unlikely to reverse the situation. Given the general quality of public higher education in China and India, a growing number of students seek quality education, and therefore look at foreign education markets.

Mukherjee and Chanda (2012:9-10) speak of how a serious shortage of recognised institutions in most developing countries is a result of the low levels of government expenditure on higher education. The limitations force the students into exploring other avenues to pursue their studies or further specialization. Migration to foreign universities is a major possibility.

2.6.4 Motivations driving the demand and supply of international students

Education, and especially higher education, previously used to be perceived as a necessity. For that reason, education was kept principally within national boundaries (Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:7-8). However, education is a service which is now viewed differently and has become a trade. Education, which includes higher education, is now generating income not only for countries but for providers of the service. International student mobility is now largely 'driven' by the market forces of demand and supply (just like any other goods), where students go to where they are needed for the provision of funds.

Maringe and Gibbs (2009:85-87) describe the belief and hope among people that higher education is the opportunity for the next generation to have a better quality of life. Given such a scrutiny backs up the outlook that says the fundamental value of

learning, which is merely education for knowledge, is becoming secondary to the tangible benefits associated with engaging with higher education. Some students desire to work for international organisations. That is why many universities, feeling the pressure to prepare the students for the world of work, incorporate strong business orientation work-based learning approaches (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:85-87). As Smart (2011:5-6) indicates, such institutions employ international work and study approaches as strategies to prepare their graduates for work in an international context. Universities with the approach stated above are popular destinations for international students. Such universities supply the business world with people with the knowhow of work.

Closely related to the above observation that students study degrees perceived to offer them the greatest financial reward in the world of work, is that families invest in education to ensure their children can access the opportunities promised when prosperity grows (Smart, 2011:5). The understanding is the suggestion that a comfortable life is associated with quality higher education relevant to the economic demands, namely high-paying employment. Comfortable life is what families seek to access through quality and appropriate higher education when they sacrifice and support members into migration for higher learning.

The students' choice to migrate is sometimes compelled by external factors. Sometimes higher education demands are not met in the students' native country. The demand for higher education, for example, is high and unmet in developing countries which include some countries in the Asiatic region. In India, the massification in higher secondary education does not balance with the limited enrolment in higher education (Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:9). This is one of the reasons why, despite efforts being made by the developing countries to meet the demand of higher education in local higher education, those who can afford fees in foreign education, migrate to where they can access quality education. They also migrate to countries whose higher education is also relevant to the current economic demand requirements. Most students from the developing countries have the perception that a foreign degree holds more weight than the local one, and thus increases one's chances of better employment.

Economic development and political instability fuels educational migration to countries that are more stable economically and politically (Maringe & Gibbs, 2009:90). Student migration caused by political instability in a country is harsh, especially when political instability unsettles the county's economy, which in turn affects the development of higher education. Usually institutions of higher learning fail to get the government's financial support for developing research and for introducing new programmes in a university. In such circumstances, one of the alternatives for the students is migration. Zimbabwe, which is currently a hotbed of economic and political instability, is likely to contribute to the migration of its students, especially to neighbouring South Africa.

The primary 'drive' from the analysis of the above views is that both the students and the institutions of higher learning intend to gain from higher education. How governments respond to the intensions of the students and the providers of higher education can influence, but not completely impede, student mobility (Smart, 2011:5-6). A fervent desire to gain qualifications that enhance global employment prospects influences the demand for specific study programmes. Students then migrate to where they believe to acquire the relevant qualifications which enable them to fit in the economic world.

2.7 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

2.7.1 Globalization and student migration

This section explores the notion of student migration from a theoretical perspective. It seems there is no consistence of globalization and internationalization in student migration. This research employs four theoretical perspectives borrowed from business, politics, and international relations, and assesses the extent to which they can be used to explain developments in student migration.

The theories to be explored are the World Systems Theory, the Polity Theory, the Culture Theory and the Neo-liberalism Theory. The section on the theoretical

perspectives mainly borrows its explanations from the work of Maringe and Foskett (2010:20-210).

2.7.2 The World Systems Theory

The World Systems Theory assumes that the world is divided into three areas or layers (Maringe & Foskett, 2010: 20-21; Robinson 2011:6-17). The first area is the core which constitutes the super-rich nations. In this research the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia constitute the core in higher education, and they set the standards. Among other activities, these countries promote research and development. These nations have an advanced expertise in respect to higher education. They dictate and control not only the world's economic ideas and financial systems, but also have elite universities which belong to cartels, such as the Ivy League in the U.S.A. and the Russell Group in the U.K. These universities 'keep' to their leagues as a strategy for the preservation of purity and the maintenance of the group's *status quo.* Quality higher education is measured according to their standards. Entry into the league of universities is not easy and is jealously guarded. The three regions of higher education, namely the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia, house the greater number of 'world-class' universities. Having World class universities is the reason why some governments in south Asia and Japan aspire to bring some of their universities to the level of this top-notch standard, thus confirming the view that higher education regions in the 'core' determine the standards of education.

It is not easy for migrant students to enrol at these elite universities, because countries in the 'core' (the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia) dominates and exploits weak and poor 'peripheral societies' even in higher education. Just as the 'core' has the power to erect trade barriers and quotas, the same 'core' has measures such as the visa policies, and charge high fees from international students as a check on, and a measure of student mobility. Very few and usually only the very bright students are selected and enrolled in the 'core' universities, a deviant move from the original idea of the university. The developing nations lose some of their best students to universities in the 'core'. In the case of Zimbabwe, it is only the very best who are

enrolled at universities in countries that are more developed than itself. The impact of the 'pull' into these 'better' universities is that the higher education of the 'core' country remains to be established (Martinez-Vela, 2001:4).

The second layer in the World Systems Theory is known as the 'semi-periphery'. The layer comprises of a group of poor countries that operates on the fringes and margins of poverty and underdevelopment (Robinson, 2011:7-9). The 'peripheral' countries, which are generally poor, depend on the 'core' countries. Human migration patterns, which include student migration, are generally from the poor to the rich countries. The recruitment patterns to universities follow the same model. The results in the preservation of the *status quo* in those universities in the periphery are, on the one hand, always struggling to recruit staff, and on the other hand, they have to do with the remnants of the students. The 'periphery' always struggles. Most of Africa's universities fall in this category.

Some countries between the core and the periphery are neither very rich nor very poor. The *Boundless* (2013) points out that the countries in the 'middle' have the characteristics of both the 'core' and the 'peripheral' countries. On the one hand they have very rich traits, and on the other they have very poor features. In times of conflict they are used as a safeguard for the countries in the 'periphery'. For example, many Zimbabwean students wish to migrate to the U.K., but there are barriers such as screening and visas against their desire. The students are cushioned in the buffer or 'in between layer' if they cannot be enrolled at universities in the 'core'. Zimbabwean students find an alternative in South Africa's universities. They base their choice on the augment that at least they have studied at better universities. The World Systems Theory explains the irony in the recruitment of international students, namely that higher education is expected to improve the lives of people, but actually maintains and encourages the gap between the learned and the not so learned. Those expected to develop their own countries are incorporated into the 'core' through education. Thus, poor countries loose prospective human resources to the core.

The World Systems Theory is linked to the World Polity Theory in explaining the international student mobility.

2.7.3 The World Polity Theory

McNeely (2012:1) says that the World Polity Theory is an analytical frame for interpreting global relations, structures and practices. The researcher gives the impression that the world is a system of interrelated and interdependent units of transnational interaction and global social change. It can be understood that any structure and any practice in the world are related to one another. Student migration is one of the world structures that interact with other constructs in the global social change. Student migration also finds explanation in the World Polity Theory.

Maringe and Foskett (2010:21) indicate that the world is a politically organised society. Within that society there is a growing political isomorphism across nations, a similarity of the same lifestyle. This view agrees with that of Keck and Sikkink (1999:98-100), who indicate that states are not individual units, but there are interactions among individuals, groups, actors from states, and regional and international institutions. Likewise, institutions of higher learning explain structural isomorphism in the face of enormous differences in resources and traditions, just like in the world of politics. For example, universities in most of the emerging hubs cannot compete with those in the traditional student migration destinations. Political lifestyles across the world seem to be similar, the interconnectedness and inter-reliance is evident in how countries continuously adopt new world models in higher education through student migration. As stated earlier in this research (cf. 2.5.) international students keep faculties and departments open and competitive, giving an explanation to the World Polity Theory in student migration.

Every nation which has a government and ministries with different responsibilities, and all countries also have constitutions, in which they codify their sovereignty. Governments also create economic, social and cultural data in very standard formats (Alasuutari, 2011:4). Some countries coerce the democratic process by manipulating the outcome of elections. As long as the supposedly 'right' people are placed in power to rule, the means of placement of these people is inconsequential. Similarly, universities aspire to be considered international institutions. For example, Japan's *Global 30* Policy aims at identifying and finding a group of core universities with impressive research and education profiles so as to make them attractive to

international students. Japan aims at identifying and finding a group of core universities (Douglass & Edelstein, 2009:5-6). Japan intends to compete in the top level on the world market for international students. International education tends to be conformists in practice with the standards set by the developed countries. The U.K. boasts not only of its quality universities but also of its degrees which are recognised internationally. The U.S.A. is proud of its world-class universities. As Maringe and Foskett (2010:21) indicate, universities across the world hold dearly onto the fundamental freedoms related to teaching what they want, to whom they choose, and in a way they consider best. Universities also have the three-fold mission of teaching, research and service. Thus it can be argued that the aim to identify and find a group of core universities is ideological isomorphism in universities, in regard to their mission, social relevance and purpose, which finds explanation through the World Polity Theory.

It can be concluded that the World Polity Theory explains student mobility in that institutions' management and student markets' focus affect students similar to how politics determines the country's stance. The mission statements and teachings of the universities attract students in different ways, determining their choice of what to study and the destinations to study what they choose.

The World Polity Theory links to the World Culture Theory in the ideological sense.

2.7.4 The World Culture Theory

The World Culture Theory is the key element in cultural resources of any group (Maringe & Foskett, 2010:21). Carney, Rappleye and Silova (2012:366-393) indicate that the World Culture Theory seeks to explain a perceptible convergence of education through a neo-institutionalist lens, seeing global rationalization in education as driven by the logic of science and the myth of progress. In relation to the above sources, it can be understood that culture is complex because it comprises everything that defines a specific group of people in terms of beliefs, norms and values. The world is steadily becoming culturally homogeneous (Maringe & Foskett, 2010:21) following the Western culture. Similarly, student migration is

becoming an international culture in that it is becoming a way of life in higher education. While the traditional destinations maintain their position at the top, the emerging hubs strive to have a share in the market for international students. At the same time it seems to have become traditional for many students to desire to study at the traditional destinations, namely the U.K., the U.S.A. and Australia.

Universities are becoming culturally homogeneous, and international student mobility contributes to this cultural development (Arafat, Forrester & Pencheva, 2010:27-28). For example, English is becoming the preferred language in teaching and communication. The English language is one of the 'pulls' for international students to the MESDCs. At the same time science and mathematics tend to occupy positions of strength and influence in universities. The possible reason is, as *The Global Competitiveness Report* (2011-2012:3, 10-14) implies, that these subjects tend to influence specific demands on the job market. In the traditional destination countries where there is an option for international students to stay and work after graduating, it is usually the students of science and mathematics who are offered jobs.

Another form of culture is where universities share a belief about being independent centres. However, this may imply that universities are permissive and open. Maringe and Foskett (2010:21-2) cite the growth of Jihad, an Islamic force designed to oppose Western culture forms and influence, and indicate that universities are becoming potential epicentres for the development, strengthening and spreading of Jihad as both a political and cultural ideology. Student migration assists in the development of cultures.

2.7.5 The Neo-liberal Theory of Globalization

Neo-liberalism pertains to freeing the trade between countries so that trade relations may operate on the basis of free-market principles. The free-markets are said to be characterised by particular technologies of governance which facilitate the internalisation of neoliberal subjectivities, leading people to regulate and police their own conduct in a variety of social arenas (Cahill, 2010:1). Yet, the free-market is a human-contrived ideology, because it does not occur naturally. Because it is created

by people, there is always someone in control of the major decisions. In education such decisions are always vested with large international corporate organisations such as the World Trade Organisation (WTO), the Organisation for Economic and Cultural Development (OECD), the World Bank (WB), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), all of which are Western Organisations. In higher education the controlling organisations include the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) and the Consortium of Financing Higher Education (COFHE) (Maringe & Foskett, 2010:21). The controlling organizations give pre-eminence to economic relations, and limit the widening access and contribution from across the globe. The above authors also say that the interests of the transnational corporation and financial elite receive the attention of the controlling organizations because of the large amount of money they contribute in higher education. The free-market is based on the notion of profit, which has resulted in the mechanization of knowledge under conditions that subjected higher education to the pressures of a global market. The thinking of trading in higher education opens up the world as a market-place. In the case of student migration, neo-liberalism centres only on those in privileged positions, and those who can afford to pay high fees and expensive travelling costs to specific destinations for the purpose of study. Chessa (2012:70) says that even in the Erasmus programme, differences in family incomes by country of origin indicate that in some countries student mobility is more common among the social strata with higher income levels. The researcher says that the uneven distribution of resources represented by the use of the Erasmus programme, defines a differentiation of the weak, the bearers of a shortage of material and cultural resources, and exhibits a reduced capacity to function both at the level of choice, and at the level of the use of training resources. The above explanation illustrates how rough such moves neo-liberalism perpetuates global inequalities, where the developed countries have control even in education, which is expected to bring people to equality. The examples of the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia as the dominant controllers of international student migration have been discussed.

The *Wikipedia* website on *neo-liberalism* says that neo-liberalism is a political philosophy whose advocates support economic liberalization, free trade and open

markets, privatization, deregulation, and decreasing the size of the public sector whilst increasing the role of the private sector in modern society. In a way, neo-liberalism limits the role of the state in decisions about trade and business. Neo-liberalism evaluates the role of the international organizations in overseeing international trade. Some universities are partnered with commercial and business corporations to create knowledge that has economic value. The partnership is similar to what Likins (no date) says, in a website blob entitled *Corporate Partnership: What's in it for the University?,* that professors and students develop an understanding of the physical phenomenon and communication strategies. Likins (no date) says universities and the commercial and the business world then work in partnership with technical people in industry in the kind of dialogue that permits each party to understand what the other has to contribute. The Neo-liberalism Theory relates to student migration in the sense that the students' destinations are universities which offer the type of knowledge that would later enable them to be employed in profit-generating jobs. Universities follow the decisions of the controlling organizations and these are based in the developed countries. The developed countries control the trade which includes higher education, hence impacting on student migration.

The above theories have a common relationship in relating to the student migration process which is *control.* The World Systems Theory divides the world into three sections, namely the core, the semi-periphery and the periphery. The core acts like a magnet that draws the two outer layers to itself. In international student migration the main destination countries control the rest.

The World Polity Theory explains how the world is politically organised with ideologies similar in their form. Institutional practices, such as being in the world's top-notch of universities, is important in higher education. Thus, institutions of higher learning make efforts to be just like the top and controlling institutions in order to attract large numbers of international students - a sign of power. Universities follow particular practices such as placing the emphasis on science subjects. The cultures are developed over a long period. The cultures are emulated and imitated especially in the emerging hubs. The imitation of culture exemplifies how established

universities of the traditional higher education detonation countries wield power over the up-coming universities. The developed countries control the developing countries' student migration through controlling organisations which give pre-eminence to economic relations. Theories have something in common with myths that are related to student mobility.

2.7.6 The implications of these theories for the study

The above theories imply that student mobility occurs as a result of a 'push' by external forces. The 'push' may be direct or indirect. The theories also imply that developing nations seem to be under the influence of developed countries. The former determine what directions the poorer countries should take, including in respect of higher education. All the same the developing countries aspire to reach the level of the 'super' nations. The theoretical framework discussed above suggests that the countries that are developing in higher education can only reach the levels determined by the core. Zimbabwe is a developing country whose higher education could be better if it was more stable economically.

Having considered the determinants by the leading international student destinations, this research attempts to establish how Zimbabwe's higher education is affected by the impact of student migration. It is hoped that the findings may help the policymakers of Zimbabwe to plan for student migration for the benefit of the country.

2.8 MYTHS RELATED TO STUDENT MIGRATION

The recruitment of fee-paying overseas students is in some instances believed to raise the levels of internationalization, and has been equated with the numbers of international students on campus (Murray et al., 2011:32). This view has led to the posing of a number of myths about internationalization, and how they relate to student migration.

It is believed that foreign students are internationalization agents, and that more foreign students on campus produce a more internationalized institutional culture and curriculum. As Maringe and Foskett (2010:2) indicated, internationalization in higher education constitutes a group of strategic responses to globalization, intensifying curriculum internationalization process-results in making university education more attractive. It therefore helps to increase student mobility in recruitment markets. While the above explanation seems to hold, there is more to it than merely international students that calls for an internationalized institutional culture.

Another belief is in the publication *The Impact of International Students on Domestic Students and Host Institutions* (2001) in which Ward indicates that if an institution has a large number of international students, with an accommodating curriculum and network memberships, among other things, then it is believed to be of a high standard. In other words, the international reputation of an institution is a replacement for quality. However, a reputation may be a result of the family and peer influence, in addition, students making their own choice of where to study. There seems to be no specific instrument to measure quality in some institutions because the reasons for individual students choosing study destinations are different. In relation to the above explanation, it is yet to be established what attracts Zimbabwean students to South Africa.

Students tend to believe in institutions to which people they know have studied (Munk, 2009:2-10). The belief is founded in the prestige of the university and the reputation attracts the students to the institutions. The students are likely to boast about studying at institutions which they believe to be of a higher class in terms of curriculum that is offered.

According to Stella and Woodhouse (2006:117-18), students may choose an institution to migrate to because of the position of the university in the ranking of institutions. The students believe that the more accreditation stars an institution has, the more internationalized it is. Standards are set by people, and those who hold positions of influence may come up with what they want to be believed about institutions. The students choose institutions of study because of the high standards

before. Students believe in university accreditation. It should be taken into consideration that accreditation rises and falls, depending on circumstances.

The fifth myth in respect of international student mobility is the global branding. Examples are the Ivy group of universities in the U.S.A. and the Russell league of the U.K. This research borrows the explanation by Knight (in Murray et al., 2011:32) that the purpose of an institution's internationalisation efforts is to improve its global brand or standing. Entry into universities in the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia is not that easy. There is a belief among students from countries like Zimbabwe that it is a great achievement if one is accepted into any of those who are accepted into the Ivy and the Russell leagues. Many international students attempt entry into these institutions of higher learning. The belief in the global branding of universities can be explained through the Neo-liberal Theory of globalization which says specific groups of people in position of authority and influence determine what should be done even in higher education.

According to Murray et al., (2011:33) a common element in many of these myths is that the benefits of internationalization or the degree of internationality can be measured quantitatively. The quantities come in the number of international students at a particular institution, or the numbers and types of courses offered, for instance (Green, 2012:9-10). But while quantitative measures may be useful, especially to meet the requirements for accountability, they may not capture the intangible performance of students, faculty and research. The quantitative measures may also not persuade all individual people about the significant benefits of internationalisation. Competitiveness, rankings, and commercialism are contributing to driving the internationalisation of education. Students' beliefs about studying in a foreign university and the value and advantages of degrees acquired from those universities influence student migration.

2.9 HOW THE GOVERNMENTS MOTIVATE STUDENT MIGRATION

This section is based on Smart's (2011:10-12) findings on how governments influence student mobility. The discussion brings up what governments can do about student migration. The examination also shows governments' limitations in the student migration process. The above researcher indicates that, whether inbound or outbound, governments can influence global student mobility by means of various ways.

Governments can open up new sources from which to find international students interested in studying in their countries. The opening of destinations comes in the form of initiatives that attract international students. The U.S.A. and Australia in some cases offer students employment after completing their studies, something which many of the students look forward to. Governments advertise themselves on website, for example, in order to attract as many international students as possible.

Governments can close off or strangle access to a destination country. For example this chapter discusses how the visa polices of both the U.K. and Australia have discouraged potential students to those countries. Thus, the policies governments adopt can either encourage or discourage international student mobility to their countries

Government can open up entirely new destinations for incoming students. An example is that of Asia and the Middle East which are new destinations attracting international students. More international students are also migrating to the Baltic States, which have become members of the E.U., for higher education. The students include those studying under the Erasmus programme.

Governments consider demand and regulate the numbers of inbound student in order to reduce flows. In Zimbabwe and other countries, the U.S.A., the U.K. and other international destinations, the embassies screen the applicants before issuing visas. The destination countries may not supply enough information on the demand side and the aspiring applicants remain ignorant about the destination country.

The students' choice of courses can be influenced by governments. They can offer some courses which may result in the employability of students after completing their studies due to the fact that information and knowledge are applied differently in different countries. There have been examples of this in Zimbabwe.

However, one move government cannot do is to deter student mobility. The process is an on-going one and one way or the other students find their entry into one of the international destinations. While students may find it difficult to be accepted into one destination, an alternative one opens up.

2.10 CONCLUDING REMARKS

After studying various documents, the researcher comes to the conclusion that student migration in the international arena is on an on-going process and it is an unstoppable track.

In summary, the literature reviewed gave rise to the following conclusions:

- The migration of people for the purpose of study is not a new phenomenon. People have always left their homes to seek knowledge and academic life, and their movement is a key factor towards education and research.

- Student mobility started as an individual venture when individuals migrated in search of knowledge, but has ended up with varied stakeholders including governments and private providers of higher education taking interest in it through support of student migration.

- Globalization and internationalization influence changes and acceleration in student mobility trends, growth and magnitude in the process.

- The circumstances surrounding the major hosting international destinations and emerging hubs might help understand the current Zimbabwean student migration and what effect it has on higher education of that country.

The literature revealed general views in international student migration, which include the fact that governments have taken an interest in student mobility because of the economic and political rationales of the process. The economic competitiveness, the global status and soft power seem to be the major reasons why governments have an interest in student migration. The private stakeholders such as those who own private universities have turned the student migration process into a business enterprise.

Motivations exist that are driving the current demand and supply of international students. Together with the policies in higher education are the factors that determine the students' choices of study destinations. These may help to understand why Zimbabwean students consider when they choose to migrate into South Africa for study.

Since there seems to be no uniformity of globalization patterns in respect of student migration, this research employed four theoretical perspectives, borrowed from the business, politics, and international relations perspectives in order to explain developments in student migration. Student mobility found explanation in theories from the business sphere.

The discussion analysed five myths which relate to student migration. The myths seem, on the one hand, to influence the students' decisions to migrate. On the other hand, the impressions of the myths give further justice to why student migration continues to exist. The myths match the reasons given for enrolling fee-paying international students in universities.

The governments may influence the students to migrate, whether inbound or outbound. This discussion is on inbound students. The literature review indicated that the government's influence cannot deter student mobility. The process is an on-going one, and the students will always find ways to migrate.

The next chapter will present student migration from an African perspective. It is believed that Africa's experience is different from that of the international regions of higher education. However, the international experience influences what happens in Africa. Zimbabwe, being an African member, is bound to share the African

experience. By combining the international and the African experience the researcher hopes to come up with an understanding of the effects of student migration to South Africa by Zimbabwean students, and also its impact on the country's higher education system.

CHAPTER 3

AFRICA'S PERCEPTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND STUDENT MIGRATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher will further attempt to give answers to the questions stated in Chapter 1 by means of a study of relevant literature. The research first aims to establish the general factors that contribute to the migration of students to so-called 'foreign' universities. This general outlook is a continuation of Chapter 2, but will be drawing examples on the effect of student migration, specifically in Africa. The research also is an effort to ascertain why Zimbabwean students are drawn to South African higher education institutions. These efforts are done with the aim of analysing the effects of the migration on the education system and the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe, in order that recommendations may be made for future policy guidelines for the development of the higher education of the country in relation to student migration.

In order to come up with possible answers, this chapter presents the characteristics of higher education and student migration in Africa. It also links Africa's and Zimbabwe's experience in respect of the international arena, discussed in Chapter 2. It is essential to give the background of higher education in Africa in order to understand Zimbabwe's situation. While various researchers have written widely on student migration, most of them merely discussed trends in international student mobility in and out of Africa from challenges to 'pushes' and 'pulls'. Information on Zimbabwean student migration, especially to South Africa, is very limited. However, the existing literature on the subject indicates that student migration does exist between the two countries, and that it may be possible that not much attention has been paid to it.

The marginalisation of Africa, which finds an explanation in the World Systems Theory, will also be discussed. The current research relates to Kishun's

(2007(b):457) observation namely that African institutions of higher learning see internationalisation as central to the development of the continent. On the other hand, Africa's dilemma is described as double-edged. The first setback is that of Africa's crippling past legacies. Another obstacle includes the policies of international development agencies such as the World Bank that seriously neglected African universities. The Bank even suggested at one point that the continent had no need for universities. Africa now faces new challenges posed by a globalising world (Botha, 2010:8; Kishun, 2007:457 & Moja, 2006:456).

The discussion in this chapter attempts to identify how Zimbabwe, as an African country, is disadvantaged in its higher education. The discussion will also attempt to expose other challenges that are faced in higher education of the country.

The reflection on Africa is an attempt to come up with an understanding of the Continent when compared to other world regions, restricting the discussion to student mobility. The view is based on the perception that Zimbabwe has gone through what other countries in Africa have experienced with regard to student mobility. However, there is the possibility that trends in the mobility process may not be the same in all the regions of Africa. Zimbabwe's experience of student mobility is closely related to that of the countries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC).

This chapter thus attempts an analysis of Africa's higher education and the place of Zimbabwe's student mobility in the SADC region. Zimbabwean students mainly migrate into South Africa for higher education. The attempt is expected to lead to the establishment of the effects of student migration to South African universities on Zimbabwe's higher education.

3.2 ORGANIZATION OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter discusses higher education and student migration in four major sections namely Africa in general, the SADC region, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The historical background of both higher education and student mobility are found under

these sub-divisions (cf. 3.3). The section on Africa is a general presentation of the origins of higher education and student migration on the continent. It shows the conception of institutions of higher learning (cf. 3.3.1) and how Africa is side-lined by the international world in matters of university education (cf. 3.4.2). The side-lining gives the impression that foreign higher education is more relevant to African students. Trends in student mobility on the continent (cf. 3.5), Africa's heritage from colonialism (cf. 3.6), the challenges (cf. 3.6.2), and the general 'drivers' into mobility (cf. 3.6.3) are examined. This is done in order to understand Africa's higher education.

A discussion on SADC attempts a consideration of student mobility and higher learning in this region (cf. 3.7). This research is on Zimbabwean students moving to South Africa, and thus, attempts to illustrate the place of both South Africa and Zimbabwe as members of SADC. By means of the illustration, it is hoped to help understand the effect of student migration of Zimbabwean students to South Africa.

Of all the countries in the SADC region, Zimbabwean students in particular, single out South Africa as a study destination. This is evident from South Africa's 'SADC Headcount Enrolments by Nationality' in *Internationalisation* (2004:8), which says that Zimbabwean students make out the largest percentage of international students in South Africa. Thus, it becomes important to consider higher education in South Africa (cf. 3.10) and then discuss the future of student mobility in the SADC region and the importance of South Africa in its capacity as a member of the region SADC (cf. 3.11).

The chapter ends with a discussion on Zimbabwe (cf. 3.12), beginning with the governance of education in the country (cf. 3.12.1). The review on the difference between the colonial and after-independence provision of higher education (cf. 3.12.2) leads to the reasons for the rise of student migration in the country (cf. 3.12.5). The chapter also discusses the trends in student migration in Zimbabwe (cf. 3.13) and goes on to discuss the reasons for the 'push' and 'pull' to South Africa, from the Zimbabwean perspective (cf. 3.13.4). The discussions include aspects of Zimbabwean students at South African universities (cf. 3.14), myths related to studying in South Africa (cf. 3.15), and the effects of student migration on individuals

and on higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 3.16). The government's efforts in respect of higher education development (cf. 3.17) are also reviewed before discussing the future of student migration in Zimbabwe (cf. 3.18). The concluding remarks (cf. 3.19) come up with suggestions from the literature on what could be done if student migration is to make a positive difference in the country.

3.3 A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND STUDENT MOBILITY IN AFRICA

This section is on the background of higher education and student migration in Africa. It shows the part played by colonialism in eliminating the original form of higher learning on the continent and the replacement of this higher learning with the type of education that suits the interests of the new ruler, the colonialist. The section also explains the response of the Africans to the new type of higher education, and the new influence in the field of education on the continent. The purpose for the explanation is to attempt to unearth the roots of the migration of Zimbabwean students to the higher education institutions in South Africa. This is done as an attempt to establish the effects of this migration on higher education of the country. It is also hoped that the findings may help policy-makers in the planning for both student migration and higher education in the country.

3.3.1 Background to higher education and student mobility in Africa

Research by Teferra and Knight (2008:44-45), Mohamedbhai (2008:2), and Keteku (2007:1) indicates that higher education in Africa existed long before colonization. The first forms of 'universities' are said to have been found in North Africa in Timbuktu, Ethiopia, and Egypt. These 'universities' encouraged the search for knowledge. The research also indicates that student mobility started in Egypt in the form of students travelling to centres of higher learning, such as Al-Azhar and Per-Ankh, around 2000 BC. Assié-Lumumba (2006:26) says that *Per-Ankh* is the ancient Egyptian name for 'schools' and 'libraries' where scribes prepared their hieroglyphic

texts. These institutions served to keep alive the memory of society and the accumulated knowledge of generations of scholars. An undated publication entitled *Per-Ankh: The Publishing Cooperative* says that today the Per-Ankh aims at the same ancestral principle of collaborative research through a publishing institute. The Per-Ankh seeks to unify values developed over a long time in history of the African people to incorporate these values in well-made works of art and scholarship. The art and the scholarship work are publicized over the continent and throughout the world so as to share the knowledge of Africa's traditional higher learning (Assié-Lumumba, 2006:26).

The above information implies that the fact that the work preserved in the Per-Ankh is not only for Africa but for the whole world attests the idea of the university. The first forms of the internationalizing of higher learning on the continent took place before the colonial scramble for Africa started. The travelling of students to centres of higher learning for the sake of knowledge implies the origins of student migration on the continent, the practice which still exists to date. However, the colonization of Africa changed the form of higher learning and the purpose of student migration (Ninnes & Hellstén, 2005:199-200). What is termed as 'student migration' today is an age-old activity which resulted from the search of knowledge. The relationship between international student migration and that of Africa is *change.* However, that *change* differs in that while current international and regional student migration changed for positive growth in higher education, Africa's form of migration for studies was eliminated before its effect were clearly witnessed. (Ninnes & Hellstén, 2005:199-200).

The above observation is supported by Lulat's (2005:3) view, namely that

> *...long before the arrival of European colonialism, those parts of Africa that possessed institutions of higher learning could boast of a tradition of higher education that included the belief that the education pursuit of knowledge for its own sake was a worthy endeavour that any society would want to encourage. ... following the arrival of colonialism, this approach to higher education (and student migration) jettisoned in favour of an exclusively utilitarian view of higher learning.*

The above information implies that the current recorded history of higher learning in Africa was written by the colonial rulers and not by the Africans themselves. The original African history seems to have been completely ignored (Lulat, 2005:3), thus giving prominence to the ideas of colonial powers which later turned into student mobility for higher education.

Chapter 2 (2.4.4.10(c)) of this research reminds us that the former colonial powers still wish to actualize their past policies. The discussion gives the example of Britain, the former colonial ruler of Bangladesh, and states that Bangladesh's higher education organization follows the former British mode (Abidi, 2012:4). Africa's higher education is similar to Bangladesh's experience. Assié-Lumumba (2006:25) clarifies the above observation by saying that the very nature of education as a social institution that plays a major role in the process of institutions rooted in the tradition and history of former colonial powers whose control is perpetual, and whose search for a permanent presence is actualised. The above view is shared by Basset and Maldonado-Maldonado (2009:156), who indicate that, historically, the colonial powers served as international gateways to the colonial entities that include higher education. The researchers base their argument on the observation that almost all the 'universities' started serve as overseas extensions of European metropolitan institutions. To date (2014) sometimes, what African students believe as 'proper' education is the western form. The colonial influence thus remains felt, and controls the continent. This may be the reason why migration for education is the first option to studying in the home country. This attitude is evident among most of the Zimbabwean students.

Consequently, Africa's efforts in respect of higher education and student migration are annulled. What remains glaring, as Lulat (2005:1-2) explains, is the record of mere seventy to eighty years of an information from colonial rule for much of Africa's higher learning. Lulat (2005:1-2) continues to say that the content does not embody the higher education and student migration's real meaning for a continent that spans millennia. The study suggests that Africa's higher education has always been underrated, an attitude which still affects the continent's knowledge acquisition to this day. Perhaps that is why African students prefer foreign higher education.

The origins of higher education in Africa differ very much from those of the rest of the world. The given example by Assié-Lumumba (2006:26-32) is that of the development of higher education centres in Medieval Europe, which developed from the leadership of Catholic religious institutions. Later the embryonic group of the bourgeoisie, (according to Assié-Lumumba, 2006:26-32) understood the relationship between education and economic systems, especially an education that would help produce the much needed human resources, to meet the growing economic needs. Yet, African higher education is different from that of the western world because it did not get a chance to spread in North Africa from where it had started because of brutal disruptive developments, such as slave trade. The colonial powers did not acknowledge Africa's form of education. Instead, they introduced their own ways of higher learning which left an imprint on the higher education of the continent. The destroying of the African way of higher learning is the initial reason for the rejection of European education in Africa, as it implied submission to the enslaving powers (Assié-Lumumba, 2006:26-32).

Based from the above information is the opinion that the Western higher education system proceeded unabated, Africa's was obliterated, and no form of it was ever taught again. With the movement of time, whatever was introduced as higher education in Africa was concurrently undermined with educational policies, such as those imposed by the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), resulting in the obligations of maintaining the colonial suppression on the continent. Thus, the subjugation of Africa that began with the slave trade continued with polices that were ill-suited to the demands of escaping the limitation of an externally-defined economic notion for Africa. Higher education and student migration liberated the international world, but Africa remained restrained because of the Western powers' desire of the control of the African region (Lulat, 2005:1-2).

3.3.2 Conclusion

Just as was observed in 2.3.1, higher education and student migration in Africa have a traceable history. However, what exists today as higher education in Africa is not

very close to its original form on the continent. Higher education has undergone transformation more than once, first as a result of the colonization of the continent, and then the changes resulting from experiences after the countries gained political independence. The two stages have resulted in the diverse reasons for student migration for higher education. During the colonial era the students, among other motives, migrated for the purpose of acquiring knowledge. After the countries had gained independence, student migration seems to have been influenced by events and experiences on the continent.

The following section discusses higher education and student migration in the early post-colonial era.

3.4. THE EARLY POST-COLONIAL ERA

A look at the early years of African countries' independence endeavours to show how the nations strove to make higher education more meaningful and relevant to the needs of the continent. The glimpse shows how comparable the African experiences and responses to higher education are, despite attaining their independence at various times in history.

3.4.1 The conception of higher education institutions in the early post-colonial era

During the colonial era education in Africa emerged as the initiative of different churches. Examples of the early educational establishments, including higher education institutions, are the Gordon Memorial College, between 1899 and 1902 and opened on November 8, 1902, the Makerere University founded in 1922 and becoming a university in 1949, the Yaba Higher College, in Lagos in Nigeria, founded in 1932 and becoming a university in 1929, and the Prince of Wales, which is now Achimota School in Ghana and founded in 1924. These establishments succeeded because of their achievement combined with the realisation by the

Africans themselves that education would be used to their advantage (Afoláyan, 2007: 41-44; Assié-Lumumba, 2006:32-33).

The above information is similar to what is said about the origins of higher education in Africa namely that the northern half of the continent seems to have been ahead of the southern parts of the continent in terms of the establishment of higher education. For this reason, the northern and the central parts of the continent have been destinations for higher education migration in Africa because the north more institutions of higher learning. The information on churches' involvement in education, including higher education, links to how to date in some African countries the churches are involved in higher education through the opening-up of new universities. Zimbabwe, for example, has church-established academies such as the Catholic, Africa, Solusi, Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti and the Reformed Church universities (*Religion in Zimbabwe-Universities,* 2010).

Immediately after the colonial era, higher education in Africa was viewed and conceived as a critical component in the nation-building project on the continent and for the developing of countries. Manuh (2005:250) indicates that university education, in particular, has been presumed to offer the means for communities to rise out of poverty through its application to solving problems in production, living conditions, technology, and the general know-how. Africa is a poor continent and individuals long to extricate themselves from this poverty through education. This is why higher education is of great importance and also is the major drive behind student migration.

In most poor and economically unstable countries, including Zimbabwe, the standard of higher education is going down. For example, the 2013 *Top 100 Universities and Colleges in Africa,* as presented at www.4icu.org, had the University of Zimbabwe at position 70 in 2013, a huge drop from place 37 in 2012. Yet, even in its low position, Zimbabwe's higher education has provided the means for social and professional mobility, including student mobility, for the purpose of work and study. The negative impact of the student mobility, especially in Zimbabwe, calls for the government and higher education institutions to slow down the flow of students to other countries and transform it into sustainable institutions for higher education. The slowing down

migration for higher education can be possible through the provision of competitive remuneration packages for university lectures, properly maintained research facilities and adequate research funding levels (Kotecha, 2010:53). Thus, acknowledging the existence of student mobility would help in the planning for dealing with it so that it benefits the country if students were to come back and work in the country.

3.4.2 The marginalization of the African continent

Earlier in this chapter (3.3.1), it was pointed out that Africa had a higher education system in place before it was colonised. That education system, according to Lulat (2005:1-3), was not only disrupted but also negated. In relation to this information on the disruption of higher education, the current ranking of universities shows no African university in the top 200 universities in the world. Such low ranking of Africa's universities can be associated with what Kotecha (2012(c):15) asserted that international academic mobility collaborations and cross-border provision remain decidedly unequal between developed and developing countries. Just as the type of higher education established in Africa was a conscious deliberation, so is the conscious decision that leads to the unequal provisions and decisions in higher education. Conscious deliberations on the provision of higher education that were made by colonialists find explanation in the Neo-liberal Theory which says decisions are a creation of people and that there is always someone in control of the major resolutions (2.7.5). According to Maringe and Foskett (2010:21), in education such decisions vested in large international corporate organisations. Maringe and Foskett (2010:21) indicate that there is always someone influencing major resolutions. The world university web ranking is created by people who are in positions to make decisions. Some of the decisions made in regards to higher education for example, may not always be in favour of those whom they are made for.

The position of Africa's universities in both the world and the continent rankings influences student mobility in Africa. The positions of institutions determine students' choice for a destination for study. The African universities are low in the list in the

order of classification and there is a possibility that students consider them last should they intend to migrate (Hazelkorn, 2011:126-128).

Research by Chessa (2012:78) and Kotecha (2012(c):15) suggests that internationalisation has reinforced historic inequalities in higher education in the colonial and post-colonial movement of students, namely from the south to the north. The research shows that since individual countries are positioned differently in the global economy, internationalisation and its implications to them would vary. Because of internationalisation, there is diversity in the provisions of higher education. Students from Africa usually travel to seek higher education in countries with better economies than theirs. While South Africa is emerging as a popular destination especially with students from most of Southern African countries, some of the students migrate to the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia if they can afford it. To some extent the influence of the former colonial rule contributes to the students' choice of a study destination (Kotecha, 2012(c):15).

Developed countries have more institutions of higher learning and developed infrastructure than developing countries. Development enables these countries even to offer more study programmes at universities than developing countries do. Advanced development and sufficiently equipped universities in the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia are the reason why most African students attempt to migrate to those countries for higher education. The limited number of quality universities in Africa is unable to satisfy the students' demand. (Chessa, 2012:78; Kotecha, 2012(c):1).

Research by Maringe and Foskett (2010:21) and Kotecha (2012(c):15) says that internationalisation has also given English, followed by a few other European languages, global supremacy as the language of instruction and scholarship. While a large number of institutions of African institutions of higher learning deliver their programmes in English, there are limitations such as the courses delivered which influence the students' choices of were to study. The limitation in what to study contributes to the reason why Africa loses the best and the brightest students to developed countries. There are no African languages developed enough to boost higher education attractively enough on the continent. The local languages are offered as a programme at some universities, but they are very unpopular with

students because the languages limit them in terms of employment after graduation. Since the languages only apply to particular countries, there is no space for expansion in the use of the African languages at international level and there is very little that the languages offer in terms of development. English, as the language of instruction, makes African students dependent on Western higher education.

There has been massification of education which has affected some countries in Africa. In addition to massification in education, the choices African countries make in terms of funding national programmes limit higher education. Demand for both quantity and quality in higher education continues to grow. The continent's economic position specifically continues to impede the continent's capacity to develop its higher education. Higher learning in Africa, in the same way as student mobility is influenced by how globalization and internationalization, is also affected by the choices the continent makes in an attempt to solve challenges in universities. The result of some choices is student migration (Mohamedbhai, 2008:4-5).

3.4.3 Conclusion

The establishment of higher education in the northern half of Africa became fully accepted after the local people realised the advantages of education. Students from the southern parts of the continent, having realised the importance of education, migrated to the north of the continent where higher education was more advanced than in the south. However, the state of Africa's higher education in many African countries still remains under the influence of the former colonisers. Africa's higher education, nevertheless, remains at the bottom in the grading of world universities. This could be why student migration on the continent has followed particular movements with students searching for meaningful and rewarding higher education.

The following section discusses trends in student migration in Africa.

3.5 TRENDS IN STUDENT MIGRATION IN AFRICA

In this section the researcher attempts to give a definition of the international student in Africa. The general view of the trends in student mobility will also be explicated. What was left behind after the colonial era is reviewed for the purpose of indicating in what way colonialism still affects higher education on the continent. It is important to first look at the effect of migration on Africa in general in order to understand mobility in specific countries. The focus is on Zimbabwe, a country which is also bound to be influenced by the events on the continent.

3.5.1 The international student in Africa

An *international student* is defined as one who undertakes all or part of his/her higher education in a country other than his or her home country (Teferra & Knight, 2008:496). The UNESCO document entitled *New Patterns in Student Mobility in the Southern Africa Development Community* (2012), which in this study is referred to as UIS/IB/2012/7, states that *internationally mobile students* are defined as students who have crossed international borders and moved to another country (of which they are not citizens) with the objective to study (UIS/IB/2012/7:4). According to Kwaramba (2012:2), an *international student* in South Africa is defined as a student who is not a national or permanent resident of the Republic of South Africa and who consequently requires permission to enrol at a South African university. The above sources agree on the understanding that one is seen to be an international student when one moves to another country, of which one is not a native, for the purpose of study. Mda (2009:1) continues to specify *international African students* by saying that African students are students who come from African countries and who are natives of any of the countries of the continent, or descendants of any of the peoples of Africa. She indicates that in the South African context, the classification 'African' refers to the group of people who are of African ancestry and who are classified 'black' in colour, but not as Coloured or Indian. Zimbabwean students belong to this definition, namely they are not only international but also African.

Students are regarded as central to the success of any university's attempt to globalise its campus. Its students, including the international students, are seen as the primary reason why a university should embrace internationalization. Student migration is one of the many features of the globalisation of higher education. It has also has been observed that students travel shorter distances in greater numbers, usually to nearby countries with more developed education systems. This is why Zimbabwean students are observed as international students in neighbouring South Africa. South Africa's education system attracts Zimbabwean students because it is much more developed than Zimbabwe's. In addition, it has been indicated that students seem to prefer to study closer to home (King, Marginson & Naidoo, 2011:116-117).

3.5.2 The general outlook of trends in student mobility

According to Lulat (2005:379) the first education mission into Africa was sent by Egypt's Mohammed Ali more than a hundred years ago. This mission of 'students' suggests an age-long period of student migration into Africa for the purpose of study. The exercise can be juxtaposed to Gürüz's (2008:1) finding that international student migration goes as far back as Pythagoras (569-475), as stated in Chapter 2 (2.3.1) of this study. The similarity is in the fact that student migration, be it internationally or continentally, is an age-old activity. The likeness is also in the fact that people have always longed for knowledge, and have always been keen to travel anywhere where they believed they would acquire the sought-after knowledge.

In the early colonial era, African students looked for opportunities to study, and migrated abroad. There was also a time when African countries lacked the Western kind of university education institutions, and the only alternative was to migrate elsewhere. During that time the migration of the students was not only to the Western countries that had colonised them but also to other international destinations. Teferra and Knight (2008:491) indicate that African students have been studying in the United States of America (U.S.A.) as early as 1896, and that in 1931 22 South African students were studying at Lincoln University. Such migration

reminds of many of the educated African elite and leaders who received their education outside the continent.

This research investigates student mobility after the African states had acquired political independence. The demand for higher education in African countries is on the rise, as is demonstrated by the World Bank (2010:27). The above information shows that between 1991 and 2006 the number of students pursuing secondary and tertiary education in African countries tripled from 2.7 million to 9.3 million. King et al. (2011:117) refer to the OECD (2007) and UNESO (2009b) records which peg the figures at 1.3 million students in 1995 to 2.8 million in 2007. Irfan and Margolese-Malin (in Kotecha (2012(a):5-6) predict that if the demographic trends continued, the number of students bound for higher education could reach 20 million by 2015 in the continent as a whole (Kotecha, 2012(a):6). The general trend is that tertiary involvement in African countries continues to increase, hence the increase in student mobility.

Kwaramba's (2009:5) view on the cause of the growth in student mobility in higher education is that there is a constant need for internationally recognized qualifications and a demand for highly skilled labour in both the developed and the developing countries. The researcher points out that there also exists a tendency with several countries towards the promotion of foreign collaborations to improve the quality of domestic higher education. From the above observation it can be deduced that the need for internationally recognized qualifications gives students the hope to work in countries of their choice where the remuneration is rewarding. The hope also exists that students who have been educated abroad provide a highly skilled labour-force as well as quality higher education to the home country if they were to return there.

Kotecha (2011:6) attributes the increase in student migration, especially during the last two decades to the internationalisation of higher education. He says that this internationalisation of higher education, driven by the forces of globalisation, liberalisation, commercialisation and massification, provides the context, and shapes the nature and form that academic mobility takes. The above observation implies that students migrate to destinations where they have a chance to study in areas that provide a return on investment, especially for self-funded students. Higher education

is regarded as an investment, and migrant students often enrol in high-level tertiary studies, the kind that makes a difference in respect of those courses offered in their home country. This may be the reason why families make sacrifices to send their children to foreign universities.

Manuh (2005:253) attributes student migration on the education system which prepares students for the process right from primary school level. The example is quoted that the type of knowledge imparted at this level has little to do with the local systems of livelihood. The researcher says that by the time a student gets to high school/secondary education the focus is less on local issues, rather aiming for international education. In the case of Zimbabwe, the children grow up knowing someone or they have relatives studying outside the country. These people become an inspiration for others in as-much as that, by the time they come to higher education level their focus is on migration. In this respect the education policies of the country do not seem to prepare the students enough for the local alternatives of livelihood.

The Neo-liberal Theory of globalization explains the changes in the educational policies adopted in many African countries. The adoption of the polices is a result of the influence of the World Bank's support of the commercialization and privatization of higher education (Teferra & Knight, 2008:492; Pillay, Maassen & Cloet, 2003:2-7). In Chapter 2 (2.7.5) of the current study it is stated that Neo-liberalism is about freeing the trade between countries so that trade relations may operate on the basis of the free-market principles. Higher education is a marketable commodity, following the establishment of the General Agreement on Trade in Service (GATS) in 2003 (Sauvé, 2002:3-4). The most common form of this trade is the movement of fee-paying students to study in foreign universities. In discernible instances this movement has been supplemented by the delivery of foreign higher education programmes and institutions to developing countries (Butcher & Khamati, 2009:12-16; Kwaramba, 2009:5). The fact that students still migrate in noticeable numbers shows that student mobility remains a popular way by means of which to acquire higher education in comparison to other the modes. This is also true in the case of Zimbabwean students.

In Chapter 2 (2.7.5) it was also discussed how Neo-liberalism is a human-contrived ideology, and not a natural occurrence. Higher education together with the subsequent decisions in respect of student mobility are vested in such Western organisations as the World Bank, whose support of the commercialization and privatization of higher education results in the opening-up of private colleges. The existence of more private universities and other tertiary institutions has increased the public institutions of higher education, where more students can now migrate to. While it is an advantage that more students may be enrolled, this privatization of higher education makes the monitoring of student mobility rather difficult. Higher education is the privilege of the rich and of those who can afford it, and not the right of those with the best brains. This explains why students have the freedom and ability to move to other countries in search of quality education, or for the courses they desire to study. This outlook is the same both in the international arena and on the African continent.

In chapter 2 (2.4.2.3) it was observed that world-wide there is competition for international students, especially for the 'best and the brightest'. This competition is consistently increasing, as long as there is a need for knowledge. The general observation is that the best and brightest students are offered scholarships by institutions of higher education outside their native countries and on the continent, especially true in the case of Zimbabwe. Like many of the international students, African students often stay on in the host country after graduating. They stay on because, among others, the host country usually offers more attractive remuneration than the home country. On the other hand the students are allowed to stay on because as graduates they meet the shortages of skills of the host countries. Their staying-on correlates with what was indicated in the World Systems Theory (discussed in Chapter 2.7.2), a move that results in the widely discussed and researched 'brain gain' subject for the host. Africa is noted for its 'brains drained out', that is, the brightest people who are expected to develop the continent are attracted by the developed countries.

The kind of mobility where students are selected according to their performance at high school has always been backed-up with foreign financial assistance. This aid

manifests itself in the form of philanthropic donations and scholarships, such as the Fulbright scholar programme for African students (www.en.wikipedia.org/...). Students are awarded these scholarships to study at institutions in the donor countries (Lulat, 2005:379). In other cases the beneficiaries are conditioned to return and work in their countries for a stipulated number of years. Thereafter they are free to use their international experience wherever they would like to. Although the financial assistance is given for various reasons that suit the donor, the fact remains that students migrate out of the continent. The scholarship is a seed for migration for students who would, in most cases, return to the country that hosted them as students.

It would be expected that the mobility of students to more developed countries should be a positive trend that can benefit the sending countries, yet concerns about brain drain have emerged that raise doubts about this form of mobility. To Africa, which is still developing, the staying-on of the graduates is synonymous to the 'raid' of the much needed human resources by the developed countries. The developing nations cannot meet their own shortage of skills, yet they become 'brain-drained'. Parallel to the 'brain-drain-brain-gain' concern is the 'push-pull' aspect which further affects the developing countries (Teferra & Knight, 2008:492; UIS/IB/2012/7:3; Pillay, 2003:2-7). This aspect is to be discussed later in this chapter (3.6.3.1 & 3.6.3.2). African countries still have a long way to go if they are to benefit from the migration of their students.

Earlier in this chapter (3.3.1) it was stated that higher education has always existed in Africa. After their political independence, the African countries recommitted themselves to education as a means of developing human resources. Africa intended to monitor the data on student mobility through the African Union (A.U.), which in turn, set the Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) in place to do the data-capturing. Kapur and Crowley (2008:6) acknowledged the prominence of higher education in promoting economic and democratic reforms. A study was carried out by them which included countries like Egypt, Tunisia and Zimbabwe. The study established that economic growth in these countries at the time had been the result of investing in education at all levels where universities are seen as the

breeding-grounds of the much needed skilled individuals. While that is the general intention of the African countries, the background to higher education does not seem to support the need.

Therefore, in the following section it will be discussed how the colonial heritage impacts on the continent's higher education.

3.6 THE HERITAGE OF AFRICA'S HIGHER EDUCATION

The foundation of higher education in Africa is the colonial education.

In this section an attempt will be made to analyse the legacy in order to understand what the outcome of it was and how the student migration responded to it. This is done with the view of understanding that Zimbabwe, as a former colony of Britain, was bound to have reacted to its heritage, just like the other states on the continent.

3.6.1 The heritage

History records that many of the higher education institutions established during the colonial period were set up to serve more than one country, capitalizing on a common heritage, language, trade relations, and political stability (*Institute of international Education (IIE) Networker*, 2008:25). The observation explains why, in the time of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the countries were served mainly by the University of Southern Rhodesia.

The above observation is consolidated by research findings by Kishun (2007(a):2) and Maringe and Carter (2007:462) which say that African students tend to migrate to countries formerly included as colonies of the same European power as their own. The trend is largely attributed to the derived cultural capital, the language facility, and a shared history. Thus, post-colonial associations have a significant influence on international student mobility.

Before the colonial era the students journeyed to centres of higher learning for the purpose of acquiring knowledge, but not as a private enterprise. The difference to the current student mobility is, as Kotecha (2012(a):7) explains that a 'new' form of capitalism has been identified, which is *knowledge capitalism,* and it is based on the ability of an economy to produce and absorb new knowledge and technologies for economic growth. Capitalism is a legacy of colonialism. Higher education is tantamount to knowledge, and the current knowledge acquired through an institution of higher learning has become a private enterprise. Countries with the ability to provide higher education determine the economic position of nations who are opposite to them. Thus, Africa lags behind, and is controlled by economically advanced Western powers.

The political legacy of most African states continues to loom over higher education and university management. The turn of the 21st century has witnessed a higher education system plagued by problems at new heights following the growth and development of African universities in the post-colonial years. For example, while new perceptions about the importance of higher education in the development of policy have emerged internationally, higher education systems in regions such as the SADC have been characterised by considerable neglect (Yusuf, Saint & Nabeshima, 2008:6-7). An increase in the number of universities has been an attempt to counter the restriction of Africans in higher education, a move which has ended in the neglect of institutions because of a lack of adequate funding.

Kotecha (2012 (a):8-9) presents another perception inherited from the colonial system by Africa's governments and students namely that higher education is the last word. All university graduates in the post-colonial era were assured of jobs in the civil service. In the case of the University of Zimbabwe (UZ), for example, it was believed that the majority of the students with a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree would be able to secure jobs in education. The researcher witnessed the issuing of application forms to the Graduate Certificate in Education (Grad. C. E.), to students when the group had completed their third year (final) examinations. The Grad. C. E. would guarantee a teaching post in a higher secondary school for the graduate *(Dean of the Faculty of Education's office, UZ*-no date). Other students who were

equally made to believe that they were the elites, would be absorbed in various government administrative positions. The question remains how the graduates in each year would continue to be absorbed in the education system. It should also be borne in mind that Zimbabwe had teachers' training colleges, where the graduates were expected to go and teach at secondary schools. The colonial attitude gave the impression that armed with a degree one need not worry about looking for work. This, however, later turned out quite differently when the university graduates could not find employment. This researcher worked at schools together with graduates in Agriculture who could not find employment in the courses they had studied. These graduates were paid the salary of 'untrained teachers', which was lower than that of those with Graduate Certificate in Education. The shortage of jobs, or being employed in the wrong field and receiving a very low salary would be another reason for the migration of students.

When the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) conducted a study on the rates of return on education they came to the conclusion that higher education in Africa was more of a private 'good' than a public 'good' – that it ensured more personal economic returns than public benefits. In relation to the 'loss' to the country, this researcher witnessed the situation where graduates who had benefited from government loans were reluctant to pay back the money. Research indicated that this later resulted in cuts in higher education funding as it was considered more of a luxury than a necessity for Africa's development. Thus, colonial power in a different form still had control over the higher education of Africa, regardless of the continent being politically independent (Brock-Utne, 2003:29-31; Davina, 2008:23-24; Kotecha 2012(a):8-9; Youssef, 2005:18-25).

Despite the acquisition of political independence for as long as nearly a century for some of the African states, access to higher education remained an option only for the elite, hence a colonial heritage. Kotecha (2012(c):4) says that the global percentage of the age cohort enrolled at tertiary institutions had increased from 19 % in 2000 to 26% in 2007. Yet, the number of sub-Sahara African school-leavers gaining access to university education stood at only about 5%. In the case of Zimbabwe, the number of students enrolled in higher education had grown as was

evidenced by the increase in institutions of higher education, from 1 at independence in 1980 to the current (2014) 15 universities. However, it is not all secondary school graduates who gain access to higher education, something   experienced during the colonial times.

Another means, by which African students were limited in respect of access to higher education, was through funding. Findings indicate that during the 1960s and 1970s the funding policy in most African economies was dominated by the tuition free. Kotecha (2012(b):11) says that although the type of funding did not disadvantage the poor, it also did not increase access sufficiently. Consequently, the policy became unsustainable when, after attaining political independence, the enrolment of students in higher education remained low, despite the increase in the number of universities. As much as African students were deliberately not sufficiently funded during the colonial times, the situation remained similar, but this time due to lack of funds. The African governments had not built a strong enough base to fund higher education. It can thus be said that post-independence higher education in Africa has been bedevilled with challenges. While African governments provided a significant portion of the budget for higher education, structural adjustment programmes of the 1980s, the economic crisis of the mid-1990s, and the international debt crises contributed to the degenerating financing condition which disadvantaged higher education in Africa. To date (2012) African higher education has not recovered from the colonial aura (Kotecha 2012(b):11).

Teferra and Knight (2008:491) indicate that student migration during the colonial time generally served the interests of those in power. Receiving education in the Western countries gave the impression that quality education was only coming from the West. Even to date most students from African countries regard higher education in the Western countries as the best, thus perpetuating the colonial perception of higher education. Zimbabwean students seem to have found South Africa the best option for Western higher education, as an alternative to that of Britain which still remain visible in Zimbabwe's higher education.

3.6.2 General challenges in higher education and student migration

The major challenge which leads to student mobility is access at tertiary level. The World Bank (2010:2) reports that the number of students pursuing higher education rose from 2.7 million in 1991 to 9.3 million in 2006. This rise in numbers is a result of the massification at both primary and secondary school levels that followed soon after the African countries' political independence (Mohamedbhai, 2008:4; *Accelerating Catch-up: Tertiary Education for Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa,* 2009:42). The large numbers of students coming out of high school cannot all be accommodated in institutions of higher education. The facilities at the local universities fail to meet the demand for higher education positions. Thus, resource constraints results in competition for the limited places. Another challenge is achieving quality in higher education. The Wold Bank (2010:2) says that

> *...an ever-increasing number of students results in a trade-off that often occurs at the expense of quality and particularly at the expense of expenditure of wages. Universities are finding it extremely difficult to maintain a teaching staff. Lecture halls are crowded, and buildings are falling into disrepair, teaching equipment is not replenished, investment in research and training for new teachers is insufficient and many teachers must supplement their income by providing services to the private sector.*

The result is student strikes and protests, and that has jeopardised the completion of the academic year in some instances. The University of Zimbabwe is particularly an example of the above. This is the reason why students who can afford to pay the high fees at foreign universities, migrate to where they believe they can learn without disturbances. Consequently, both the parents and the students lose confidence in their local higher education institutions.

The current research thus concurs with research by Pillay (2010:2-3), who pronounced that challenges in education in general, and higher education in particular in sub-Saharan Africa, relate to inadequate access, the poor provision of quality, and low levels of efficiency, as reflected in the high drop-out and repetition

rates. Such challenges coerce students to migrate to where they believe they will be receiving the best and meaningful higher education.

The socio-economic status also contributes to student mobility, namely that those inadequate positions at higher education institutions are being taken up by students from high income-earning families and in some cases by those who can 'buy' their enrolment at university. Such conduct is tantamount to corruption which is endemic in many public sectors in African governments. As a result, those who can afford to pay the fees end up migrating to foreign universities for higher education. Zimbabwe, being no exception to corrupt administration, ends up 'sending' most of its students to South Africa. For example, the World Bank says, generally, higher education gets some aid and

> *only 26% of the aid to higher education goes directly to African universities and research centres. The remainder is provided through scholarships* **abroad** *or is accounted for by direct imputing student costs in the donors' universities* (World Bank, 2010:4).

The above reference shows that student migration in Africa is an on-going process which is even supported by the World Bank. It remains to be established how the beneficiaries are selected in order to come up with the most suitable candidates, bearing in mind how the funds end up in the pockets of those who can afford to pay for themselves.

3.6.3 The driving force behind student migration in Africa

In this section the researcher will discuss what compels students to journey to foreign universities for education. The explanation will be given from two perspectives: the drive from the homeland, and the attractions of where they choose to go. It is not possible to halt the migration of students, but the governments can consider the 'push' in their countries and the 'pulls' from the destination countries if a balance is to be drawn on the question.

3.6.3.1 The 'push' factors

UNESCO (UIS/IB 2012/7: 2-5) reports that Africa's students are the most mobile in the world, and it says that 1 out of 16 students continue their tertiary education outside of their country of residence, despite the fact that enrolments in higher education have expanded by 8.7% annually. The rate is compared to the 5.1 % for the world as a whole, and has tripled since 1991 to almost 4 million students. The Sub-Saharan Africa Education U.S.A. Forum (2011:14-15; UIS/IB/7, 2012:2) presented a number of reasons why Africa's students are that mobile.

One of the reasons why the African students are being 'pushed' into migration is that Africa does not have enough higher education institutions to accommodate all the students who are graduating from high school. The fee-free primary and secondary education introduced in some countries has resulted in the mushrooming of schools. The schools are producing graduates who want to go to university. Another report mentioned that only 6% of Africa's tertiary level students are able to access higher education, compared to a global average of 26%. It gives some reason for those students who fail to secure places on the continent and/or in their countries of origin, and those who can afford to migrate out of the continent. Students also migrate because they wish to have access to better training. Industrialized countries have a wide range of schools and programmes. This gives the students a wide range to choose from, unlike the limited array of the colonial legacy. Limitation results in over-flooding hence the slim chances of securing employment (Keteku, 2007:1; Sub-Saharan Africa Education U.S.A. Forum, 2011:14-15).

Another 'push' factor into migration for students is that qualifications obtained from reputable institutions of higher education have higher local and international value. Students migrate to countries with quality higher education facilities. This is why, when asked their primary reason for seeking higher education abroad, African students most often cite the poor quality of the education system at home which does not quite have relevance to the current demands of life (Keteku, 2007:1).

Not all African countries use English as an official language. However, it has been observed that English is becoming widely used both as a mode of programme delivery in universities, and in the world of work. This is why some students from Africa desire to study in English, namely because the language gives them an advantage internationally (Sub-Saharan Africa Education U.S.A. Forum, 2011:14-15).

Students need environments that are conducive to studying. Yet this is not possible in most institutions in Africa. For example, in the Francophone countries, all the students who pass the formidable *Baccalaureate* examinations at the end of secondary school are automatically admitted to universities, resulting in overcrowding. (Keteku 2007:1). Crowded university halls of residence interfere with study.

The above situation is similar to that given of the University of Zimbabwe where the numbers of the students in the residences doubled and trebled. The accommodation and overcrowding problems which are the result of massification in education, compounded with the issue of underfunding mean that the students have to arrive at lectures early in order to secure a seat. Photocopiers supply more materials than the libraries can, with reports of fighting over scarce books. The researcher experienced how students would rip pages with relevant information for an assignment from library reference books. It meant that some books were 'shells'. The tearing of books and the shortage of seats indicate a situation which has repercussions for the quality of learning. These institutions drive the students into migrating to other destinations where they can stay and learn in environments conducive to learning. One discernible driver into student mobility is political unrest, especially in Eritrea, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Zimbabwe. For example, in some countries it is hard to imagine an academic year being completed on time because of strikes (Keteku, 2007:1).

However, it can be argued that while political unrest is negative, namely that it deprives the country of its best and brightest students who are assumed to be the leaders and developers of the country, migrant students are resilient enough to persist in finding paths to learning. However, it remains that political conflict on the

continent obliges students to migration. Most students are likely to stay and work in the host country, hence the loss to the 'sending' country (Shabani, 2010:3; Keteku, 2007:1).

Corruption in university admissions persist in many countries. Some students are admitted to the university without adequate points. Such students either 'know' influential people in government or at the university. Others 'buy' their way into the college. All these 'back-door' students take up positions which could be reserved for those who qualify. To some extent this is how 'donated' funds end up benefiting undeserving people. While these examples are among those that generally apply to most African countries, there are driving factors that specifically apply to individual countries, depending on the governance and experience of the country (World Bank 2010:4; Keteku, 2007:1; Mapira & Matikiti, 2012:102-105).

3.6.3.2 The 'pull' factors

The 'pull' factors coupled with the 'push' aspects, contribute more to the mobility for higher education. In this section some of the reasons, adapted from Keteku (2007:1), on why students are attracted to particular destinations will be discussed.

(i) *Funding*: Given the socio-economic condition of the continent, many African students cannot afford to pay even the lowest costs of tuition. Financial aid offered to students in the form of scholarships is the number-one 'pull' factor in student migration. In Africa, students who migrate are the antithesis of the Chinese experience, where the rise in economy has created a middle-class who can afford to pay for the higher education of their children at a destination outside their country of birth (Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:9-10).

(ii) *Freedom of choice:* Students who have migrated to the U.S.A., for example, have had a chance to choose what they want to study from a wide range that the universities offer. They also have a year to explore the different options before they settle for specific courses. The students are also attracted by the idea of studying something which they had not studied in high school. The

freedom of choice and the openness of all major courses to all students are what 'pull' the students to specific universities (Keteku, 2007:1). The above observation is in contrast to the limited programme offerings which are typical of most African universities. The researcher observed that while Africa was still in the process of trying to realign its higher education especially to meet the challenges of the new millennium, student mobility around the world increased markedly.

(iii) **Opportunity to work**: Another attraction for students' destinations, such as the United States includes the opportunity to work. As discussed in Chapter 2in the U.S.A. the students can stay in the country up to a year after the completion of their studies. If they find a job in the country's critical areas they automatically obtain a work permit. Thus, given the poverty and the political instability in some countries in Africa, the students would grab the chance to stay in the host country (*Impact of Visa Changes on Student Mobility and Outlook for the U.K.,* 2011:26).

(iv) **Human diversity**: Studying in America gives the students a chance to meet different people. The result is cultural enrichment, and it gives one the knowledge of interaction with people of different cultures. To some extent human diversity leads to the improvement of national relationships if people undertake to respect one another (Keteku, 2007).

(v) **The English language**: A solid grounding in the English language accords great advantage to their careers back home. In Chapter 2 the researcher discussed how English is becoming the medium of instruction in higher education. The researcher quotes the example of an encounter with two fellow students from two different French-speaking African countries who pointed out that back home they were assured of "good" jobs upon completing their programmes studied in English. Therefore, studying in an English-speaking country is a benefit. To the non-English speakers it gives the opportunity of an additional and widely-used medium. For the English-speaking group, it is easy to study in a language one understands already (Kovakas, 2013:4).

(vi) ***Lifelong networks:*** The potential for lifelong networks for professional development and business is another reason for student migration. As stated in Chapter 2 (2.8), people sometimes get employed on the basis of where they were educated. In this case, institutional reputation plays a great role. People associate with those they have something in common with. In some cases the profile of a country or college, and the recognition of the qualifications, are considered by prospective employers. Thus for example, a reference to any top South African university usually carries an expectation and assurance of satisfactory employment (Munk, 2009:2-10).

(vii) ***The exposure to entrepreneurship***:   Du Toit, Erasmus and Strydom (2010:42) define *entrepreneurship* as the process of mobilizing and risking resources (which include human resources) to utilise a business opportunity in such a way that the society's needs for a product and services are satisfied, jobs are created, and the owner of the business profits from it. Of relevance to this study is the mobilization of human resources in created jobs. Student mobility is ventured into with the hope of getting rewarding employment upon graduation. Thus, students expose themselves to education that would attract remuneration.

(viii) ***The development of leadership skills:*** The opportunity to develop leadership skills counts highly. Most African leaders were educated outside their countries. By virtue of being students in other countries, many of the leaders on the continent, political leaders and business leaders, had the opportunity of developing leadership skills. The current students have a similar chance for growth through learning from fellow international students

(ix) ***Permanent residency:*** The potential for permanent immigration and a more comfortable life is another hope for migrant students. Students who migrate for the purposes of higher education have the prospects of staying to work in the host country.

(x) ***"The American hope":*** America is believed to be a *meritocracy,* and this gives the impression that it is governed by the persons chosen for their

superior talent or intellect. Such leaders are believed to run the country in all fairness. It is such an environment that supports studying in higher education, hence the most powerful 'pull' of all (Keteku, 2007:1).

3.6.4 General governments' response to the challenges

To some extent, the picture of higher education is not all that gloomy for Africa. The rapid expansion of higher education opportunities on the continent has given students more options than ever before. Africa's public universities are growing as fast as they can. Although the growth is uneven and emphasis is on quantity over quality, the students are rushing through doors that are now open to them. Zimbabwe now -2014- has of 15 universities as compared to only one at the time of political independence in 1980. However, this should not imply that the current research emphasises quantity rather than quality. On the other hand, Ngolovoi and Marcucci (2006:2) say that the country initiated the concept of 'cost-sharing', which, in actual fact, meant tuition payments for students. The funds raised in this manner are meant to be used in accordance with the needs of the college.

In addition to fee-payment, part-time graduate programmes, such as an executive Masters in Business Administration (MBA), have caught on like wildfire, cutting the opportunity cost and increasing return on investment. These programmes were barely respected before, but now their graduates carry weight in business circles. Thus, there are attempts in Africa to make higher education meaningful to meet the demands at home and on the continent in 'new' areas of learning. Private universities, as well as tertiary-level non-degree programmes, are opening at a very fast rate, as governments pass legislation and set up accreditation boards to supervise this long-needed development. All this gives a gleam that Africa, amid all the challenge, has something positive which could be developed (Keteku, 2007:1).

3.7 HIGHER EDUCATION AND STUDENT MIGRATION IN THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY (SADC)

This section looks at higher education in the SADC. It is a discussion on the extent to which higher education has grown and the challenges which are specific to the SADC region. The section also glances at the trends and initiatives in student migration in the region. Finally the discussion leads to the effects of mobility. The examination is done in order to find the place of the migration of Zimbabwean students to South Africa, both of which are members of the SADC.

3.7.1 The size of higher education in the Southern African Development Community (SADC)

The SADC consists of 15 countries. In 1997 the countries signed the SADC Education and Training Protocol ((1997:6-8) referred to as the Protocol)). This important instrument requires from member countries to allocate at least 5% of their enrolment positions to students from the region. The political changes in the SADC region since the early 1990s, together with South Africa's good educational infrastructure meant that most SADC students found South Africa an attractive destination for higher education, especially after 1994 (Crush, Williams & Peberdy, 2005:23). The following table shows the countries in the SADC region and the number of public universities by the year 2009.

Table 3.1: SADC countries and the number of public universities in 2009

Country	Number of public Universities
Angola	1
Botswana	2
The Democratic Republic of the Congo	5
Lesotho	1
Madagascar	6
Malawi	2
Mauritius	2
Mozambique	4
Namibia	1
The Seychelles	2
South Africa	25
Swaziland	1
Tanzania	8
Zambia	3
Zimbabwe	15

Source: Adapted from Kwaramba (2012:13).

The table indicates that South Africa has the highest number of public universities in the SADC region. Therefore, it is apt for the rest of the countries to look up to the country for higher education. The number of public universities in each country also presents the size of higher education for the particular country. To date, Zimbabwe has a total of 15 universities. It is understandable that student mobility in terms of in-bound students is concentrated in South Africa.

3.7.2 Challenges in higher education in the SADC

The SADC, as part of the African continent, is influenced by most of the problems that affect higher education in Africa. However, regions differ, and challenges may impact on each differently, depending on the region. While some of the challenges

may have been discussed under problems faced by Africa's higher education, this section specifies those challenges specific to the SADC. Zimbabwe, being a member of the SADC region, faces some of the hardships discussed here.

The shrinking public funding for higher education is the major impediment in the SADC. With the number of students increasing, resulting in not enough space, the quality of education is affected, because the lecture-student ratio is too low, and the wages for staff members are practically non-existent. Too rapid increases in enrolments have resulted, among others, in the erosion of the quality of education. With low funds the buildings cannot be maintained, equipment cannot be replaced, and the crowding students receive sub-standard education. Thus, while the demand is growing, the capacity of the public sector to satisfy the demand is being challenged, because the country's budget is limited. The government's role is changing within a market economy and privatization in many countries. The privatisation in education gives the impression that higher education is private benefit worthy marketing and that it is not a public right. The SADC's participation in higher education is low. This is seen in the region's representation at international conferences. Thus, the region lags behind, because it lacks the opportunity to learn from other world regions (UIS/IB/2012/7:6; Pillay, 2003:1).

One of the aims of the establishment of the Protocol is to develop the human resources in the region. The poor quality of academic programmes hampers the development of human resources and economic growth in the region. Thus, a discussion of academic mobility in Africa often considers the broader context that characterises the continent, particularly with respect to access to and the quality of higher education, as they relate to the formation of the human capital needed to accelerate economic growth and sustainable development. A significant number of individuals who pursue higher education out of Africa do not return. This is similar to the international student mobility alluded to in Chapter 2 (2.8), namely those students migrate with the intention of staying in the host country. The African experience, with specific reference to the SADC, is that the continent is deprived of the critical human resource capacity needed for its development by failing to provide enough incentives to make students stay at home (Pillay, 2008:58).

'Brain drain' leads to the very substantial outflow of African graduates, but it also comes at a considerable financial cost. Salaries spent on expatriates who "help make up the loss of professionals in Sub-Saharan Africa" are drawn from the meagre budget the SADC allocates to higher education. On the other hand, many of these students who are 'helped' by the expatriates leave the region for greener pastures at the first possible opportunity, leading to what Kotecha (2010:26) refers to as "diminished institutional capacity" and to the potential loss of institutions.

While the mobility of African students outside Africa can be viewed as a positive trend that can benefit the countries and the SADC region, concerns about 'brain drain' have emerged that raise doubts about student mobility. At the same time the colonial legacy in higher education still holds fast on the SADC region as shown by the systems of higher education in Southern Africa which are elitist because overall, the provision of higher education in the SADC countries is low by world standards. Despite the rapid growth in the number of students attending higher education institutions in recent years, universities have not been able to absorb all students deserving to be enrolled, and competition for places is high (Kotecha, 2011(a):6).

3.7.3 The integration of higher education in the SADC

Southern Africa has a long history of intra-regional migration, including student migration, dating back to the mid-nineteenth century. Mobility has been a central and defining characteristic of the region's politics, economy and culture. The above observation is evident in how nationalities of various countries are represented in all the countries in the region. For example, Zimbabwe has a huge number of people who came from Malawian origins. However, established patterns of migration have undergone major reform in the last few decades. Thus, it would be also possible that students from the SADC would be found represented in the higher education institutions in the region. The contention is that South Africa is a region on the move especially with the major changes noted in migration after the eradication of apartheid in South Africa Crush et al., (2005:1) explain the changes by saying that,

The ensuing integration of South Africa with the SADC region brought a major increase in legal and undocumented cross-border flows and new forms of mobility. Second, the region's reconnection with the global economy has opened it up to forms of migration commonly associated with globalization. Third, growing rural and urban poverty and unemployment have pushed more people out of households in search of a livelihood. One aspect of this has been a significant gender reconfiguration of migration streams. Fourth, HIV/AIDS has also impacted considerably on migration. Not only is the rapid diffusion of the epidemic inexplicable without references to human mobility, but new forms of migration are emerging in response. Finally, the countries of the SADC are still dealing with the legacy of mass displacement and forced migration. The impact of the Mozambican and Angolan civil wars continue to reverberate. Recurrent civil strife in the rest of Africa has generated mass refugee movements and new kinds of asylum seeker to and within the region. The cessation of hostilities and threat has confronted countries of asylum with issues of repatriation and integration (Crush et al., 2005:1).

Students who leave their countries in search for higher education are included in the forms of migration.

The end of apartheid produced new opportunities for internal and cross-border mobility, and new incentives for moving. First of all, the incorporation of South Africa in the SADC region brought about a major increase in lawful cross-border flows, and new forms of mobility. Secondly, the region's connection with the global economy has opened it up to forms of migration commonly associated with globalization, which included an increase in student mobility. Thirdly, the growing poverty and unemployment have pushed more people out of homes in search of a livelihood.

It has been indicated that 2% of the Zimbabweans crossed the border into South Africa for study purposes. It has consequently become important to establish the effect of this student mobility on the higher education of Zimbabwe. This may help policymakers in the planning of higher education, and in respect of the mobility of students of the country (Crush et al., 2005:1-7).

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South Africa plays an important role in mobility, which includes student mobility, in the SADC region. Mobility in the SADC seems to be about leaving for South Africa for a number of reasons, including for education. Higher education has a clear role to play in contributing to the socio-economic development in the region by strengthening human capacity and skills. Part of the development includes student mobility. Although the movement of students to study in foreign universities has been supplemented by the delivery of foreign higher education programmes and institutions, the physical movement to South Africa, especially by Zimbabwean students, remains popular. South Africa has become the hub of higher education student mobility in the SADC region (Kotecha, 2012 (c):17).

3.8 TRENDS IN STUDENT MOBILITY IN THE SADC

This section will look at students who pursue their studies outside their countries of origin but within the continent and specifically in the SADC. It will examine regional trends that are influenced by historical and local factors. This research is on the effect of student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe. It is hoped that the discussion on the interests in international studies, the insufficient opportunities in higher education at home and other 'push' factors will help to establish the effects on Zimbabwe. Student mobility seems to be attracting increased attention in Africa, especially in the SADC region, given the challenges with which the continent is confronted regarding the development of human capital and the achievement of sustainable development (Pillay, 2008:2).

Research (UIS/IB/2012/7:7) has indicated that of the students in all the African countries, the Sub-Saharan African students are the most mobile, with one in every 16 students studying abroad. In 2009 in the SADC more than 1.5 million students were enrolled in higher education institutions, and this number is said to be a 13-fold increase since 1970. More and more graduates from upper secondary schools/high schools want to pursue higher education. The increase in the numbers is a result of the massification of education at both primary and secondary levels. UIS/IB/2012/7 (2012:7) indicates that SADC students are also more mobile than the non-SADC

Sub-Saharan Africans. The outbound mobility ratio is 4.5%. In 2009 some 89 000 SADC students studied outside their home countries and this accounted for 5.8% of all tertiary enrolment. The ratio is higher than the regional average for Sub-Saharan Africans at 4.9%. The finding thus confirms the observation that SADC students are the most mobile in Africa. The above rates show that there is a great need for positions at higher education institutions which the region is failing to provide.

 Another analysis indicates that SADC students are among the most mobile students worldwide, with 6 out of every 100 tertiary students studying abroad. The figure is contrasted to students in North America where only one in every 250 students is studying abroad. The comparison of these two regions, North America and the SADC, confirms the research findings and suggests a need in higher education in the SADC region. At the same time, the high volume of student mobility suggests a drive compelling students to 'foreign' universities, a challenge which countries in the region have to seriously consider (Kotecha, 2011:12).

It has been observed that 'mobile' SADC students are still often influenced by colonial and linguistic links (UIS/IB/2012/7:9). Examples of these influences have already been discussed in this chapter (3.6.1).

Student mobility has been linked to different factors, both internationally and on the African continent. However, globalization has made it easier for students to decide on destinations for higher education. In the SADC, the lack of adequate educational opportunities in the home country, and the appeal of better opportunities in 'foreign' countries abroad and on the continent have influenced a number of students to journey to, among others, South Africa, for rewarding higher education.

Another observation is that, too rapid an increase in enrolment, which seems to be the norm in the SADC region after each country acquired political independence, has resulted in the erosion of the quality of education. In Zimbabwe the massification of education at both primary and secondary school levels has resulted in a larger number of students qualifying for higher education. Yet, even the expansion of higher education could not meet the demand. Many students, with the support of

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their families, where they can afford it, migrate to South African universities (Butcher et al., 2009:12-16; Pillay, 2008:2).

Chapter 2 (2.3) presented the general international background of student mobility, which indicated that there has been a great increase in the enrolment figures in higher education across the world. Research findings (UIS/IB/2012/7:1) further indicate that in 2009 over 165 million students participated in higher education, which is a five-fold increase since 1970, and a three-fold increase since 1980. The main reasons why Africa's students are very mobile are that the destination countries are attractive, whereas the quality of life at home is undesirable, and sometimes dangerous, specifically countries with political instability. Generally, what most people yearn for is knowledge in a peaceful environment. Therefore, they would gladly migrate in search of that tranquility which is conducive to learning. A number of students in some of the countries in the SADC region have resorted to migration, especially within the region itself. A growing trend is noticed in cross-border higher education, which is characterized by the movement of people in aid of higher education (UIS/IB/2012/7; Kotecha, 2011:5).

The region that faces the greatest challenges in the provision of higher education is Sub-Saharan Africa, despite very substantial increases in enrolment over the past four decades. Kotecha, (2011:5) says that Sub-Saharan Africa lags behind the rest of the world where ratios range between 13% in South West Asia, and 72% in North America and Western Europe, though the ratios for most developing regions are between 20% and 40%. Furthermore, the gap between Sub-Saharan Africa and the other world regions has widened in the last three decades. In addition, higher education systems in most countries within this region suffer from poor quality, due in part, to the inadequate financing of higher education. Indeed, there is also the challenge of the shrinking of public funding for higher education (Pillay, 2008:2).

In respect of the above mobility ratios, Africa is said to be vulnerable to recruitment by industrialized countries, thus becoming a 'cheap' source of skilled labour, which includes the employment of students upon the completion of their studies. Another observation by Teferra and Knight (2008:500) is that of the countries in Sub-Saharan

Africa, Zimbabwe has the highest number of students abroad. The above authors say that Sub-Saharan Africa itself is its most important study destination. Nine out of 10 international students who stay in the region go to South Africa for higher education, especially students from countries such as Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Teferra & Knight, 2008:500). Thus the mobility of students from Zimbabwe within the SADC region is clearly visible.

Comparing the mobility of international students with those from the SADC region, it can be said that international students mainly travel from one continent to the other, while the majority of the students, especially from the SADC region, remain on the continent and in the same region. Another contrast is that while international students have a wider choice of destinations for study, the students from the SADC region have one alternative, namely South Africa. Unlike their African counterparts from other zones pursuing tertiary education in Europe and North America, nearly one-half of the students from the SADC region choose to study in South Africa. Students from the SADC region's tendency to remain within the area, parallels the SADC's vision for regionalisation and intra-region mobility (Teferra & Knight, 2008:500; UIS/IB/2012/7).

In 1995 the World Trade Organization (WTO) implemented the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) (Pillay, Maassen, & Cloet, (2003). These included education as one of the 12 service sectors and recognized it as a tradable service. The implementation has given a significant boost to the cross-border higher education movement. In other words, institutions of higher learning encourage student migration through marketing their institutions. One example of the marketing of an institution is that of Prof. Kupe (no date), the Dean of students at the University of Witwatersrand (Wits) in Johannesburg, South Africa who said:

Personal networking and by word of mouth marketing has been one of the strongest drivers of Wits' internationalization initiative. The largest 'religion' in Zimbabwe is education and Wits has attracted plenty of academic staff, undergraduate and post-graduate students from Zimbabwe, including myself. It is recognized as a strong academic institution, it is close to home and South

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Africa offers plenty of opportunities (Word of Mouth Marketing-Wits University-no date).

Not only do the above words encourage Zimbabwean student mobility, but it also calls on lecturers from other African countries to migrate to Wits.

Many countries around the world have implemented policies and/or programmes that aim to increase the outflow of students, leaving to pursue a post-secondary degree abroad (outbound students) and/or the inflow of foreign students coming to pursue degree programmes in the host country (inbound students). In addition, some countries have emerged as new popular destinations for international students, such as China, Malaysia and the Republic of Korea. South Africa could be equated to these new destinations in its service to the SADC community. Student mobility has been linked to different factors, but the lack of adequate educational opportunities created especially by economic and political conditions in the home country and the appeal of better opportunities elsewhere, seem to be the eminent 'push' (Teferra & Knight, 2008:2).

3.8.1 Student mobility initiatives in the SADC

The most binding student mobility initiative in the region is the SADC Protocol on Education and Training. It was signed in 1997 with the key objective of providing a framework for regional co-operation in addressing education needs. The regional member countries and signatories to the Protocol, in an effort to promote the internalization of higher education in the region, agreed that 5% of all available study places should be reserved for students of SADC member countries (Article 7). Thus, to some extent the Protocol in the region would be like what Erasmus is to Europe, namely to promote student mobility, attempting to bring higher education systems in line with each other, and also to harmonize the countries with a view to create a common higher education area. Thus the Protocol was to be the unifying factor for the higher education system (Garben, 2011:1; Kwaramba, 2009:6).

In 2002 more than 5% of all the students enrolled at South African universities and polytechnics were students from the SADC region. Some higher education institutions in Namibia and South Africa have been exceeding the 5% quota in their annual intake. For example, in South Africa most universities demarcate their tuition fees for foreign students into those from the SADC and those not from the SADC regions, with the fees for students from the SADC region being lower than for other non-SADC foreign students. By going beyond the requirement, these two countries showed their commitment to the agreement. The high numbers of students are also an indication of the growth in student migration, and show the significance especially of South Africa to higher education of the region (Kwaramba, 2009:6).

In 2004 the Association of African Universities (AAU), in partnership with UNESCO and the South African Council on Higher Education, convened a meeting to discuss the implications of the WTO's General Agreement on Trade in Services on African higher education. While the WTO encouraged the marketization of higher education, it remains to be established how Africa, including the SADC, would market its higher education, considering the challenges it faces. One other factor is that the African countries give the impression of a communal society, and desire to uplift each other. This attitude contrasts to the marketization of higher education in the United States of America (U.S.A.) where individual universities market themselves outside the State's input. Consequently, Africa's initiative is collective, a phenomenon which may either take long to achieve, or to which some of the participants may not be too eager to commit themselves (Fohrbeck, 2010:11).

Another student mobility initiative was a result of the *Association of African Universities* (2006) or the *Accra Declaration.* This initiative resulted from a workshop which reaffirmed the SADC commitment to enhancing access to higher education and increasing academic mobility within the African continent. A number of programmes, aimed at facilitating the mobility of students, have been put in place. Such an initiative shows how Africa realizes that there is benefit in student mobility because countries share skills through higher education. Skills of some citizens would benefit of the majority in a country. There seem not to be less of competition

but more of assisting fellow countries, an aspect that is implied in international student migration (Association of African Universities, 2006:4).

One other enterprise in the support of student migration is that in 2007 the African Union established the *Mwalimu Nyerere African Union Scholarship Scheme* which was designed to enable African students to study at recognized higher education institutions on the continent, in areas related to science and technology. The students who participated in this programme were required to work in Africa for a minimum of two years after graduation. In November 2010, this programme benefitted from the European Union's financial support of US$46.5 million, which has allowed it to be extended for four years (beginning in 2011). The venture, which promotes student mobility within the continent, shows Africa's commitment to higher education (Mwalimu Nyerere African Union Scholarship Scheme, 2007:1).

Where the government provides scholarships to send students abroad, the undertaking may contribute to the high number of outbound mobile students. The example is that of Zimbabwe, where a number of students are awarded the Presidential Scholarship to study at selected universities in South Africa. The numbers of the assisted students add on to those of the students who go on their own for university education. Accordingly, student migration is an enterprise of interest not only to individuals and their families but also to the governments. It is important to note that while both the governments and the families support student migration by various ways (*The Chronicle of Higher Education*: January 5, 2011), the enterprise has a leeward side, which is discussed in the following section.

3.8.2 The impact of student migration

Africa, like many developing countries in the world, loses its 'best brains' through student migration to the developed world. While student migration is regarded as healthy and positive in the part it plays in the internationalization of higher education, the cost of the loss of students who are the potential manpower of their country is immense. From the perspective of the 'sending' countries, understanding where

students study abroad and what kinds of educational programmes these students pursue may bring policy makers to re-evaluate their education systems at home. (UIS/IB/2012/7:4).

On the other hand, there is reason to believe that the exodus of students from Africa's poorer regions, including Zimbabwe, to some of the richer countries may be an unmitigated tragedy, unless the flow is somehow curbed. Many of the students who migrate on an individual enterprise seek jobs and work in the host country, or they migrate to other countries on the continent or abroad. If they studied in South Africa it would be possible for them to be accepted anywhere because South Africa's higher education is internationally recognised. Therefore, inevitably, Zimbabwe's student mobility into South Africa impacts negatively on the home country (Chimucheka, 2012:228).

Higher education in Africa, and thus also student migration, seems not to receive serious attention from the academic discussions. This is because student migration does not seem to have any immediate impact on higher education. The implication is that academics give the impression that student migration is not as serious a matter as staff exodus, a subject which has received wide publicity. As far as the students and their supporting families are concerned, student migration is a success. Though, student migration seems to have a detrimental effect on higher education, especially for countries like Zimbabwe, there is need of a balance between the students who migrate and those who stay. The attempt to balance would make the sending country not to completely lose on its students (Afoláyan, 2007:328).

Afoláyan, (2007:328) says that funding is one of the major challenges in Africa's higher education. The rapid expansion in enrolment, with shrinking public funding for higher education in most African countries, has raised concerns about the quality of higher education. Poor funding of the crowded universities affect qualification standards. The qualifications of some of the emerging African universities are not recognised internationally. This is one of the reasons why some of the students are lost to countries with advanced economies. The loss of such talent is practically the same as losing human resources, which are urgently required in Africa if the continent is to develop.

Governments sometimes sponsor students to study outside their country. Usually the number sponsored is very small implying that countries cannot afford to send large numbers of students abroad. Most Sub-Saharan African countries cannot afford to send large numbers of students to study outside their countries. Thus, while international countries were encouraging student migration through such programmes as the Erasmus plan, Africa lagged behind, still trying to build its higher education. The slower growth in outbound mobile students may also suggest the reason why Africa trails behind in respect of the benefits brought by student mobility to a country.

3.8.2.1 The loss of skills and 'brain drain'

The loss of skills and 'brain drain' impacts the most on Africa, including the SADC region. The region is still developing and needs 'brains' if it is to progress. Chapter 2 (2.4.2.1(a)), discussed how international countries have benefited from student migration. The benefit is two-fold. In the first place, the students such as those on the Erasmus programme have brought home experience and cultural enrichment. On the other hand, the migrant students who have stayed on and worked in the 'host' country contribute to the economic growth of the international states. In contrast, Africa experiences none of the above, because the 'brains' are 'drained' by means of the 'push-pull' happening on the continent. This section specifically focuses on Zimbabwe and South Africa. Zimbabwe is losing its potential to South Africa. The ideas in this section are adapted from research by Crush et al., (2005:19) who identified the proceedings in these countries in respect of student migration.

It has been pointed out that there is not much information available on the "brain drain". There can, however, be little doubt that the "brain drain" has accelerated in the SADC region since 1990, particularly from countries like Zimbabwe. Crush et al., (2005:19-20) say that domestically, economic and political circumstances have conspired to create a large pool of potential emigrants (which include student migration from Zimbabwe). New global job opportunities in many sectors have contributed to the outflow. Some care is required in interpreting the data in respect of

the magnitude of student migration. Data interpretation would help in making policy recommendations so that student mobility can be of benefit in countries like Zimbabwe.

Another observation is that there is uncertainty over the numbers involved in the migration, and that official statistics undercount the numbers by as much as two thirds. Studies of other countries in the SADC region show statistics that are grossly out-dated (Crush et al., 2005:19). The researcher attempted to find statistics on student migration in Zimbabwe but could not get any. The absence of statistics is the opposite of the findings in Chapter 2 (2.4.1.3 (a)) of this study where the U.S.A. has clear statistics of 'inbound' Chinese and Indian students for each academic year. The same can be said for Australia and the U.K., and even the emerging international higher education 'hubs'. As Crush et al., (2005:19) say, in the absence of information, highly-inflated guess estimates are extremely common in the media. In the case of Zimbabwe these estimates do not exist, but if they do, then they are yet to be published (Crush et al., 2005:19).

Crush et al., (2005:19) also point out that most projections about future trends are based on faulty assumptions that tend to exaggerate the likelihood of emigration. Zimbabwe only makes reference to the Presidential scholarship for students to study mainly at Fort Hare, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University and the University of Limpopo in South Africa. More Zimbabwean students are also studying at the remaining 20 South African universities. There are also Zimbabwean students enrolled at the University of Fort Hare, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University and the University of Limpopo who are not under the President's Scholarship fund. It is unlikely that this group appears in the country's migrant student statistics (Crush et al., 2005:19).

The common notion exists that emigration means departure for good (Crush et al., 2005:19). Yet, many students who depart do not intend to stay away permanently. In the circumstances of Zimbabwe the students who are state-sponsored all return to work back home for a number of years before they are free to work in other countries should they wish to do so. However, people have the tendency of staying on if they get used to a place. Consistent with the concept of 'transnationalism',

those that leave retain strong linkages with the country of origin. Those students who migrate to South Africa from Zimbabwe wish to stay closer to their homes in Zimbabwe, considering the travelling expenses and the advantage of internationally-recognized South African higher education among other cost benefits for their decision (Chimucheka, 2012:224-25).

Looking at the SADC region, Zimbabwe is disadvantaged by intra-region 'brain drain' and emigration. The students, just as much as the university lecturers, leave the country for countries within the SADC region, especially South Africa. The lecturers' decision to go and work away from home is highlighted by Shinn (2008:7), namely although South Africa loses large numbers of professionals annually to the developed world, it gains talent from a number of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Thus, South Africa gains, while Zimbabwe loses, in the same SADC region. Despite the fact that the number of Zimbabwe's higher education institutions has grown (15 universities from just 1 in 1980), a large number of its students has left, to the 'benefit ' of South Africa's institutions of higher learning.

Crush et al., (2005:19) express the notion that there is little concrete evidence about the *actual* economic and social impact of the 'brain drain', even in the sectors hit the hardest. In relation to the above remark, this research intends to establish the effect of Zimbabwean students' migration into South Africa on higher education of that country. If this is known, perhaps it may help in the planning for the migration in relation to the higher education of the country. In other words, there is a need to establish the *actual* impact of the migration process.

Many of the countries in the region do not seem to have pursued the "brain-gain" strategies in the form of proactive immigration policies and the search for replacement skills (Crush et al., 2005:19). Similarly, student migration, which is part of the 'brain drain', does not seem to have been closely followed for schemes in the form of practical emigration guiding principles in the situation of Zimbabwe. The impact of student migration is worsened as a result.

As regards the above argument, researchers such as Kapur and McHale (2005, in: Crush et al., 2005:19) believe that the 'brain drain' may fuel the vicious cycle of the

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underdevelopment of the poorer countries and cost them the very people they most need to develop, and to resist corruption and weak governance. The argument is based on the observation that countries could be trapped in poverty by the loss of potential skills in the form of students.

3.8.2.2 Conclusion

The SADC countries are typical of African countries which, after gaining political independence, rapidly expanded their primary school education. The expansion of the education was done with the intention of building up human resources for economic development. Failing to plan for higher education ended with a bottle-neck in attempting to acquire higher education. Such a practice ended up in encouraging migration for higher education purposes.

Having deliberated student migration in the SADC, the following section considers higher education in South Africa. The discussion runs from when the country gained its independence to why the country is a popular destination for students in the SADC region. The discussion will hopefully bring about an understanding of the reasons why Zimbabwean students choose South Africa as a study destination.

3.9 HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

In this section the researcher aims to discuss the background to higher education in South Africa. The section will also look at South Africa as an international destination for students from the SADC region, a view which leads to the examination of the role played by South Africa in higher education in the region. The trends of student migration to the country lead to the SADC student enrolment in the country and how South Africa's universities rank in the world. The South African dimension of student migration is compared to that of the international migration of students. This section will hopefully indicate the position of Zimbabwean students in their choice of South Africa as a popular international destination for higher education.

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3.9.1 The background to South Africa's higher education

After gaining political independence in 1994, South Africa was rapidly reintegrated into the world community. South Africa was welcomed back as a member of the United Nations, the Organisation of African Unity, the Commonwealth, and a host of other international organisations. Subsequently South Africa has assumed a leading role in the African regeneration and associated initiatives, such as the African Union (A.U.), the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Cooperation (IORARC). In a way, South Africa became *African*. (South *African Higher Education in the First Decade of Democracy* 2004:232).

In terms of higher education, it has been reported that the International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA) (2006:456) - as a non-governmental, non-profit professional association of individuals and institutions with a common interest in the internationalisation of higher education - has played a significant role in positioning South African higher education to 'reconnect' with the global higher education community, and to take advantage of the opportunities to be part of the 'knowledge society'. The above decision has resulted in a lot of achievements in higher education. An example is the number of international students in South Africa which more than quadrupled in the dozen years of democracy. The increase in the number of international students is an indication that South Africa's higher education is of a quality that is internationally recognised (Kishun, 2007(b):456).

South Africa has the highest number of public universities in Africa (25 universities). The indication is that the size of South Africa's higher education has resulted in the country emerging as a major exporter of higher education. Students are also attracted to study in the country. The attraction is evident in how the country's distance education programmes spread not only on the continent, but to international destinations as well. In the SADC region South Africa is the major hub for higher education where the students journey to for higher learning (Kwaramba, 2012:8).

The UIS/IB/(2012/7:11) confirms the superiority of South African higher education by saying that it is well-developed with a strong infra-structure and several well-

respected research institutions that are attractive to international students. The source also says that South Africa is not only the leading 'host' country in Africa, but also ranks 11th amongst the 'host' countries worldwide. As discussed in Chapter 2 (2.6.2) 'ranking' is one way used by students to choose a destination for study purposes? Higher-ranked universities are the most popular destination. This is part of what makes South Africa a popular choice of study.

3.9.2 South Africa as an international destination for SADC countries

South Africa could be considered the educational 'hub' of Southern Africa, because it has the highest number of respectable public universities. The country is considered as the chief exporter of higher education, not only in the region, but in the rest of Africa. Kwaramba, (2012:8) reports that of the current SADC foreign students enrolled at the member countries' universities, South Africa accounts for 70% of this enrolment. The above source also shows that a number of South African institutions of higher education are currently rated among the top 40 of the world's best universities. With such a record, South Africa's higher education is recognised internationally, hence a good reason why it attracts international students.

In comparison to the international student mobility, it has been found that nearly one-half of all mobile students from the SADC region goes to study in South Africa, followed by the United Kingdom (10%), the United States (8%), France (7%) and Australia (6%)(UIS/IB/2012/7:9). The high preference for South Africa by SADC students suggests that students prefer to be close to home. Following what was agreed with SADC Protocol on Education and Training in 2000; South Africa accepts and unrolls students from the SADC countries as a way of making a difference in human resource development and socio-economic and technological research. The areas are crucial for dealing with challenges facing the region, and for South Africa's own development in higher education. The view confirms South Africa's readiness to host, especially SADC students. Accepting students from the SADC area for higher education also shows South Africa's communal spirit, the attitude towards development in Africa. The stipulations, as they appear in the *SADC Protocol on*

Education and Training: Article 7, (1997:6-8) suggests, among other things, encouragement of student mobility within the SADC.

The stipulations with respect to higher education include that member states will:

• Recommend that HEIs reserve at least 5% of student admissions for students from the SADC nations other than their own (to a target maximum of 10% overall).

• Work towards harmonisation, equivalence, and the eventual standardisation of entrance requirements.

• Devise mechanisms for credit transfer.

• Encourage the harmonisation of academic years in order to facilitate student and staff mobility.

• Collaborate in the production of teaching and learning materials.

• Promote student and staff exchange programmes.

• Establish a SADC distance education centre to improve distance education systems in the region.

• Establish centres of specialisation for teaching and learning, and centres of excellence for research (*Southern African Development Community: Towards a Common Future:* Article 7, 1997:6-8 in).

South Africa has shown commitment to the Protocol, as proven especially by the number of SADC students in the country. Yet, Zimbabwe continued to charge higher fees for SADC students than national students. The charging of high fees is a potential barrier to student mobility for students who might want to study in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe would lose the benefits that come with inbound student mobility.

3.9.3 The role of South Africa in higher education and student mobility in the SADC region

The above section shows how South Africa has reacted on the needs of higher education as per the agreement of the Protocol. Yet, *Higher Education in Context*

(2006:9) suggests that there has been no clear internationalisation policy within the country, apart from the mentioning of a few general statements in the guiding policies drafted between 1997 and 2001. The source mentions that South African internationalisation has been shaped by numerous influences, which have had very little to do with government or sector policy. The international sub-sector has grown in relation to the need, and the African focus has come about without any sector-wide approach that has specifically been intended for the continent. In the absence of policy, aspirational imperatives decided the market. What Africa needed, South Africa provided. For these reasons, the size and quality of higher education of South Africa, as discussed above, seem to have naturally developed the internationalization of the country, thus attracting students especially from the neighbouring Zimbabwe.

Another observation is that the country's setting and leading role in Africa, its strong research universities and its relatively superior stage of development make it a model base for studies intended for understanding the challenges of developing countries and Africa. Thus, students migrate to South Africa for higher education, either as an individual enterprise, or with the support of their governments. The fact that the government are prepared to pay for selected students to study in South Africa is an acceptance of the country's superior development in comparison to theirs. Thus, they hope to benefit from the education acquired in South Africa (Higher Education in Context 2006:9).

Research has been carried out (Kishun, 2007(b):460on the 'brain drain' from the poorer to the richer countries, initiated by the richer countries, for skilled workforce. On the other hand, the move has been augmented by well-qualified individuals seeking more and better paying job opportunities and a higher quality of life (Bohm et al., 2008:68). Rich countries act within the global economy which is knowledge-driven and requires swift access to a highly skilled work-force. This is why there is increased competition for international students, many of whom would stay on to fill the skills shortages. In response to developed countries' attitude, *Higher Education in Context* (2006:11) indicates that, "South Africa also believes that accepting students from the rest of Africa is a way of contributing to the continent's human

resource development, helping to stem a crippling brain drain". In other words, South Africa makes the effort to curb the 'brain drain' to developed countries by educating students in the hope that they would go home and help to develop their countries (Kishun, 2007(b):460).

The role played by South Africa in the internationalization of higher education, especially in the SADC region, is in a way similar to the third motive of the 1998 Sorbonne Declaration in Europe, which states that mobility strengthens European integration where nations' identities and common interests can interact and strengthen each other for the benefit of Europe. In South Africa, internationalisation is also viewed as a means of advancing communication and respect among people of different cultures, of developing scholarships, and of strengthening the country's global position. Countries and also the students are believed to benefit from the international relations and networks forged between students during their studies. Thus, South Africa leads in higher education in the region and on the continent. In a way the major role played by South Africa is that an advanced African country is making the efforts to uplift the continent (Garben, 2011:1)

3.9.4 Trends in student mobility in South Africa

South Africa demonstrates the most striking increase in the number of students coming to study at its institutions. Shortly after attaining democracy in 1994 and reconnecting with the global higher education community, the number of international students more than quadrupled in South Africa - from around 12 500 in 1994 to nearly 53 000 in 2005. By 2006 the number constituted more than 7% of the total enrolments of 730 000. The acceleration of student numbers is an indication of the quality of South Africa's education. Up to now South Africa still enjoys the same popularity as in the period indicated above (Kishun, 2006:6-7).

According to (UIS/IB/2012/7:14), students in the SADC region seem to have a greater demand for first-degree programmes than they do for more advanced programmes. This finding suggests that higher education systems in the SADC

region, in general, have insufficient opportunities for local students who desire to attend college or universities.

The above finding leads to the conclusion that in South Africa 70% of the total of foreign students are from Africa alone. The research furthermore indicates that most students from SADC countries are registered for undergraduate courses, while students from other African countries are registered for postgraduate degrees. SADC students are said to be drawn to higher education in South Africa on account of its proximity, cultural and linguistic links, and quality of educational resources (Motivans, 2009). These are among the reasons why Zimbabwe has the highest number of students in South Africa.

The observation exists that international students are represented at every South African university. The outstanding feature is that the country has become the most popular place to study in Africa, and is one of the world's top 20 host nations for American students (*Higher Education in Context* 2006:24). For some reason, America and what is American, has become a yardstick of class and success and that is why America's higher education is well-liked by students from the SADC countries. Considering America's higher education, as discussed in Chapter 2 (2.4.1.3 (a)), South Africa's higher education is of the quality that attracts the international students that it does. Kwaramba (2012:9) writes that South Africa is the second country to the United States which hosts students from Anglophone Sub-Saharan African countries, including Zimbabwe. This shows the importance of South Africa in playing a greater role in attracting international students in Sub-Saharan Africa, making the country a hub of student migration, especially in the SADC region.

Taking education as a public 'good' and not as a commodity is a recurring theme in higher education and student mobility in South Africa. The number of inbound students portrays the country as an emerging hub for higher education in the SADC region. Unlike Malaysia and Singapore, discussed in Chapter 2 (2.4.2.1(b)) for deliberately investing into becoming regional hubs, the South African government views education as a public 'good' and not as a commodity. The stipulations of the Protocol give the impression of binding the outlook of the country towards the

hosting of international students. This is most likely the reason why SADC students migrate in large numbers to South Africa (Bohm et al., 2008:61; Sehoole, 2011:62).

South African higher education institutions have embarked more earnestly upon the establishment of links with their African counterparts since 1999. At the same time South Africa provides many opportunities for SADC students, to the extent that an imbalance in student movement in the SADC region is apparent with students from the area tipping the scale (*South African Higher education in the First Decade of Democracy* 2004:234).

The Project Atlas' (no date) definition of an *international student* is "One who undertakes all or part of her/his higher education experience in a country other than the home country". The number of international students at South Africa's 23 public universities has grown since 1994. The following table shows the rate of growth in the enrolment of students at these public universities.

Table 3.2: The enrolment of international students in South Africa

Year	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2008	2009	2010
SADC	6 209	7 822	21 318	36 207	35 917	45 851	41 906	46 496
Non-SADC Africa	1 521	2 079	4 263	6 664	8 569	9 554	10 663	10 986
Rest of the world	4 827	5 268	5 568	7 108	7 637	6 619	7 011	7 302
No Information	N/A	N/A	14 228	1 447	1 574	1 928	1 276	1 353
Grand total			591 161	717 793	741 383	799 490	837 779	893 024
% Non-SA			7.68	7.16	7.25	7.76	7.31	7.25

Source: *Higher Education in Context; International Student: Trends in SA* (2011: 9).

The above table indicates that South Africa is one of the top five 'receiving' countries of international students. Students from Sub-Saharan Africa are included. South Africa is the highest 'receiving' country. Participation in the South African higher

education system by foreign students has followed a marked upward trend since 1994 (Kwaramba, 2012:10).

A report by The Global Education Digest Study's, (2009) website, ranks the U.S.A. as the most popular destination. Kwaramba (2012:10) says *The Global Education Digest Study* (2009) places South Africa at position number eight. In South Africa alone, the University of Cape Town admitted the lion's share of foreign students in 2009. The following table shows the number of international students in the top 5 universities in South Africa.

The table is based on Kwaramba's (2012:11) compilations of the 2009 data.

Table 3.3: South Africa's universities with the highest number of foreign students in 2009

University	Total number	Percentage
Cape Town	4 423	30%
Pretoria	3 008	21%
Stellenbosch	2 731	19%
KwaZulu-Natal	2 229	15%
Witwatersrand	2 189	15%

Source: Adapted from Kwaramba (2012:11)

The country plays a leading role in higher education in Africa. The reason for this is that it is the most developed on the continent, thus making it an ideal base for studies aimed at understanding the challenges of developing countries and Africa. In addition, South Africa has strong research universities. This is why enrolment from the SADC students is very high (IEASA, 2006:24).

3.9.5 The enrolment of SADC students in South Africa

Studies have shown that there has been a steady increase in the number of students from the SADC region studying at South African Universities. It is important to state that the most recent statistics were, however, not available.

The following table shows the changes in student enrolments from the different countries in the SADC between 2002 and 2006.

Table 3.4: International students enrolled at universities in South Africa

Country	2002	2006
Angola	679	1 041
Botswana	6 037	5 878
The Democratic Republic of the Congo	296	887
Lesotho	3 383	3 702
Malawi	357	608
Mauritius	1 627	1 425
Mozambique	581	929
Namibia	5 389	7 059
The Seychelles	4	10
Swaziland	1 621	2 705
Tanzania	206	522
Zambia	2 445	1 463
Zimbabwe	*9 099*	*9 651*
SADC total	**31 724**	**35 880**
The rest of Africa	6 317	8 609
The rest of the world - total	6 156	7 637
No information	1 560	
Grand total	**44 197**	**53 686**

Source: Kwaramba (2009:17).

The information in the above table is an indication that there has been an increase in the number of students from the SADC region studying in South Africa. Although there is downward student mobility with some of these countries, the number of Zimbabwean students continues to rise, making Zimbabwe the major 'source' country, 'sending' 18% of the international students.

The following table shows the percentages (%) of the top ten countries in the SADC that send students to South Africa for higher education.

Table 3.5: Top 10 'sending' countries for higher education to South Africa

Country	2002	2005	2006
Zimbabwe	19.5	18.5	18.0
Namibia	11.5	11.8	13.2
Botswana	12.9	13.3	10.9
Lesotho	7.3	7.2	6.8
Swaziland	3.5	4.7	5.1
Zambia	5.2	2.5	2.7
Mauritius	3.5	3.1	2.7
Angola	1.5	1.9	1.9
Mozambique	1.2	1.8	1.7
Malawi	0.8	-	-
The DRC	-	1.2	1.7

Source*: Kwaramba (2007:19).
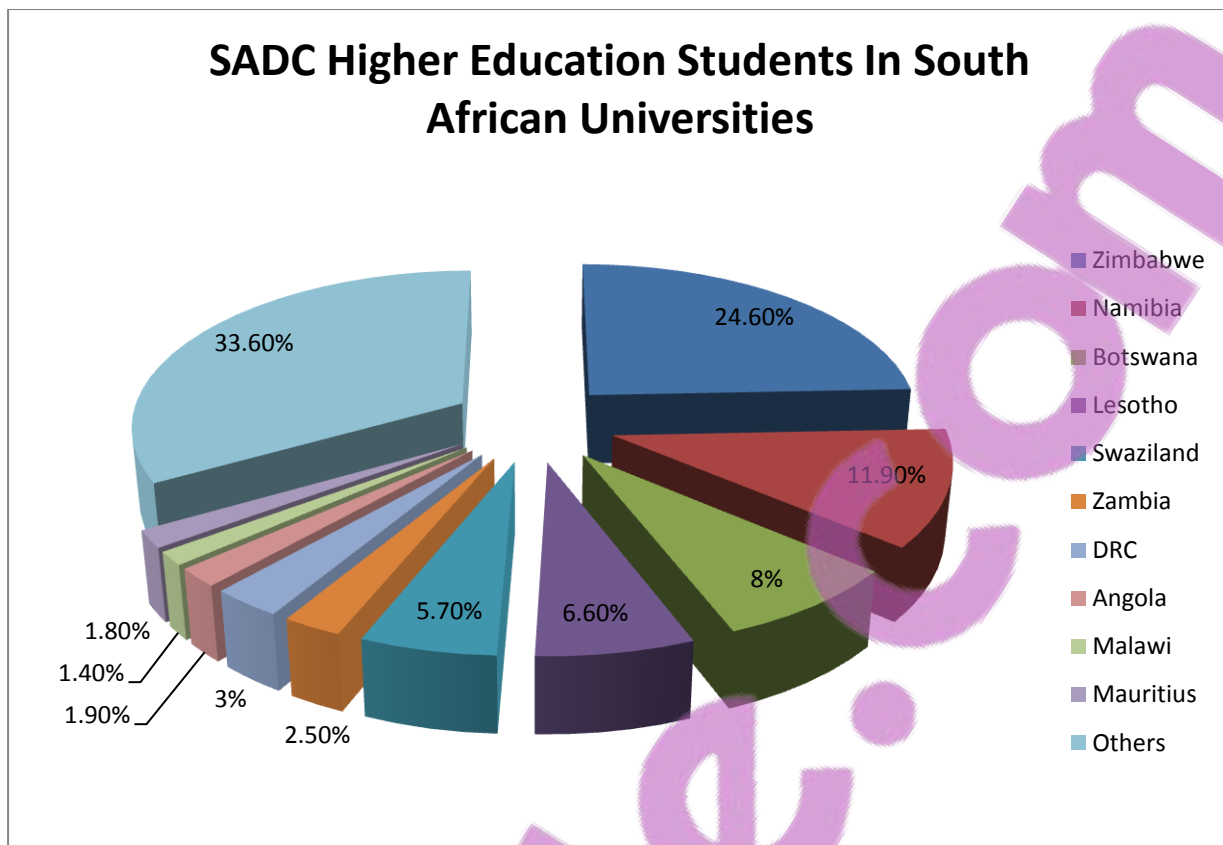
Figure 3.1: SADC higher education students at South African universities

Source: Project Atlas – South Africa (2010)

The above table and pie chart imply that proximity to South Africa influences entry into the country for study purposes. It appears as if the countries closest to South Africa and the size of the population of those countries, determine the volume of student mobility. As the UIS/IB (2012/7:5) indicates, these countries generally take advantage of the extensive tertiary education opportunities available in South Africa or other countries. The clarification of the above view is suggested by the order of the top ten 'sending' countries for higher education to South Africa.

3.9.6 Reasons for migrating to South Africa for higher education

This part of the study presents some of the reasons why South Africa is a popular destination for most of the students, especially for those from the SADC regions,

including Zimbabwe. As discussed in Chapter 2, the students and their families have specific reasons for choosing South Africa for study purposes.

3.9.6.1 Curbing the 'brain drain'

All countries rely on students for labour and management skills. The students obtain the relevant knowledge and training at colleges. The type of college where a student acquires the knowledge is important. 'Brain drain' continues to affect the foundation of skills in Africa, which includes the SADC. Crush, Pendelton and Tevera (in Kishun, 2007(b):261) indicate in the Southern African Migration Project (SAMP) that in addition to affecting the existing skills base, 'brain drain' threatens the potential skills base in Southern Africa. The threat is in the form of students and new graduates considering the possibility of emigrating in search of greener pastures. Crush et al., (in Kishun, 2007(b):262) continue to say that, "Although most SADC students are proud of their country, have a strong sense of national identity, have a desire to help build their countries with their talents and skills, and want to play a role in their country's future, there is a high risk of a continued brain drain", especially from the developed countries. For most students South Africa is still close to home; and at the same time the country fulfils other needs that are not possible in their native countries.

3.9.6.2 Student assistantships

Many South African universities provide the students with financial help. Students may become tutors or assistant lecturers, especially at post-grade levels, thus providing some financial help to the students (Kwaramba, 2012:17). More SADC students are attracted to universities in South Africa than to other regional universities.

3.9.6.3 Infrastructure

In the SADC region South Africa has the best and most complete infrastructure. Thus, travelling to university for study and going to field for research is not very problematic. Convenient travelling opportunities during the time of study are important (Kwaramba, 2012:17).

3.9.6.4 The ranking of institutions

Earlier in this chapter (3.9.2) and also in Chapter 2 (2.3.3), it was indicated that ranking determines the students' choice of destination for study purposes. The table below shows the position of South African universities in Africa and in the world.

Table 3.6: The top 12 universities in Africa and their position in the world

Rank in Africa	University	Country	Rank in the World
1	Cape Town	South Africa	398
2	South Africa	South Africa	566
3	Pretoria	South Africa	720
4	Stellenbosch	South Africa	730
5	Witwatersrand	South Africa	2 214
6	Dar es Salaam	Tanzania	1 449
7	Cairo	Egypt	1 826
8	KwaZulu-Natal	South Africa	
9	American University in Cairo	Egypt	738
10	Makerere	Uganda	1 553
11	Rhodes	South Africa	
12	Western Cape	South Africa	

Source: 2014 World University Web Ranking Top 100 Universities and Colleges in Africa.

The table shows South African universities that are at the top position in the world and also have the highest numbers of international students. It is important to note that although the universities of KwaZulu-Natal, Rhodes and the Western Cape fall in the top 12 universities, their positions in the world rank were not specified in the source. However, the *Wikipedia* (2014) website ranks the University of KwaZulu-Natal at number 404, Rhodes University at 1 087, and Western Cape University at 954 in the world. The above observation confirms the view that South Africa, in terms of the ranking of universities, is a popular destination.

3.10 DIMENSIONS OF STUDENT MOBILITY: THE INTERNATIONAL AND THE SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES

Globalization has helped to reduce the sense of isolation felt in much of the developing world, and has given many people in the developing countries access to knowledge "…well beyond the reach of even the wealthiest in any country a century ago," according to Pillay (2003:2). Thus Africa, in terms of higher education, is no longer isolated in terms of higher education. While access to higher education in Africa may be at a lower scale in comparison to the developed countries, Africa has a link with the rest of the world.

While there is the link with the international regions, Africa is lagging behind in terms of the total number of students who go to study outside their native countries. For example, international students outside Africa are understood to be in great demand in highly developed programmes. The group of these students is made up of more undergraduate than post-graduate students. Research indicates (UIS/IB/2012/7:14) that in 2009 three-quarters of SADC students studying in South Africa were in first-degree programmes. The same report says that two-thirds of their counterparts studying in the United Kingdom and the United States were enrolled in first-degree programmes. The SADC students were compared to students from developing countries in Asia, such as China, India and Thailand. These students have been said to be about three times as likely to choose more advanced programmes in the United Kingdom and the United States. The reasons for low capacity in the higher education system in Africa are complex and they include lack of post-graduate

programmes in many higher education institutions. Lack of adequate post-graduate programmes has degenerated into the 'brain drain' in most of the African countries.

Internationally, the U.S.A. is rated as the biggest in hosting international students, with a total of 595 900 students. In Africa, South Africa comes first with 60 600 international students. Both the U.S.A. and South Africa, to some extent, are well-developed countries. The large numbers of international students in both countries support the observation that developed countries are the most popular destinations for student migration (*Global Education Digest*: 2009).

Another comparison can be drawn from the issuing of visas. The U.K. made some changes in respect of student visa applications, and these came into effect on 3 March 2010. As discussed in Chapter 2, the intention of the change was to make it difficult for bogus students to gain entry to the U.K. (The British Council, 2011:19). The initiative worked out as expected by the U.K. because it became more difficult for students to enter the U.K. Similarly, the U.S.A. introduced stricter measures for students to enter the country, especially after the 9/11 attack. The move saw a slowdown in the number of inbound students. South Africa also has a policy in place in respect of student visas. However, the issuing of visas to Zimbabweans since 2010 saw an increase in the number of students.

In an article on the Ghana-web, Kangaarkaat (2003) indicates that for various reasons most Ghanaians who study abroad do not return to work in Ghana. The problem results when, on the one hand some host countries such as the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia deliberately attract students when they graduate to work in the host county as a way of meeting the U.S.A.'s, the U.K's. and Australia's shortage. Students from Africa usually prefer to stay in the host country, considering poverty and other conditions back home. A similar situation of students wanting to stay and work in the host country is evident between Zimbabwe and South Africa where the Zimbabwean students would rather stay and work in South Africa if allowed, given the unstable economic conditions back home. However, this does not imply that international student mobility in Zimbabwe, for example, should be reduced. Instead,

there should be procedures to ensure that most of those who go, especially those sponsored to do so, will come back.

In Chapter 2 it was discussed how international education has become a lucrative market in regions such as the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia. As a result, some of the emerging destinations intend to become competitive in this form of trade. The emerging hubs of higher education are working to raise the standard of their higher education in order to attract international students. South Africa has the highest number of international students on the continent, especially from Zimbabwe, and South Africa is assisting in building Africa's human resources through its commitment to the Protocol.

3.11 THE FUTURE OF STUDENT MOBILITY

There exists a need for staff and student mobility across the SADC region. Governments in the SADC countries should create a scholarship fund to strengthen and deepen collaboration between nations and institutions of higher learning. The collaboration helps in the development of academic resources and capacities through innovative staff exchange and twinning programmes. Thus, planning for student mobility should be done by the setting-up of regional centres and the infrastructure required to coordinate mobility at all levels of the system (Kotecha 2012 (a):5).

South Africa is an important participant and a leading host country for international students in Africa. The country considers the implications of knowledge societies in the world of universal appetite for highly skilled personnel. Developed countries are aggressively recruiting more and the best international students, making internationalization a strategic issue. Competition for international students is likely to disadvantage Africa for a long time, giving reason for attempts by the SADC for example, to retain human resources in the form of students (Kishun, 2007 (b):460).

Singapore, for example shows predictions on student mobility in the form of data in which the number of students are expected to grow by the year 2015 (cf. 2.4.4.5).

While the prediction is an advantage for international destinations, in Africa's countries there are disruptions such as unending wars which drive students away rather than encouraging them to stay in their native countries.

South Africa is the most developed country in Arica and its higher education is also the most developed as compared to the rest of the countries on the continent. Unlike many of Africa's countries, South Africa has not had political that destroyed the higher education systems. The high standard of education has led to the internationalization of higher education in the country, attracting students not only from the SADC region but also from the rest of the continent.

The following section focuses on Zimbabwean higher education. It gives the background and the development of the country's higher education system. Developments in Zimbabwe have had a negative impact on higher education that fuelled student migration to South Africa.

3.12 THE MIGRATION OF ZIMBABWEAN STUDENTS TO SOUTH AFRICA FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

In this section the governance of higher education in Zimbabwe will be presented which indicates the pattern of the control in the country's education. Also will be discussed what the country inherited from the colonial government at independence, in order to understand the government's attempts to redress the situation in higher education before the decline in higher learning. The size of Zimbabwe's higher education and its impression on the country will be explicated. The economic status and other challenges to higher education are examined in order to assess their impact on student migration. The flow of international students has grown steadily over the years. In relation to this, this section deliberates on the trends in the migration of Zimbabwean students to South Africa by looking at the current state of migration, the process, preferred destinations, the reasons given by Zimbabwean students for choosing to study in South Africa, and the Zimbabwean students in South Africa, generally (Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:11).

Chapter 2 attempted a picture of the international students' mobility. This sub-division is an effort to compare the Zimbabwean situation with the international dimension of the migration of students with an aim to find Zimbabwe's place in the international arena. This is done through a comparison between the international and the Zimbabwean experience. This division goes over some of the findings on the effects of student mobility on individual students and their families and on the higher education of the country. The government's efforts to raise the standard of university learning are analysed. This part of the discussion on Zimbabwe presents the future of student mobility in the country as it is presented in the literature. This discussion is done in an attempt to come up with an understanding of the effects of Zimbabwean students' migration to South Africa and its impact on the country's higher education.

3.12.1 The governance of higher education in Zimbabwe

Education in Zimbabwe is administered by two ministries. The first is the Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture, which is responsible for early, primary and secondary school education. Early education in Zimbabwe is called 'nursery school'. Primary school education is from Grade 1 to Grade 7. Secondary school education is divided into two sections. The first four years comprise Form 1 to Form 4. Students write examinations at the end of Form 4. These are the "Ordinary Level" ('O' Level) examinations. Grades obtained at the 'O' Level examinations determine whether a student qualifies to proceed to the next and final stage of secondary school education. The final stage, Form 5 and Form 6, is the "Advanced Level ('A' Level). Grades obtained at 'A' Level determine whether a student qualifies for admission to a university. The students register and write examinations in a minimum of three subjects. The subject choice is based on passes at 'O' Level, and also determines the student's career path. Qualifications at 'A' Level are measured in the following manner:

Table 3.7: 'A' Level qualifications in Zimbabwe

Grade	Points
A	5
B	4
C	3
D	2
E	1

Source: Researcher's own creation

Cambridge examinations can be taken at both 'O' and 'A' Levels. The education ministry also runs a number of secondary schools that offer technical and vocational courses. The other segment is the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (MHTE) (Kanyongo, 2005:680).

The MHTE was established in 1988, and is in charge of higher and tertiary education and skills training. Within the MHTE, two divisions deal with Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). The first division is the Division of Manpower Planning and Institutional Development. This division is responsible for human resource planning and institutional development, particularly of Polytechnics. The other subdivision is the Division of Standards Development and Quality Assurance. This part develops skills training, and standardizes certifications and examinations. The two are closely linked, namely the MHTE provides TVET through eight Polytechnics, two Industrial Training Centres (ITCs) and three state-assisted Vocational Training Centres. Additionally, the MHTE runs apprenticeship programmes (*Universal Periodic Review (UPR) of the Republic of Zimbabwe* 2011:1; Kanyongo, 2005:680).

Skills training are offered by the Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Empowerment and the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development. The Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture runs secondary schools that offer technical and vocational subjects, while the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare offers several training schools for nurses. The majority of TVET

institutions as run by the MHTE are located in urban areas, while other ministries focus their TVET provision on the rural areas (UNESCO-UNEVOC (2014) on *Zimbabwe*).

The National Manpower Advisory Council (NAMACO) is charged with making recommendations on human resource development and skills training, and provides advice in the field, while the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) is responsible for standards in education. The above knowledge reflects a clearly laid-out plan for education in general in Zimbabwe. The plan is opposite to what the country came into at independence in 1980. The idea of having different boards is designed and intended to make education the foundation of the country's economy and development (*Universal Periodic Review (UPR) of the Republic of Zimbabwe.* (2011); UNESCO-UNEVOC (2014).

3.12.2 The state of higher education in Zimbabwe at Independence

This section looks at what the state inherited upon acquiring political independence. The section attempts an explanation of the fact that part of the state of Zimbabwe's higher education is the consequence of the government's effort to turn over the state of affairs for the benefit of the country.

3.12.2.1 The state of Zimbabwe's higher education at Independence

At independence in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited an education system that favoured mainly white Zimbabwean students. The University of Zimbabwe, which used to be the University College in Salisbury during both the Federation stages and the period after the Unilateral Declaration of Independence by the then Prime Minister, Ian Smith, was created to serve a multiracial student population. Yet, efforts were made to discourage black students' enrolment, as well as the association and socializing of black and white students outside the classroom. This was done by having separate halls of residence and dining halls for black and white students. Another way used was to control the number of students who qualified to be enrolled at the university.

But the black population continued to rise, and at Independence in 1980 the blacks were the majority. Thus, some of the measures taken by the government of Zimbabwe were a reaction to what was an unacceptable situation for the black majority. The reaction supported the fact that the number of black students continued to rise to becoming the majority at the university. One of the first changes following Independence was that the Royal Charter was replaced by the University of Zimbabwe Act of 1982. It meant that the higher education system was going to change, hence the first step to Africanize the university (Kanyongo, 2005:66; Mawoyo, 2012:116; Lulat, 2005:236-237).

Up until 1989, there was only one university in Zimbabwe, namely the University of Zimbabwe, which was established in 1957 in Harare with 2 000 students. In the first decade of independence the Zimbabwean government did all it could to redress the inequalities of the colonial past. The government invested heavily in the social sectors in general, and in education in particular. The government also tried hard to ensure access to education for all. The country won international accolades for its progressive education policy, while graduates from its education main education institute, the University of Zimbabwe, were well respected and eagerly invited by leading universities around the world. The government's efforts and the international response show that there was great hope not only in higher education, but also in the development of the country as a whole. Zimbabwe's higher education was internationally respected (Kariwo, 2007:54; Mlambo, 2010:107).

3.12.3 Higher education in Zimbabwe after political Independence

In this section the researcher discusses the turnaround in higher education after 1980. Having experienced restrictions in the higher education field for a very long time, Zimbabwe felt that chance for change was inevitable. The policy plan that was introduced resulted in repercussions. The noble idea on improving the delivery of education to the majority who could not access it ended in the decline of higher education. Zimbabwe became overwhelmed with challenges which encouraged the

visible rise of student migration with a good number of the students going to South Africa for higher education.

3.12.3.1 Change from the colonial experience

Zimbabwe's position at its Independence was the same as that of the other African countries that gained political independence in the 1960s. Zimbabwean academics were highly respected and were accorded academic and administrative autonomy. Research efforts were encouraged and well-supported. In the first two decades Zimbabwe made strides in expanding higher education. Student enrolment at undergraduate levels increased from 2 240 in 1980 to 5 886 in 1986. The development of higher education in Zimbabwe was a move from producing education to the elite only to a 'mass' education system. Elite education was a colonial heritage (Kariwo, 2007:45).

The university also introduced new academic departments and new degree programmes. The introduction of distance education and the opening of the National University of Science and Technology was another move to sum up that independent Zimbabwe had education at heart. The above information suggests that independent Zimbabwe placed a high national priority on education, the effects of which are still visible today in the form of academics produced by the University of Zimbabwe in the years that immediately followed political independence. Zimbabwe's higher education was progressive, and the respect awarded to it was a sign of hope in the further growth thereof. In this period the experience of student migration was low, and the university hosted many international students. Yet, halfway through Zimbabwe's second decade of freedom, pressure signs on the country's higher education were beginning to show (Mlambo, 2010:109-114; Hwami, 2012:25).

3.12.3.2 The decline

Zimbabwe's new education policy of massification in higher education marked the beginning of its downfall. There was a sudden demand for higher education. The

demand for higher education and higher education institutions was high and much more varied than it was in the 1960s (Kotecha, 2009:44). Earlier, Zimbabwe had been disadvantaged by the colonialist regime. Now, having introduced the 'education for all' policy at independence, the situation had changed. The priority for mass education was supported by The World Bank, which went to the extent of reducing the proportion of the funds allocated to higher education from 17% to 7% (Mohamedbhai, 2008:3-4). The demand for higher education, as a result of the propagation of primary school education and the large numbers of students who completed high school, demanded higher education institutions that could develop, teach and certify higher order skills. Zimbabwe had overreacted, and was not prepared for the challenge of the consequences of the massive increase in student numbers in the higher education institutions. In a way, Mohamedbhai (2008:3-4) implies, the country had unintentionally laid the foundation for the escalation of student migration.

During the first decade of independence the reforms in the education system focused on the principle of the 'Education for All' policy which was managed by introducing double shifts per day, but with two different sets of teachers, ensuring a more efficient use of existing classrooms without disturbing the existing teacher-pupil ratio. The government expanded the education system by building schools in marginalised areas and in disadvantaged urban centres and accelerating the training of teachers (Kanyongo, 2005:66). It can therefore be said that while there seemed to be some management at both primary and secondary school levels of education, 'hot sitting', as it was known, was not and would never be practical at university level.

The praise and glory which had been accorded Zimbabwe by the international higher education community began to wane. Mlambo (2010:107) as well as Rasool, Botha and Bisschoff (2012:13) refer to the decline of the seemingly 'boom' of Zimbabwe's education as the end of the 'honeymoon period'. (The researcher had the privilege of studying at the UZ during the 'honeymoon period'). In the late 1990s the government could no longer support the universities financially because of the declining economy, corruption and the underperforming economy. The academic community were no longer as supportive of the ruling government as they had been before.

Faced with the growing challenges of their incompetence, the government saw their critics, many of them university-based, as subversive elements that had to be silenced. The researcher witnessed a speech by the first Vice-Chancellor of the UZ at a graduation ceremony where he protested that there were "so many unprofessional fingers" pointing at the university's administration (Mlambo, 2010:1260). Not long thereafter a foreign university professor was expelled and given 24 hours to leave the country after allegedly criticising the government. With such changes, both the students and the staff members lost confidence in the higher education of the country, a move that laid the foundation for student migration.

In the first decade of Zimbabwe's political independence there was a rapid expansion of education, without planning for the long-term funding thereof. The economic meltdown of the 2000s further contributed to the decline of higher education. Together with the mismanagement and corruption of the university administration, it all contributed to the fall of higher education. The government interfered too much in the business of the university (Mlambo, 2010:116; Kanyongo, 2005:70).

It is clear that academic freedom was not going to be respected. Hwami (2012:28) quotes the president of Zimbabwe at Independence in 1980 addressing a conference on the role of the university in Zimbabwe, saying*, "...higher education is too important a business to be left entirely to deans, professors, lecturers and University administrators"*. Similarly, Lulat (2005:4) clarifies this attitude by saying that,

> *During the colonial era higher education far from being a social control, turned out to be the source of subversion of the colonial order.   In the post-independence era there were limits to the use of higher education for state-engineered ends- no matter how logical, elegant, scientific, and efficient a particular plan may be for a higher education system or institution, at the end of the day it is politics that determine what kind of plan will be implemented. It is not "experts" but politicians who decide what is best for society, for good or ill.*

The president's stance showed that eventually it is the politicians who determine the higher education of the country. Thus, it is the politicians who have driven the students out of the country to neighbouring South Africa.

It has been mentioned before that the Zimbabwean government, like many independent countries, welcomed structural adjustment programmes of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). One of the *adjustments* was cutting on social spending, including education. Unfortunately for the government, cutting on the funding for tertiary education at a time when the student enrolment was already putting pressure on the infrastructure and services resulted in the deterioration of the once respected institution. Working and learning conditions became very unsatisfactory, as manifested in the form of strikes. The strikes ended in the closure of the university. Research, teaching and infrastructure steadily deteriorated. The result was the social devaluation of the status of academic and scholarly enterprise. The higher education system in Zimbabwe exhibited signs of a crisis. Such conditions spelt an exodus, especially for those students who could afford it. Zimbabwe no longer possessed decent higher education to be acquired because the lecturers were also leaving (Mlambo, 2010:116; Hwami, 2012:25).

It may therefore be concluded that the decline of higher education in Zimbabwe came as a contribution of the government's major failure in not introducing a viable student support programme. There should have been plans for the large student numbers created by the massification at primary and secondary school levels. The government should also have created sources of funds to support the fast growing demand for higher education.

3.12.4 Higher education in Zimbabwe

The following table indicates the universities in Zimbabwe in 2013.

Table 3.8: Higher education in Zimbabwe

Rank	University	Location
1	University of Zimbabwe	Harare
2	Midlands State University	Gweru
3	National State University of Science and Technology	Bulawayo
4	Bindura University of Science and Technology	Bindura
5	Africa University	Mutare
6	Chinhoyi University of Technology	Chinhoyi
7	Women's University in Africa	Harare
8	Great Zimbabwe University	Masvingo
9	Harare Institute of Technology	Harare
10	Solusi University	Bulawayo
11	Lupane State University	Lupane
12	Catholic University in Zimbabwe	Harare
13	Zimbabwe Open University	Harare
14	Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University	Bindura
15	Reformed Church University	Masvingo

Source: University Web Ranking & Review (2013).

The information in the table above suggests that despite its political and economic woes, Zimbabwe is second only to South Africa in the SADC region in respect of the number of its universities. South Africa has 23 state universities. Today (2014), as indicated in the above source, there are nearly 40,000 students studying at 15 universities in Zimbabwe, (excluding the Zimbabwe Open University), four of the universities being private. Despite the expansion in higher education, student migration is even more visible in the country.

The rapid expansion of the system of higher education in Zimbabwe which began in 1999 is in response to the high demand, which has been on the increase since Independence in 1980. One of the major policy decisions that were taken following Independence was to increase access to education. Prior to 1980 the bottle-neck system allowed less than 20% of the students who completed primary school education to proceed to secondary school in the academic stream. At Independence this procedure was removed, and the transition rate increased from 20% in 1980 to 86% in 1981. By 1996 the rate had gone down to 70%. This researcher confirms Kariwo's (2007:46-47) observation that this dramatic increase impacted heavily on the secondary school infrastructure, and many resources had to be directed towards the expansion of secondary schools. After 6 years the consequences of the policy on increasing the access were being felt at tertiary level, in particular at the only public university in Harare, namely the University of Zimbabwe, and the few colleges that were involved in vocational and technical training, and teacher education.

The consequence of the above is that migration emerged for many as the only solution to meaningful and internationally accepted higher education. Despite Zimbabwe's expanded higher education, not all the students who qualified were enrolled at the institutions of higher education. At Independence the qualification for university started with 2 points, going up. At this stage Zimbabwean institutions of higher learning are forced to only enrol those students with high academic records because of the high number of applicants. This is because of the competition among the candidates. The result is that institutions have started to introduce stringent entry requirements that excluded the bulk of the candidates who qualify. In specific programmes, Zimbabwean universities are forced to only enrol those candidates with ten or more points at Advanced ('A') Level, where the entry requirement is actually only two points. The raising of the qualification for entry means many well-qualified candidates fail to gain access to tertiary education. Some students were offered alternative programmes they had not applied for. (Chimucheka, 2012:225).

Kariwo (2007:54) indicates that it is estimated that an excess of 8 000 students in Zimbabwe qualify annually but fail to enter university. He also points out that more than 22 000 candidates sit for the 'A' Level examinations each year, of whom about

14 000 qualify to enter university. Some 24 000 part-time students at the Zimbabwe Open University are not included in the list of institutions that offer full-time programmes. Despite enlarging its opportunities for higher education by means of additional universities, the problem of student enrolment is far from being alleviated.

Deserving and qualifying students are not all accommodated at the universities. The researcher's opinion agrees with Kariwo's finding (2007:54), namely that many students who fail to enter universities in Zimbabwe go to South Africa and overseas. The statistics indicate a great demand for university education. However, it is difficult for the country to increase access to higher education without increasing the costs.

Zimbabwe's higher education is faced with a series of crises. Under-funding and rapidly growing student enrolments are major predicaments. In the past years there have been frequent student protests. Some of the demonstrations have even been violent. The property was destroyed on one large campus, and the university had to close temporarily. Clashes with the police are common when the protests take place. For example, the University of Zimbabwe was 'caged' in the late 1990s, in order to 'contain' students who attempted marching into the city centre to express their grievances. Demonstrations are illegal, and are met with grave punishment. A situation where there is not enough chance of self-expression drives the students into migration, searching for opportunities where they can study peacefully (Kariwo, 2007:45-46).

With the dropping of standards in higher education the rich have withdrawn their children, and sent them to private or 'foreign' universities. While research (Hwami, 2012:50) indicates that the University of Zimbabwe has largely become an institution of students of peasant and low income groups, to a lesser extent the institution consists of the so-called 'rich' students in selected faculties, such as the faculty of medicine.

The main concern plaguing Zimbabwe's higher education remains the difficult socio-political context, and this has led to "the progressive economic decline witnessed over the last decade, in particular the hyperinflation that spiralled out of control from 2000" (Limpopo Leader, 2011:13). It has been indicated that six of Zimbabwe's nine

public universities were still in their 'infancy' when the economic meltdown began. Their lack of established institutional resilience was quickly exposed. Faced with such a situation, those students who could afford the high fees at foreign universities left the country, especially for South Africa (Limpopo Leader, 2011:13; Chimucheka, 2012:225).

3.12.5 Zimbabwe's economic status and its impact on student migration

Zimbabwe's economy plunged since 1998. The high interest rates and inflation resulted in riots in which university students participated. This was followed by the World Bank an IMF's suspension of aid to Zimbabwe over differences with the government's policy (as reported by the *British Broadcasting Corporation* (BBC) News on Thursday 10 May 2001). The first decade of the new millennium saw Zimbabwe's position worsening, with the government losing the referendum, and yet winning the presidential and parliamentary elections amid cries of those elections being rigged. People with little or no land invaded commercial farms. The farm inversions resulted in the collapse of the once breadbasket of Africa. By the year 2006 Zimbabwe's inflation rate was 1 000%, and the economic situation never got better. The formation of the government of national unity between the three top political parties did not change the economic situation. By the time of the recession Zimbabwe was in a deeper mess (BBC May 10, 2001).

The economic situation in Zimbabwe has been a major factor fuelling the emigration of its citizens, including the students, with South Africa and Botswana being the major destinations. The country has made a number of attempts to turn around the economy, starting with the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) in 1991. The researcher's recollection of the experience of the tough era of ESAP is associated with one of the government minister's advising the people to "tighten their belts for now", implying that the suffering would be short-lived. It turned out that the situation worsened, leaving the students with no option but to leave the country in search of higher education elsewhere (Zanamwe & Devillard, 2009:21; Kariwo, 2007:49).

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Lulat (2005:398) says that structural adjustment is a strategy that economists at the World Bank devised on the bases of neoliberal monetarism, such as the devaluation of the currency, for example. Structural adjustment also calls for the privatisation of state enterprises, namely the drastic reduction of state participation in the economy and the society. The fact that the removal of state subsidies left virtually no funds "…for even the most rudimentary of state functions- even *luxuries* as developing higher education" (Lulat, 2005:398). Lack of the development of higher education continued. The demand for secondary schools continued to supply graduates who required university education. For those who could afford it, migration was the only hope.

The continued decline in the economy due to the unprecedented socio-economic and political challenges in the country has fuelled migration as a survival strategy. The country has gradually shifted from hosting high numbers of international students to being a sender of students into migration for higher education. Zimbabwe has also been confronted by unique migration challenges, including, but not limited to, 'brain drain', irregular migration for those seeking employment, and human trafficking and smuggling. Education is one of the sectors typifying the extent and effect of the 'brain drain' in the economic sector. Student migration has been indicated as part of the 'brain drain' (Kariwo, 2007:49).

The decline of the economy in Zimbabwe reinforced the other reasons for student migration as discussed in this research. Yet the Zimbabwean situation differs from that of some of the international regions with very high numbers of outbound students. In Chapter 2 China and India were indicated as the major 'suppliers' of students to the U.S.A. and the U.K. The challenges behind the migration of students from these countries seem to be more of a search for quality education which was not available at home. In the case of Zimbabwe there are other 'drivers', in addition to the desire for value education (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007:6).

3.12.6 Challenges to Zimbabwe's higher education

According to research by Tevera (2012:19-20) and Zanamwe and Devillard (2009:68), most of the students (81%) had at least one close friend who had left the country, and 79% knew at least one emigrant from members of their extended family. Seventy-eight percent knew at least one emigrant from among their fellow students. The strong connections that Zimbabwean students have with those who had left the country stimulated further emigration. These people provided information to those who remained at home. With such influence, higher student migration was expected and it certainly was bound to have a notable impact on the higher education of the country, since many more students were likely to migrate.

Zimbabwe's higher education sector had been hard hit by the 'brain drain' of the previous decades. The exodus of highly skilled and experienced professionals left the universities, colleges and schools facing severe shortages in manpower and resources. In turn, the students graduating from secondary schools were less eager to enrol at universities not having lecturers. Hence the 'brain drain' resulted in student migration. As the 'brain drain' had rapidly emerged as one of the greatest challenges facing Zimbabwe, there was an urgent need to develop policies to curb the massive ordeal, and for the need to create incentives to make staying and working in the country attractive for professionals and skilled people. The policymakers also needed to be able to predict the size and direction of future flows of professional and skilled emigrants. However, the researcher is of the opinion that, while the scheme suggested above seemed to be difficult, it would still be the first stage in the challenge in student migration (Mutenga, 2012:1; Shumba & Mawere, 2012:107; Limpopo Leader, 2011:13).

The greatest challenge was the gross underfunding of institutions by the government since the 1990s which had severely affected the quality of education. There were insufficient funds to buy up-to date teaching and learning materials, equipment and resources, and to update technology and the curricula. Previously institutions received funds from research, research partnerships with businesses, organisations and the donor community, but such support dried up. It is at this time that student

migration seems to have escalated, suggesting that there was a relationship between funding and student migration (*The Financial Gazette*, August 1, 2012).

It has become important to look at the challenge of funding in more detail.

3.12.6.1 The funding of higher education in Zimbabwe- a challenge

It has been found that funding sources and mechanisms have a powerful impact on the way resources are used, and also on the performance of institutions and of staff members. Zimbabwe's experience is no different. The low funding of higher education in the country, which resulted from the decline in the economy, has impacted negatively on the provision of higher education including on driving a noticeable number of students to foreign universities. Zimbabwe became one of the poorest of the countries. The country's economic conditions deteriorated sharply from 2000 to 2008, severely impacting on social well-being. Higher education had its share of distress during that period, and the difficulties continue to this day (Kariwo, 2007:51; Mawoyo, 2012:122).

A report in The Financial Gazette (August 1, 2012) indicates how students' grants, introduced in 1957, had gone a long way in ensuring that higher education was extended to all the marginalised students in the country. It is very unfortunate how this government-funded programme has over the years lost its significance due to a lack of funding. This is a tragedy, taking into account the fact that any country's education system is the backbone of social and economic progress. Education provides opportunities for individuals to realise their full potential and to achieve their dreams. It is through education that people can fight the menaces of poverty. In other words, because of not having enough funding, Zimbabwe lacks the potential to fight poverty, given the fact that the economic state is driving both academics and students out of the country.

The oldest and more established institution (the University of Zimbabwe) is finding it difficult to maintain its buildings and equipment, let alone recruit and retain staff. The same investigation points to the poor state of the library - how old the books are, and

the fact that there is not enough money and foreign exchange to order journals. The new institutions do not have sufficient funds to build the necessary infrastructure. The institutions do not know how their funding calculated by Treasury even though they are involved in negotiations. Treasury makes the final decisions. There are striking differences between the university allocations and enrolment figures. In general, because of this budgeting process, it is difficult to engage in long-term or strategic planning. Thus, if the universities cannot plan, then there is no progress for them. A hazy future drives the academics away, and in turn, leads to the migration of students (Kariwo, 2007:46; Mlambo, 2010:107).

An example of the above observation is the new Lupane State University on the main road between Bulawayo and the Victoria Falls. Buildings to house the facilities for 600 students began to be erected in 2005. A further eight trillion Zimbabwean dollar were allocated in the 2007/08 financial year, but this colossal-sounding sum proved insufficient to complete the campus, with only a few structures remaining at foundation level. Accommodation is a crucial component in higher education. If this cannot be satisfied, as was the case at not only the University of Lupane, but with many new universities in Zimbabwe, then the other alternative is for students to leave the country to where there is hope of studying comfortably (Limpopo Leader, 2011:13).

Lulat (2005:379) says that higher education is a fusion of heavy capital expenditure – physical plant in the form of institutions of higher learning, highly labour-intensive in teaching, learning and research, and thus money is highly required. The researcher continues to say that the output of higher education (the undergraduates) can be an economic waste through under-employment and through unemployment. Similarly, providing unfinished structures is another waste, because money that goes into the buildings' foundations only without completing the construction is wasted. The students and the staff cannot make use of the buildings' foundations. Graduates from such institutions are a loss. This is one of the reasons why some students end up going elsewhere for internationally-recognised qualifications.

In relationship to the example of the University of Lupane, it was discovered that the putting-up of the infrastructure at new institutions, and the upgrading of facilities at

existing state universities and polytechnics, are some of the major challenges facing the higher and tertiary education sector in Zimbabwe. The cost of modern equipment needed to offer quality education and training is a prohibiting factor. Without proper institutions the students find alternatives for internationally-recognised qualifications (*National Report of Zimbabwe*, August 2004; *The Financial Gazette*, August 1, 2012).

3.12.6.2 The privatisation of higher education

A report from the *European Students' Union* (April 4, 2011) says that in February 2009 Zimbabwe adopted the use of a foreign currency and abandoned the Zimbabwean dollar. The reason for this was to escape the effects of crippling inflation. As a result, many students dropped out of university because they could not afford the fees, which were to be paid in U.S. dollar, the South African rand or the Botswana pula. The *European Students' Union* (August 10, 2010) reported how the government started selling off resources and privatising government-owned companies. The students could not cope with privatisation. One of the signs of their desperation was for some to attempt to enter the examination halls with fake receipts, a move which resulted in their arrest. This measure prevented the students from obtaining access to higher education. Therefore, the human potential could not be used. The government was not investing in higher education. Education was thus no longer a right but a privilege.

3.12.6.3 The cadetship scheme

Another challenge to higher education which has equally encouraged students to mobility is the cadetship student funding (*Healing the Zimbabwe Tertiary Education* 2011:3). In this programme part of the student's fees is paid by the government directly to the university. The student is expected to pay the remaining part, depending on the agreement. It was noted that the programme was selective, and the funding was either delayed, or never paid. The institutions ended up demanding

the remainder from the student who did not have the money. Other institutions did not allow the students to write the examinations. The students who could afford migration ended up seeking higher education elsewhere, a move that impacted on higher education of the country.

3.12.6.4 Staffing

The exodus of highly skilled and experienced professionals left the universities, colleges and schools facing severe shortages in manpower and resources (*The Financial Gazette*, August 1, 2012). Because of the above, it has been found that some of the new universities did not have staff at the grade of professorship, except the vice and pro-vice chancellors. The natural sciences and business fields were hit hard, and many universities made use of teaching assistants with only first degree qualifications (Makombe in Hwami, 2012:26). The high demand for university education, on grounds of the natural increase in the population in the country had risen. Because of the increase in population of the students qualifying for higher university education, most universities have introduced graduate programmes. It is common to find a holder of a master's degree teaching graduate courses (Hwami, 2012:26). The researcher has also observed that in many cases the holder of a master's degree teach and supervise research at master's degree level. Such an exercise indicates the lowering of standards of higher education, which is also a waste of the meagre resources.

The level of the teaching staff leaving the country is high and their departure is incapacitating the higher education of Zimbabwe. The reduction in the teaching staff has serious implications for future economic growth and development. A study by Tevera (2005:1) has indicated extremely high levels of dissatisfaction amongst the teaching staff in institutions of higher learning. The experience of unhappiness which goes deeper than the economic circumstances to include housing, medical services, education and a viable future for their children is a major concern for the teaching staff. Zimbabwe needs to address this problem if it is to be on its feet again.

3.12.6.5 A lack of planning

Student migration is not necessarily voluntary, but part of forced migration. This kind of movement occurs against the background of the political instability and economic collapse in Zimbabwe (Polzer, 2009:3). Because of this political instability, there are no national instruments to address forced migration. While South Africa's higher education may have a record of Zimbabwean students studying at their universities, the actual reason behind the students' being there is unknown to the institutions. The Chinese and Indian student mobility is different. China and India have the largest numbers of outbound students to America and the U.K. (Chapter 2), just as Zimbabwe has the highest number of outbound students in the SADC. Yet, the 'drivers' behind the mobility are not the same. The major 'push and pull' factors in the case of the emigration of the Zimbabwean student body are economic and political. Araia (2009:9-16) and Mawoyo (2012:120) say that the economic and political collapse of Zimbabwe has generated unprecedented outward migration to Southern African countries, especially to South Africa. The levels of student dissatisfaction about economic conditions in Zimbabwe are higher than in any other country surveyed.

3.12.6.6 Pessimism

Zimbabwean students seem to have become very pessimistic about the situation of the higher education in their country. The students' pessimism goes well beyond the general economic conditions in the country. Crush's (2006) unpaged summary on *Degrees of Uncertainty: Students and the Brain Drain in South Africa,* says that of those SADC countries where the investigation was carried out, the Zimbabwean students were more negative than other students from the SADC countries about their personal and national economic fortunes and their futures. As much as they indicated the desire to put things right in their country, they just did not know how this could happen because of the political situation in the country. Therefore', they express a great desire to leave, and there is the greatest likelihood of them doing so. Zimbabwean students endeavour to acquire education that is internationally relevant

because they believe that it is the ticket to a better life elsewhere. This is an issue the government has to think about. What seems to be happening is that the government is providing students, not with skills to invest at home, but with passports to leave. Crush (2006), in his summary, points out that while some governments invest heavily in higher education, in Zimbabwe only 36% of the students were supported by the banks or study loans. The impression is that the students do not receive the support from the government (Chimucheka, 2012:228).

3.12.6.7 Conclusion

From the observations it seems that the belief in the advantages of student migration will be passed down to the following generations. The families seem eager for their offspring to leave, because many families need household members to leave and remit funds, just for survival. In other words, student migration is a way of family survival, and given the prevailing pessimism and low expectations, it is not surprising that leaving the country is at the forefront of many students' minds.

The following section traces trends in student migration in Zimbabwe, from the background to the current (2014) state of student migration. This is done as an attempt to establish the effects of student migration on higher education in the country.

3.13. TRENDS IN STUDENT MIGRATION IN ZIMBABWE

3.13.1 Background

The scope of the Zimbabwe Migration Profile is broad, embracing a great variety of migration categories. The Profile is framed by the concept of international migration itself which, according to the *Glossary on Migration International Organization for Migration* (IOM, 2011:62) is the movement of persons who leave their country of residence, to establish themselves either permanently or temporarily in another country (Zanamwe & Devillard, 2009:19).

As stated in Chapter 1 (1.2) of this research, Zimbabwe has a history of students migrating to South Africa for study purposes. According to an example in the *Wikipedia* (2014) website article entitled *Zimbabwean American*, Zimbabwean students have always migrated to South Africa for higher education. A number of the students who were educated in South Africa are the current government ministers, including the president of Zimbabwe, who studied at Fort Hare from 1948 to 1951, and the late first black Zimbabwean medical doctor who graduated at the University of Witwatersrand in 1957. Other people went beyond the region, abroad, for higher education purposes. It is noted that, traditionally, the majority of the students returned home, and their education benefited the country.

In recent years the main change identified by Crush and Tevera (2012:6) is in the patterns of migration from Zimbabwe. Their observation is that Zimbabwe has become a significant 'brain' exporter in the form of student migration. The process of migration, which includes student migration, has occurred in two major eras, namely immediately after independence when skilled whites fled south, and more recently, in the 1990s, with growing numbers of black Zimbabweans leaving in search of other pastures, which included higher education. Skilled Zimbabweans are now globally marketable, and are leaving the country in growing numbers. Student migration falls under this pattern.

3.13.2 The current state of student migration

A number of students are leaving the country to various destinations, which include South Africa. Various reasons are being given for this movement. Shumba and Mawere (2012:109) say this exodus is the direct result of the introduction of high student fees and market interest rates. Maxey (2007:6) says South Africa is the most popular destination for Zimbabwean students. However, the larger numbers of students choose to stay in Zimbabwe, hoping for a turnaround (Crush & Tevera, 2002:6). Some of the students from Zimbabwe wish to go and study outside the country, but they cannot afford the high fees of the foreign universities. These

students are the people who are physically in the country but always wishing they could be out of the same country.

A number of students are funded by the government to study at selected South African universities. The President Robert Mugabe Scholarship funds selected students to the University of Fort Hare, (where the President studied), the University of Limpopo and the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. The question remains why they are not sent to other top universities in South Africa. In a speech Vice President Joice Mujuru has said that more than 8 500 under-privileged students are reported to have attained degrees under the Presidential Scholarship Programme since its inception in 1995, ('Scholarship fund benefit 8 500':*The Herald*, Online: Thursday, 16 July 2012).

However, the programme has been criticized by Prime Minister, Morgan Tsvangirai's Movement for Democratic Change, saying it only benefits children whose families are aligned to the ZANU (PF) party (RadioVop, April 17, 2012).This criticism explains that some funds for higher education benefit those who can afford to pay for themselves.

3.13.3 The 'push' and 'pull' in the student migration process

The role of the government in higher education in Zimbabwe can be described as 'state supervision', because the state is expected to play a major role in providing funding for education. The state is also expected to give direction on policy through the Minister of Higher Education (Kariwo, 2007:49). Developments in the country have altered the expectations of the benefits of higher education for the worse. The result is the migration of students to neighbouring countries, with a large number going to South Africa, and abroad.

3.13.3.1 The 'push' into student mobility

The Zimbabwean migration to South Africa, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia is of a mixed nature. It is motivated by a combination of material/economic needs, political repression, and/or family links across the borders (Zanamwe & Devillard, 2009:25).

Sehoole (2011:62) states that the political instability in Zimbabwe, which has continued since the year 2000, has led to a near collapse of higher education in the country. The combination of economic hardships and the persecution of government opponents contribute to the exodus of students. The students do so because they intend to study in a more stable environment. South Africa seems to be one of the best environments. Apart from the political and economic driving forces, there is a strong connection between the students who are migrating for higher education and those already in the Diaspora.

3.13.3.2 Generally-preferred destinations in the 'push'

In addition to South Africa, Zimbabwean students' preferred destinations are the U.K. and the U.S.A. As has been indicated in Chapter 2, (2.4.2 (c)) the U.K. and the U.S.A. have laid down more stringent measures which make it more difficult to study in these countries.

The following table summarises recent travel restrictions introduced by the U.K., the U.S.A. and South Africa to try and reduce the flow of migrants from Zimbabwe.

Table 3.9: Travel control to reduce the flow of Zimbabweans to destination countries

Country	Dates	Control Measures	Prospective migrants' responses
Travel Controls to Reduce Flow of Zimbabweans to Destination Countries			
South Africa	2002	Immigration Act 2002/13, Requires a valid passport and passport photos.	Increased visa applications. Increased border jumping. Increased border jumping.
	December 2003	Tighter measures requiring a valid passport, passport photos, bank statement, a letter of invitation and a repatriation guarantee fee.	Provide false information
	December 2003	Removed tight measures. Only require valid passport, passport photos and travellers cheques	Increased criticism of South African government. Increased visa applications (more than any other country in Africa and in the world).
United Kingdom	November 2002	Introduction of visa requirements ($72000 for 6 months visa).	Visa applications very high. Despite prohibitive visa application fees, many Zimbabweans still flock to Britain
	May 2003	Increased visa application fees ($118 800 for 6 months visa).	(18 000 people had applied for visas between 11/2002 and 07/2003).
	October 2003	Increased visa application fees ($372 000 for 6 months visa).	
U.S.A.		Introduction of special visas (HB-1 visa).	Reduced movement of unskilled and non-professional persons.

Source: Adapted from Tevera (2012:16).

From the above information it can be concluded that South Africa is the preferred destination for most Zimbabwean students. Other preferred destination countries, as discussed in Chapter 2, (2.4.2 (c)) introduced more stringent measures intended to

make their borders less porous to migration flows from Zimbabwe (Tevera 2005:15). Despite the measures, those destinations have already received many Zimbabwean migrant students. Yet, from the observation above and other later developments, South Africa emerged as the most popular destination.

3.13.4 The 'pull'-reason for choosing South Africa as a destination

It is widely recognized that the main countries of destination of Zimbabwean emigration flows are its neighbours. South Africa appears to be the principal destination country, followed by Botswana. The migration of Zimbabweans to South Africa has attracted much attention from both journalists and researchers. It is therefore, important to indicate the reasons for the popularity of South Africa with students from Zimbabwe (Kiwanuka & Monson, 2009:17-18; Zanamwe & Devillard, 2009:34).

The factors that can be said to be driving forces on the choices of international students include the geographic region, historical connections between the countries, the language, the perceived quality of the country's education, and its accessibility, affordability and the employability of the qualifications that are obtained. All of the above seem to apply to why Zimbabwean students choose South Africa as a study destination (Chimucheka, 2012:224).

South Africa has long been a preferred destination for students from other countries, especially in Southern African countries. The country has become the most popular place to study in Africa, and is one of the world's top twenty host nations for American students. Mentioning America here is an attempt to stress the quality of the South African higher education, considering that America's higher education is of the quality that is internationally approved. Zimbabwe is the major source country, sending 27% to South Africa in 2006 of all international students and the number rose to 39% in 2008 (Chimucheka, 2012:223). The student mobility to South Africa by Zimbabweans is on the rise. This section draws on information from Chimucheka regarding the reasons to why students choose South Africa as a study destination.

3.13.4.1 Cost-benefit analysis

Many Zimbabwean students appear to have weighed the pros and cons and seem to have found it more beneficial to study in South Africa than at other destinations. The strengths and opportunities seem to outweigh the weaknesses and the threats that may come with studying in South Africa (Chimucheka, 2012:224).

3.13.4.2 Geographic region

The proximity of the destination is one of the factors considered by students in respect of migration for study purposes. Choosing a destination for study is closely correlated to the cost-benefit breakdown. South Africa is considered closest, geographically, to most African countries. For Zimbabwean students, South Africa is actually the best choice, given that the countries share the same border. In this respect Zimbabweans are like Asian students who find migrating to Singapore less expensive because it is the closest to them, and thus cost-effective (cf. 2.4.4.9).

3.13.4.3 Language

Like most of the countries in the region, South Africa uses English as the primary language of instruction. In Chapter 2, (cf. 2.3.3) there was referred to how English is becoming the international language of tuition in higher education. The use of English in South African universities attracts many students from other countries, for they would not be forced to learn another language, as is the case in other countries. In Zimbabwe the language of instruction in education is English therefore students from Zimbabwe would find it easy to study in South African higher education with ease (Chimucheka, 2012:225).

3.13.4.4 Quality and recognition of education

The quality of South Africa's universities and the international standing of their academics and qualifications are reflected by the growing number of international students in the universities. Zimbabwean students look for quality qualifications

which would be accepted internationally (Chimucheka, 2012:224; Kwaramba, 2012:8).

By going to South Africa Zimbabwean students are exposed to the benefits of academic mobility. The benefits are recognised through improving academic standards, keeping up with current thinking and developments, offering different perspectives and regional relevance in the research. Given the current (2014) situation of higher education in Zimbabwe where there are very few, if any, international students, South Africa fills the gap of being exposed to international standards which is not readily available at home.

3.13.4.5 Limited access to home universities

Access for students to local universities in Zimbabwe is limited. Although Zimbabwe expanded and increased its numbers of tertiary academic institutions with the capacity to enrol students, an estimated 8 000 students who qualify to enter university do not get a chance to do so. There is still a high demand for university places in the 15 universities in Zimbabwe, and there is not enough support from government for those students who fail to make it into the university. Students not able to gain university entrance in Zimbabwe are forced to move to neighbouring countries like South Africa where, for example Rhodes University has extended the percentage of international students from the 5% on the SADC Protocol to 25%. The University of Cape Town is one of the universities with standard measures for internationalisation of higher education. The extension of the percentage of enrolment places for international students and the high quality of higher education are advantages to the Zimbabwean students in terms of enrolment places and internationally recognised education (Kotecha, 2012:1; Kwaramba, 2012:14).

3.13.4.6 Policy change

In 2010 Home Affairs in South Africa issued work permits to a number of Zimbabweans. Included were students who received study permits. This move has

extended student migration, namely that some Zimbabweans registered themselves as domestic workers so that they could grab the opportunity to study in South Africa.

3.13.4.7 Fees-cost structure

South Africa is a member of the SADC which adopted the Protocol on higher education and training. It respects the Protocol agreements, which include treating SADC students just like 'home' students in respect of access to education. Zimbabwean students took advantage of the Protocol requirements to migrate to South African universities, because it is less expensive for them to acquire internationally recognised higher education (Mazzarol & Soutar in Kotecha, 2011(b):5).

3.13.4.8 Accessibility and affordability

A general observation is that South Africa boasts with a higher education sector that is accessible. This is evident in the fact that the country has the highest number of universities in Africa. Its cost of living is also relatively lower than in Zimbabwe Mpinganjira (2010:2187) is of the view that the cost of studying and living in South Africa are relatively low. For some students studying abroad may be the only way of accessing tertiary education due to access-related problems in their own countries. A large number of Zimbabweans share this experience (Kariwo, 2007:54). Common access-related challenges include the non-availability of courses of choice at their home institutions, as well as the inability of the students to meet highly competitive entry requirements due to the demand exceeding the supply (Chimucheka, 2012:225). For example, the University of Zimbabwe, which used to register students starting from 3 points, has raised the cut-off level to 10 points. In Zimbabwe students are required to study 3 subjects at 'A' Level. Now some students are writing as many as 5 subjects, and score above 20 points. The aim behind sitting for so many courses is for them to secure a place at either the UZ or the National University of Science and Technology (NUST). Thus, some of the students who cannot make it into the local universities end up migrating into South Africa.

3.13.4.9 The national budget

Zimbabwe's economic state is very unstable. Yet, the constricted budget has to be shared with other pressing social needs, which include health and basic education. Higher education ends up receiving a comparatively small budget allocation as a percentage of the national GDP. An insufficient budget enormously disadvantages higher education. The details of the impact of underfunding in higher education are discussed in this chapter.

In the SADC Zimbabwe is one of the countries with some form of cost-sharing funding policies for higher education, by making the students pay tuition fees. However, students pay for everything, where they previously used to receive government grants. Those who are unable to pay the full fees will not be allowed to register for the examinations. This is in contrast to some universities in South Africa who allow the students to sit for the examinations even if the full amount for registered modules has not been paid. The universities know that the students will pay before they can receive their results. However, very few students can afford the fees in Zimbabwe. In an article, *NewsdzeZimbabwe* (January 31, 2012) indicated that from January 2012, the monthly salary of a civil servant in Zimbabwe was about $145 (American dollars) per month, and only rose to $419 in January 2012. In the *Global Press Institute* (August 24, 2012) reports that the average university fees are $700 per semester, with two semesters making up the year. Based on the salary, it is clear that a civil servant cannot send a child to university. The result is migration of the students to South Africa, since the small national budget cannot subsidize the student.

3.13.4.10 Perceived quality of the country's education

The underfunded universities of Zimbabwe are associated with poorly-equipped libraries, inadequate academic and laboratory infrastructure, over-crowded libraries and lecture-halls, inadequate and demotivated staff, all which affect the quality of education. The above characteristics of higher education institutions in Zimbabwe impact negatively on the quality of education. The negative impact is in the quality of

student output, the kind of knowledge produced, and the inefficiency in producing better academic. Quality which is evident in the production of thinkers, scientists, researchers, real educators who can contribute to societal development, matters in higher education (Kotecha, 2012(b):12).

Zimbabwean students find South African higher education more appealing than the education in their own county. The universities are well-equipped, the very antithesis of the case of Zimbabwe. South Africa boasts improved access to modern technology, such as the use of computers and access to the internet at most of the universities, if not all. Well-equipped universities make learning easy and meaningful. Thus, Zimbabwean students have all the reasons to migrate to South Africa where there is quality higher education.

3.13.4.11 Recognition of qualifications

It is a well-known fact that employers in the 'home' countries sometimes recruit potential employees under the condition of where they were educated. Yang (2007 in Chimucheka, 2012:22) indicated that the universities in South Africa offer internationally-recognized qualifications. The qualifications are perceived to be of higher quality by international students, and are respected in many African countries. This is another reason why Zimbabwean students migrate to study in South Africa.

3.13.4.12 Qualifications and employability

Many people have emigrated from Zimbabwe to seek employment in the neighbouring countries, given the economic and political situation in that country. Many Zimbabweans students would want to be employed in South Africa after graduation. It is easier for Zimbabwean students to get jobs in South Africa if they have received the country's qualifications here. Mpinganjira, and also Cubillo, Sanchez and Cervino (in Chimucheka, 2012:225) suggest that international students need to access high quality education, and also to broaden their own personal experiences. Zimbabwean students seek a better life outside their own country.

3.14 ZIMBABWEAN STUDENTS AT SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

Research by Kiwanuka and Monson (2009:33) says that it is not clear how Zimbabwean students end up in South African universities. The reason for lack of knowledge on student migration is that information systems currently (2013) in use by Zimbabwe does not show some students who enrol into institutions of higher learning while they are working in South Africa. It can be said that while there are records of Zimbabweans entering South Africa, it has not been indicated how many of them end up studying. Another issue to take note of is that not all the Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa have entered legally. The researcher is aware of the fact that some of the people registered as economic asylum seekers with Home Affairs, end up working and studying at the same time. Such students are not at university with study permits, but are on the asylum record.

According to research by Chimucheka (2012:226-7), Zimbabwean students who study at South African universities say that being in the country allows for personal development and transformation. This includes increased self-confidence and maturity in decision-making. Such a response demonstrates a level of satisfaction among these migrant students. The students' experience is likely to influence further migration through the links the students in South Africa have with those at home. Zimbabwean students are attracted by the wider curriculum offered at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels in South Africa than in any other country within Africa. The offer of a comprehensive curriculum supports the fact that students sometimes study outside their home country to make use of the opportunities that may not be available in their own country. Zimbabwe is still very limited in terms of the courses it offers at university as compared to South Africa. Chimucheka (2012:226-7) pronounces that South Africa has experts in various fields of study. The above source says having experts in areas of teaching and research is a different situation than in Zimbabwe in the last few years. Zimbabwe has been affected by the economic situation, causing many expert lecturers to search for the so-called greener pastures elsewhere. This researcher experienced the situation where Master's degree students are supervised by people with less expertise than one would expect. Having experts teaching in the country's universities makes South

African qualifications accepted internationally and at the same time it is a benefit to students who study in the country (Chimucheka, 2012:226-7).

3.14.1 Conclusion

The availability of experts in a country improves the perceived quality of the students' qualifications, and also the employability of the qualified student. South Africa has qualified personnel in the universities which is a benefit to international students. Zimbabweans are included among those who benefit from being taught by experts.

There are beliefs associated with international education. The following section considers some of the beliefs that are told in Zimbabwe in regards to higher education in South Africa. The stories rouse the desire among students to want to acquire South African higher education qualifications. Some of these myths are discussed before looking at some of the effects of student migration on individuals and on the higher education of Zimbabwe. It should be taken into consideration that the government has made some effort to improve higher education by opening additional universities, though a lot more remains to be done. What has been attempted can be the foundation for improvements in respect of higher education in Zimbabwe.

3.15 MYTHS RELATED TO STUDYING IN SOUTH AFRICA

The information in this section is based on the researcher's experience with students in Zimbabwe. Some of the details show that students' sources do not give them accurate information, taking into consideration that a very large number of Zimbabwean students either have a member in the extended family who is studying out of the country, especially in South Africa, or they know someone, not a family member, who has done so. The informants, for the reasons known to them, present South Africa's higher education in colourful ways.

In addition to the general 'drivers' into migration at national level, some students are made to believe that studying in South Africa, even at university level, is very easy, and that no one fails. Contrary to this myth, the researcher knows of many Zimbabwean students who dropped out of university because they found it too difficult to complete even a first degree.

Some Zimbabwean students have been made to believe that any South African university would accept anyone regardless of the number of points at "A" Level. However, South African universities do have high standards. Even South Africans fail to get admission if they do not meet the required standards. This argument is based on the *2014 World University Web Ranking* surveillance that South African ranks quite high on the world charts of university ranks.

It is believed that if one graduates at a South African university, one is assured of employment in the country. Yet, while there are some graduates who are able to secure a job after graduation, South Africans also suffer the problem of unemployment. It would be questionable for a country to absorb all international students without considering its citizens first.

There are advantages of migrating to South Africa for higher education. However, potential students ought to find accurate information first in order to verify what they are told about university education in South Africa so that they may make informed decisions about choosing to study in that country. However, migration remains a reality Zimbabwe is living with.

3.16 THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT MIGRATION ON INDIVIDUALS AND ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE

The 'host' and the 'sending' countries and the students themselves benefit from international education. South Africa can earn revenue from international students, but not from the SADC countries, because of its commitment to the Protocol. Instead, Zimbabwe seems to gain more from the 'host' country in a number of ways, for example, the country's citizens who cannot be accommodated in the higher

education system may get an opportunity at a university; these students are assured of quality education; the students benefit from South Africa's advanced resources and the expertise of its academic personnel; the students have the honour of being well-educated. The researcher goes along with the opinion by Chimucheka (2012:228) that the benefits to the 'sending' country include the skills gained and the reduction on the pressure on educational resources of the 'sending' country. (Chimucheka, 2012:228).

The term 'brain drain' has a negative connotation. Findings by Shumba & Mawere (2012:109-110) show that 'brain drain' has an effect on the quality of graduates produced in the case where students are taught by less qualified lecturers. The author gives the example of a significant number of engineers at bachelor's level who are produced in developing countries but are of less than desirable quality. These graduates sometimes end up doing work which has nothing to do with what they studied at university because the education they received does not meet companies' requirements. On the other hand, students with a master's or a doctoral degree from a recognized engineering faculty in a developed country often choose to seek employment in a developed country rather than returning home. The developing country is disadvantaged in more than one way: the lack of quality higher education at home produces low standard graduates, while those who graduate and advance at internationally recognised institutions do not return home (Jones in Shumba & Mawere, 2012:109-110)

Another form of loss is 'brain waste'. This happens when qualified graduates and students migrate in the hope of greener pastures. Some students choose courses which make them unemployable because what the students studied fails to apply in the field of work. The graduates fail to get employment that enables them to gain experience. Finding no employment, this group ends-up being frustrated by doing work that has nothing to do with university education. The above examples of unemployable graduates is a loss of human potential in the case of the students, and a loss of manpower in the case of a qualified person migrates but fails to find employment in the host country. Where the economy of the 'sending' country is not

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good enough to attract back its lost human resources, the 'host' can benefit by employing these people.

The Zimbabwean economy is losing manpower and impending resources in the form of students who are leaving to study in other countries and do not come back. The staying away of students is slowing down academic and economic development in Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwean students mainly from well-off families have flocked to South African universities in pursuit of higher education (Mawoyo, 2012:112). In addition to this group, one can add the students who are the children of top government officials, because they too can afford the expensive foreign fees. Given the state of the economy in Zimbabwe, the majority of students cannot afford to migrate, and they would either have to study in the country. In other words, student migration promotes social inequalities where the students who can afford it advance in education and those who cannot afford fail to continue with higher education.

3.17 THE GOVERNMENT'S EFFORTS IN RESPECT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The Zimbabwean government has made efforts to boost higher education. The Ministry for Tertiary and Higher Education (MTHE) is the custodian of post-secondary education. The ministry set goals which were part of a five-year strategic plan implemented between 2006 and 2010 (Mawoyo, 2012:116-118). The students' need to access tertiary education has resulted in the establishment of more government-funded universities in a period of less than two decades. At the moment Zimbabwe has 15 universities, state and church-funded in order to meet the demand for higher education. Although more students are being enrolled into university than at the time when there was only one university, still not all the students who qualify for university are failing to get in.

Mawoyo (2012:177-118) says that the 1980s saw the government aiming to increase access to education in order to reverse the racial disproportions caused by the previous colonial government. Then the Zimbabwean government focused on

providing quality higher education. The need for quality higher education was the reason behind the establishment of ZIMCHE in the early 2000s. ZIMCHE would address the question of quality assurance in Zimbabwe's tertiary education. Issues of quality are of critical importance in the provision of tertiary education in the country.

The opening of the Zimbabwe Open University (Z.O.U) initiative was an attempt to meet the needs of the large numbers of students (Zeleza & Olukoshi, 2004:232). The Open University's largest number of students are teachers originally trained at vocational colleges who are either studying for their first degree or are doing the Master's programme on part time basis. The Z.O.U. enrolled a very large group of distant education students. The hope was to leave more secondary school graduates in the other universities. The starting of Z.O.U. was a way of addressing the issue of the shortage of enrolment places in universities.

Despite the economic hardships, Zimbabwe has made strides in implementing targets contained in its five-year science and higher education policy, as efforts to improve the standards of higher education.

As Mawoyo (2012:177-118) says, Zimbabwe has also made an effort to develop higher education in line with the Millennium Development Goals, especially goals 1, 2 and 5 of education, including higher education which are:

- Enhancing the resource base and management of higher and tertiary education by intensifying income-generating projects for institutions and involving the private sector.

- Strengthening life-skills education, including education about HIV and AIDS.

- Promoting regional and international co-operation by intensifying the implementation of the SADC Protocol on Education and Training and seeking the transformation of education in the region.

In an article in the *University World News* (2012) entitled 'Higher Education, Science on the Move After Crisis', Mashininga indicates that the 2011-15 Medium-term Plan is yet another attempt to revive higher education in Zimbabwe. The plan comprises

science, information and communication technology, and the transformation of the university sector. The researcher says that the goal is to reverse the severe 'brain drain' suffered during Zimbabwe's decade-long economic and political crisis. The programme has borne fruit in its first year of implementation. The success is in the form of the return of some Zimbabwean lecturers from abroad to teach at local universities for varying periods. It should be noted, however, that even though some turnaround has been achieved, a lot of ground still needs to be covered. Much damage was suffered and it takes time to mend if the higher education of Zimbabwe is to develop again. It is hoped that the success of the programme of redeveloping higher education may win the students' confidence, resulting in the reduction of student migration, especially to South Africa.

The Zimbabwean government, in partnership with a number of South African universities, has agreed to send Zimbabwean students to South Africa on a Presidential Scholarship. A great many students on this scholarship travel to South Africa each year to take up their studies. The Presidential Scholarship is awarded to top achieving high school students. As part of the agreement, the students have an obligation to return to Zimbabwe and to work for the public sector for at least the same period of time as the duration of their courses (Mawoyo, 2012:112). By 'offloading' some of the students to South Africa, Zimbabwe attempts to deal with the excess number of students in the country. At the same time making these top achievers work for the government for a number of years is an assurance that for at least some time the country would enjoy the services of the top achievers of the country. The exercise is also a way of retaining human resources, some of which is lost through student mobility.

The Limpopo Leader (2011:14) reports that Zimbabwe has accepted the assistance of South Africa. A SARUA workshop, *The Cape Town Accord,* was held in Cape Town in April 2010 on *Rebuilding Higher Education in Zimbabwe.* The *Accord* was attended by high-ranking academics and university administrators from Zimbabwe, South Africa, representatives from other African regions, the African Development Bank, and the United Nations Institute for Economic Development and Planning. The representation of the different organisations showed those organizations' concern

about higher education in Zimbabwe. The *Cape Town Accord* called for action by South Africa's universities to assist their neighbours. A not very specific suggestion was the possibility of linking Zimbabwe's universities to the South African universities to form networks. A network is important for integrated teaching and learning and research. Another advantage of working together, on the part of Zimbabwe, was keeping contact with the global knowledge society (Limpopo Leader, 2011:14). The *Cape Town Accord* is a public acceptance by various international observers that Zimbabwe's higher education is in jeopardy. Correcting the situation would be an attempt to make a turnaround of the higher education situation in Zimbabwe. In a close relationship with the advanced South African universities, Zimbabwe's higher education would benefit in respect of learning and research.

Another initiative in respect of the Zimbabwean higher education includes the University of Zimbabwe's continuing fundraising initiative, headed by former South African president, Thabo Mbeki, and launched in April 2012, which raised US$12 million in less than three months for assisting higher education in Zimbabwe. A number of companies adopted faculties, while others pledged to build infrastructure, such as ladies' hostels and a chapel (Mashininga in the Limpopo Reader, 2011:14). Funding is what Zimbabwean higher education lacks most. With more assistance, the situation would be revived, and perhaps the impact of student migration would be addressed.

3.18 THE FUTURE OF STUDENT MIGRATION IN ZIMBABWE

The future of student migration in Zimbabwe remains uncertain. Unlike international student mobility which gives a projection of the expectations in student mobility (Bohm et al., 2008: 36), Zimbabwe's situation is hazy. There seems to be too many problems, to make any projections in regards to focus on the higher education of the country.

The state of higher education in any country is determined by the state of the economy, and Zimbabwe is no exception. It also depends on whether the government is prepared to invest in higher education. Zimbabwe is bogged down

with economic problems, and therefore the government seems unprepared to invest in its higher education.

A report by the Council for Assisting Refugee Academics in The Limpopo Leader (2011:14) attempts an explanation on the situation in the country. This report entitled *Zimbabwe Higher Education Initiative Consultation Findings*, offers a depressing picture of the state of Zimbabwean higher education, and suggests constructive intervention by the government. Some of these suggestions include improving the financial stability of universities, addressing their physical and human resources shortages which includes staff and student migration, and build links with other institutions especially in the SADC. In other words, Zimbabwe's economy needs to improve first if its higher education is to turn around.

As *The Times Higher Education* (August 23, 2012) says, "Helping to set Zimbabwe's universities back on their feet will allow them to spread social and economic benefits well beyond their campuses' intervention".

3.19 CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the discussion of the literature the researcher has come to the conclusion that:

- Some form of higher education and student mobility existed in Africa long before colonialism. This is in agreement with what was indicated in Chapter 2, namely that people have always left their homes to seek knowledge elsewhere.

- Colonial higher education obliterated the African mode of learning in order to serve the interests of the colonial master. That is why students were sent for higher education to countries of those who had colonized them. To date the tendency is still the same among the students who migrate overseas for higher education.

- As much as globalization and internationalization influence changes and acceleration in student mobility with regard to the trends, growth and magnitude of the process, African students, including Zimbabweans, are driven into migration more by the poor economic state and political instability in the countries.

- SADC students are the most mobile on the continent, with Zimbabwean students in the lead.

- South Africa is the most developed higher education country in Africa and therefore is the most popular destination on the continent.

- Of all the destinations for higher learning, South Africa hosts the highest number of Zimbabwean students.

The collection of data on mobility is a not an easy task. This view suggests complications in the student migration process. Specific impediments to Zimbabwe in respect of higher education are its economic situation and the characteristics of its student migration. Student migration especially into South Africa does not follow specific patterns. As a result data collected are not reliable because they do not represent an accurate picture of student migration from Zimbabwe into South Africa. However, the data remain important because they indicate that students are moving from Zimbabwe to South Africa.

Zimbabwean higher education needs an improvement in respect of the quality of its academics and research. Negotiations with scholars, researchers and professors in the Diaspora have been reported for them to return and assist at Zimbabwean universities. The reason for negotiations is that large numbers of highly qualified and experienced academics are migrating to South Africa and to other countries. However, the question still remains how higher education is to be funded in order to pay for teaching and research, and whether the privatisation of the parastatals and private universities could provide solutions to the current demand of higher education in Zimbabwe.

The researcher concurs with the observations that a country can stem the exodus of its skilled nationals by creating a favourable socio-economic environment for its citizens, by respecting human rights, by stamping out corruption, by ensuring peace and stability. Policies on higher education have to change and be respected if the situation is to be different.

While there has been an increase in the number of public higher education institutions in Zimbabwe in the recent years, there is still a growing and unsatisfied demand for access to higher education. Therefore, the government needs to plan for the expansion of access to higher education to meet this increasing demand. There are ways which are not fully explored yet. The first stage is to improve the existing universities. Only then can the implementation of e-learning and the expansion of private colleges. However, the issue boils down to the need to improve the country's economy if the public is to afford such an advanced way of accessing higher education.

It is the observation that upon graduation the African students are dissuaded from returning to their home countries by the economic and political crises that have bedevilled the countries. The crises including the failing economies, the high rates of unemployment, the abuse of human rights, armed conflicts and inadequate social services. In the case of Zimbabwe the situation seems to be 'replenished' with the coming of the elections every 5 years. These factors are among some of the considerations that Zimbabwean leaders need to address in order to confront the challenge of 'brain drain' and student migration.

What the Zimbabwean government needs in order to address the problem of student migration is to adopt the United Nations Development Programmes (UNDP) fundamental suggestion on education. Listed and explained below are UNDP suggestions on managing education, including higher education and they are adapted from Shumba and Mawere (2012:110).

(a)*Accountability* - According to the UNDP, there should be a mechanism for ensuring that individuals are directly and fully accountable for the outcomes of their decisions and actions, and the appropriation of resources assigned to them. The

government of Zimbabwe does not accept the responsibility for the deterioration of higher education in the country due to sanctions against. The blame is put on the colonial legacy and the Western powers. The former is blamed for oppressing and suppressing the black Zimbabweans in terms of education, and the government claims that the legacy is still felt to date. The latter is accused for barring the trade between Zimbabwe and the other countries, rendering the country unable to raise funds for the country's development. The Zimbabwean government could accept responsibility for the outcomes of their decisions and actions so that there could be improvement in the ministry of higher education. Decisions such as paying war veterans a gratuity, and Zimbabwe's involvement in the war in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) cost the country money which could have been used elsewhere. The government should accept the mistakes done in the past and learn from those mistakes. Funds should be directed towards helpful activities such as in higher education. Then perhaps the question of student migration could have been viewed in a different light.

(b) *Transparency* - Except for state secrets and matters relating to public officials' right to privacy, the public should have access to information about the state, its decision-making mechanisms, and its current and contemplated projects and programmes. According to World Bank (2010:7-8), the lack of transparency has led to corruption which has infiltrated into scholarships for studies abroad. The same source reports that scholarships account for a significant share of the budget, 18% for Africa. Education funds should not benefit the most privileged social group and criterion for awarding of these scholarships should be transparent. There are some privileged students in Zimbabwe whose parents can afford to pay for their higher education but the students benefit from scholarships. Funds should benefit students who need them most.

In the case of Zimbabwean higher education, institutions do not know how their funding is dispensed by treasury, even though they are involved in the negotiations. Treasury makes the final decisions. A lack of transparency leads to mistrust. The allocated funds cannot support the high enrolment numbers of students. The

universities believe that part of the funds meant for higher education is misappropriated.

Universities should be able to create revenue not only through fees paid by students, but by charging for conferences as well. There should not be interference with higher education institutions' budgets so that they have independence to manage their own budgets in accordance with their development objectives. Zimbabwean higher education requires opportunity to generate income such as finding willing donors who can give money to add to the allocation from the state budget.

 (c) *The rule of law* – The existence of non-discriminatory laws and law enforcement organs of the government that are efficient, impartial, independent and legitimate is important. Yet the treatment of university students in Zimbabwe by the government is limiting. Reference is made to the University of Zimbabwe where a cage-like fence was constructed in the mid-1990s in order to 'contain' the demonstrating students. In other words, university students in Zimbabwe do not have the freedom to demonstrate in order to express their grievances. Sometimes large numbers of them are arrested at various times after they attempt to protest against the government's inefficiency, and for their right to education. The government is expected to be supportive of higher education by listening to and responding positively to students' grievances. It is hoped that fairness in attending to students' requests would be another way of reducing 'brain drain' in the form of student migration.

(d) *Citizen participation* – The availability of channels and mechanisms through which the citizenry and non-governmental institutions can, directly or through representation, have an influence on governmental decision-making processes and the behaviour and actions of public officials in regards to higher education. Zimbabwean students are proud of their country, have a strong sense of national identity, have a desire to help build their countries with their talents and skills, and want to play a role in their country's future. However, there seem to be no ways and systems for students to express their grievances. If people are free to express their views they can participate effectively in issues such as student migration.

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One of the reasons why many lecturers have left Zimbabwe is the problem of salaries. The economic conditions should attract new professionals to replace those who leave by creating conditions conducive to working. The suggestion is that these economic conditions include, among others, better salaries, an improved economic situation, a better political climate and a range of incentives should be in place. Zimbabwe's pace on increasing salary for lectures is rather slow. By not paying the lecturers enough money, the country is not only failing to attract professionals to fill the gap created by the 'brain drain', but it is unlikely to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015, in particular those related to education (*Assessing Progress in Africa Towards the Millennium Development Goals* (2012) (cf. 3.17). There exists a need for Zimbabwe to improve working conditions in higher education. Improved working conditions for lecturers would attract them to stay longer at universities, and then higher education in the country would draw more students to study and to later work in the country.

The SADC Protocol on Education and Training is considered by Zimbabwe at the national planning level. The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe is responsible for overseeing the implementation of SADC Protocol. Zimbabwe needs to respect the Protocol by not charging the SADC students high fees in order to attract international students, especially from the SADC. By doing so, the local students would gain confidence in the higher education of their country, instead of relying on migration for quality education.

Student mobility in Africa, and particularly in Zimbabwe, is different from that in the U.S.A. and the U.K. In Africa mobility is mainly due to problems of poverty and political instability. In the U.S.A. and the U.K., mobility of students is supported by the government. The support for student mobility is through initiatives such as the Erasmus programme (cf. 2.4.1.3(d). In Africa it is usually the best and the brightest students who are picked by sponsors for international higher education. Other students take a personal initiative and are assisted by their families to go and study abroad, especially in South Africa.

Perhaps one of the similarities in the mobility of students with that in the mentioned developed countries is that some of them leave to study elsewhere with the intention

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of staying in the 'host' country. In Chapter 2 the example was given of Asian students who tried to stay in Australia after their period of study had expired. Educated students are crucial to any country for the sake of its development. That is why careful thought should be given to measures needed to retain qualified staff and also graduates in whom an investment had been made.

In this chapter the second aim of the study which aims to ascertain what in general drives students to South Africa for the purposes of higher education, was answered. The chapter elaborated on what drives students in Africa, including Zimbabwe, to mobility. It also looked at the reasons why Zimbabwean students are migrating more to South Africa than to other international higher education destinations. In order to understand the Zimbabwean situation, the chapter discussed the country's position in the SADC and on the continent. Student migration internationally and on the African continent were also compared and contrasted. The 'drives' behind international student migration differs mainly because of the differences in the governance of the countries.

In the following chapter, Chapter 4, the research design and methods of data collection will be presented. The data collected through relevant methods and data collecting instruments will assist in the analysis of the effects of the migration process on the education system and the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the stages followed in collecting the data for the research will be presented. The stages are, namely establishing the research design, indicating the research methods, a discussion of the ethical considerations in the study, explaining the population and the sampling, and the validity and reliability of the research. The research procedures will also be indicated, as well as the post research considerations, ending with concluding remarks.

A justification will be given for the use of the selected methodologies. As stated in Chapter 1 (cf. 1.5), the study made use of the interview method for obtaining the data to establish the general and local factors that contribute to the migration of students to so-called 'foreign' universities. This selected technique is appropriate to ascertain what drives students to higher education institutions in South Africa. The nature of the study is best done by means of discussions rather than the use of magnitudes, hence the side-lining of the quantitative technique.

In addition, this chapter will also present the approaches of examining the problem of the research (cf. 1.3) which were indicated in the background to the study (cf. 1.2).

The main aim of this research is to establish the general and local factors that contribute to the migration of students to foreign universities, especially to South Africa. As pointed out in Chapter 1, this establishment is based on the thoughts, feelings, attitudes, beliefs values, perceptions and intentions of the participants. In this research study the participants are the students who have migrated to universities in South Africa, parents who have purposively sent their children away for higher education, and the administrators and lecturers working at Zimbabwean universities and who have experience of the impact of student mobility on higher

education. The data collected also links student migration to its impact on the economy of the country.

As stated in Chapter1 (cf. 1.5), the methods employed were the face-to-face interview and cell-phone conversations. The choice of the investigative approach was determined by factors such as distance and the convenience of reaching information-rich participants, all of whom who were distances apart at universities in South Africa.

The purposefully sampled population size (cf. 1.5) was deemed credible enough to have an impact on the policy and planning of higher education in Zimbabwe. The participants' contributions were analysed, and the results are presented in Chapter 5. The analysis was done in order to answer the research question, namely to ascertain the effects of migration on the education system and the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe. It is hoped that the findings which were realized by means of the qualitative research design, that is, the interview technique, would help to recommend future policy in higher education, which in turn, would assist in the development of the country.

In the following section the research design of the study will be discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Gay, Mills and Airasian (2011:111) a *research plan* is a detailed description of a study proposed to investigate a given problem. The problem investigated in the current study was stated in Chapter 1 (cf. 1.3) the detail of which was explicated in the background to the study, in section 1.2.

Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtle (2010:234) indicate that a*re search design* refers to the number of groups in a study, and how they are treated, for example. This research involved separate groups of participants with a common interest, namely that of higher education in Zimbabwe. The selected research design helped in the discussion of the views of the different groups on student migration. Additionally, Atkins and Wallace (2012:14) say that the design of a research study assists in the

attempt to answer relevant questions or to test existing theories. The questions relevant to this study were stated in Chapter 1 (cf. 1.3.2).

The research design can consist of two main approaches, namely a quantitative design or a qualitative design. The two approaches can be used together, in what is called the *mixed method* approach. This research employed a qualitative research design to attempt an investigation of the effects of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe. The investigation is expected to answer the question on student migration in order to understand how it can assist in planning for it in Zimbabwe. Failure to plan, results in the decline of a practice, as discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.12.3.2).

4.2.1 Quantitative design

Gay et al., (2011:7) state that *quantitative research* is the collection of numerical data to describe, explain or control the phenomena of interest. They continue to say that quantitative research begins by stating the hypotheses to be examined, specifying the procedures that would be used to carry out the study. The above authorities also point out that the researcher has to maintain the control over the contextual factors that may interfere with the data-collection.

This research is contrary to quantitative research in that it is interactive with the participants of the study and does not pursue a prearranged and regulated direction. As the name implies, the outcome of quantitative research is expressed in numbers, with the researcher attempting to make valid interpretations through evaluation of numbers (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009:118). The effect of the migration of Zimbabwean students to South African universities is not to be expressed in numbers as such, but will be indicated by means of personal experience and interaction with the Zimbabweans who are studying in South Africa, and the parents who have sent their children to study outside the country. The nature of student migration in Zimbabwe is the same as the general migration of people to South Africa. It is difficult to obtain the statistical records of students who have migrated for study purposes because, as indicated in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.4.1.3(a)) and Chapter 3 (cf. 3.8.2.1), such information is

not available. The unavailability of information justifies the reason for not using a quantitative research design.

4.2.2 Qualitative design

A qualitative research design is the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive narrative and non-numerical data to gain insight into a particular phenomenon of interest (Gay et al., 2011:7; Richards, 2006:73-74). Qualitative design was the approach used in this research because the data to be collected and interpreted was, in the first place, non-numerical (cf. 1.5). Although there were figures related to student mobility in Zimbabwe, the data came in narrative form.

As Lodico et al., (2010:142) indicate the qualitative design borrows from sociology and anthropology by using inductive methods of reasoning. Student migration is a social issue which include the participants' beliefs, and thus supposes multiple perspectives on the effects of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe. The study considered the effects of student mobility from the students', parents', administrators' and lecturers' points of view.

Research by Ary, Jacobs and Sorensen (2010:29); and Gall, Gall and Borg (2010:344-345) articulate the merit of qualitative research by pointing out that the design offers a wide range of methods that focus on the total picture rather than breaking it down into variables. Among the many methods and applications attributed to the design, grounded theory, narrative qualitative inquiry, interim analysis and interpretive epistemology were employed. The approach did not begin with a theory because the researcher was not aware in advance what the results would be. However, the events made itself clear during the discussion with the participants. This research considered the students who were migrating, the parents and the families who assisted the students, and the administrators and lecturers who witnessed the effects of student migration in Zimbabwe. What the participants thought and how they felt was the reality to be established through the selected modes in the qualitative research approach. The result was a comprehensive narrative report that depicted the social reality the participants experienced in

student migration and how this reality had impacted on higher education in Zimbabwe. In turn, the students' migration impacted on the economy of the country.

This research refers to the ideas of Denzin and Lincoln (2003:5-7), who see qualitative research as a bricolage. The patches that make the total picture are the various methods and the different meanings that the events have for the individuals. The literature review pointed to the fact that the statistics on student mobility in Zimbabwe could not totally be relied upon because of their inconsistency (cf. 3.14). The irregularity in the number of students migrating for higher education gave credit to the many participating voices that expressed feelings and perceptions derived from their understanding of student mobility, and what effect it had on higher education and the economy of Zimbabwe. The researcher made an effort to study the real situations as they unfolded naturally, being open to whatever emerged (Johnson & Christensen, 2012:378). The researcher looked at the student migration process from the perceptions of the participants who were directly involved.

Gay et al., (2011:8) point out that in qualitative research the context is not manipulated by the researcher. Similarly, the researcher intended to understand the students', parents', administrators' and lecturers' angle, using qualitative methods. The researcher interacted with the participants in natural set-ups by means of informal interviews. The data obtained (cf. Chapter 5) were then analysed inductively so as to establish the effect of student migration not only on higher education but also on the economy of Zimbabwe.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODS

The researcher aimed to collect data through the following range of methods:

- grounded theory;

- narrative qualitative inquiry;

- interim analysis; and

- interpretive epistemology.

The above methods are typical within a qualitative research design.

4.3.1 Theoretical framework

Research by Reeves, Albert, Kuper and Hodges (2008:631) indicate that theories can be used to help design a research question, guide the selection of relevant data, interpret the data, and propose explanations of causes or influences. In relation to the above observation, the researcher of the current study selected grounded theory to propose explanations of the causes and influences of student migration to South African universities.

4.3.1.1 Grounded theory

Grounded theory is defined as a methodology of developing inductive theories that are grounded in systematically gathered and analysed data. Data-collection, analysis, interpretation, and theory development proceed interdependently and iteratively (Bitsch, 2005:77). This research was guided by this methodology, and also used other relevant research methods as stated above (cf. 4.3) for the collection and analysis of the data. In other words, the information on student migration and its effects on higher education in Zimbabwe were centred in the participants who experienced the migration (cf. 1.5). Grounded theory induced the information from the contributors.

Research by Astalin (2013:118) indicates that *qualitative research* is an umbrella term for a wide selection of approaches and methods which vary significantly in terms of their focus, the assumptions about the nature of the knowledge, and the role of the researcher. This research was guided by grounded theory which is one of the approaches in qualitative research. In other words, the grounded theory approach created the opportunity for the narrative qualitative inquiry, interim analysis and the interpretive epistemology in the attempt to focus on the research aims (cf. 1.4.2).

Earlier on in this chapter (cf. 4.2.2) it was stated that the qualitative research design borrows from sociology by using inductive methods of reasoning. Similarly, Ary et al., (2010:463) say that grounded theory has its roots in sociology. This research made use of qualitative data analysis emergent methodologies such as constant comparison without preconceived or inflexible ideas (Suter, 2012:361; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009:14). Student migration is a social issue which was to be understood through various qualitative methodologies. The researcher employed grounded theory in establishing the first sub-aim which seeks to establish the general and local factors that contribute to the migration of Zimbabwean students to 'foreign' universities, especially to South Africa. By analysing the views and the feelings of the students and the parents involved in student migration, and the thoughts of the administrators and lecturers from the universities, the effects of student migration were ascertained.

Arthur, Waring, Coe and Hedges (2012:86) indicate that in grounded theory, the collection and analysis of the data go hand in hand throughout the whole research project. The researchers say that the approach is open to many methods of data-collection. As indicated in Chapter 1 (cf. 1.5), this study used the interview method for the collection of the data and for its analysis. The interviews were informal, although the researcher made use of an interview guide by examining the listed questions before and checking with the same questions during the dialogue. However, the conversations did not follow the chronological order of the list of the enquiries on the guide. The purpose of the interview guide was to ensure that crucial areas were not ignored.

The researcher also made use of a voice recorder in an attempt to preserve accuracy. The instrument was only used with the permission of the participants. Not everybody approved of its use. From the viewpoint of the participants, and from the interviews with the researcher, the understanding of the participants' contribution determined the direction of the research findings. In other words, it was what the participants said about student migration that determined how higher education was affected and how the effects of migration impacted on the economy of the country.

The founders of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (in Arthur et al., 2012:86) refer to *theoretical sampling*, saying it is interplay between data-collection and analysis. They are quoted to have defined *theoretical sampling* as, "the process of collecting data for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyses data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them". In the light of the above, the researcher benefited from grounded theory by collecting and grouping data according to the similarities of the participants' views interpreted what was said. The analyses of the data lead to an understanding of the effects of student migration on higher education of the country. The findings coincide with the observation given in chapter 2 (cf. 2.6.4) by Maringe and Gibbs (2009:90) namely that political instability unsettles the county's economy, which in turn, affects the development of higher education, driving students into mobility. This theory is based on the findings embedded in the participants' words, thereby helping to recommend future policy guidelines for the development of higher education of the country, with the intention of having student migration to the benefit the country (Chapter 6). The aim was to achieve this intention by means of the information presented by the participants. Thus, narrative inquiry was relevant to this study.

4.3.1.2 Narrative inquiry

Gay et al., (2011:400-402) indicate that *narrative research* is the study of how different people experience the world around them. The researchers continue to say that it is by allowing people to tell their stories that one gets to understand their actions. In this study the students told why they preferred South Africa for higher education (cf. 5.3.2.1), the parents indicated their reasons for supporting their children (cf. 5.4.3), the administrators made observations as they worked (cf. 5.5.3), and the lecturers also gave their input (cf. 5.6.2). These narratives highlighted the people's different experiences which encouraged their migration to South Africa for higher education.

Clandinin and Huber (2007:3) say that *narrative inquiry* is a way of understanding and inquiring into experiences by means of collaboration between researcher and

participants, over time, in a place or places, and during social interaction with their milieus. In relation to the above observations, the situation under study here was the migration of Zimbabwean students, especially to South Africa (cf. 1.3). The meaning attributed to the trend of student migration could only be understood through the narrative accounts of those directly involved in the process, in this case the Zimbabwean students, parents, administrators and the lecturers in Zimbabwean higher education (cf. 1.9).

Conelly and Clandinin (in Lodico et al., 2010:38-40) indicate that the narrative method in education describes and restores experiences. Linked to this view is the impression that the present situation constituted a restoring of the student mobility process in Zimbabwe. In the current study, the background of the study (cf. 1.2) was clarified by the participants' viewpoint given in Chapter 5. What the participants contributed became one of the processes of reflective retelling of what affected those who experience of student migration in Zimbabwe. The individual experiences of the participants on student migration are expressed in Chapter 5 (cf. 5.3, 5.4, 5.5 & 5.6). The researcher's intention was to gather the narratives and analyse them in order to come up with answers to the problems from the participants' viewpoint and how they felt about student migration in Zimbabwe. The researcher was in contact with and closely interacted with the owners of the stories so that what the participants said could be retold in a written account.

It is clear from the discussions that student migration was a social issue that needed to be addressed. The participants' views of student migration and the written record by the researcher contributed to the opinion that participants' views could not be understood in terms of numerical data, but from the words expressed by them.

The current research accepts the finding by Ary et al., (2010:469) that, because the narrative research approach is embedded in the individual, the researcher must be aware of the fact that what is said by the participants may not be the reality of their situation. The narrative inquiry method may bring out individual experience and views on higher education in Zimbabwe, but the information could be modified by the participant, and they could end up saying what they think the researcher may want to hear from them. Where it was possible, in order to minimise incorrect information,

the researcher final verification of the analyses by the participants themselves helped to record accurate representation of the facts.

Suter (2012:369) points out that the outcome of the narrative inquiry is a researcher-generated story that reflects the meaningful experiences that have implications for the reader. In the current study, the researcher conducted interviews with the participants on student migration and higher education in Zimbabwe, and recorded the conversations. The findings could be justified as valid and the information could be relied on because although the interviews were conducted in different settings with participants who were unknown to the researcher, the conversations were recorded on a voice tracer. The voice tracer was used so that the written record would be accurate. In the record was grounded meaning of the reality which had effects on higher education in Zimbabwe. The chronological sequence of events presented by the participants were analysed so that the effects of student migration into South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe could be identified (Chapter 5).

Suter (2012:369) presents the view that re–telling information from the participants' viewpoints is a challenge to any namely to reproduce researcher information accurately but in a way that provides clear insight to a problem. However, the researcher believes that the participants in this research voiced views and concerns accurately. They made a convincing contribution on matters that affected higher education.

Yet the researcher seriously considered the warning by Gall et al., (2010:375) on the narrative research method, namely:

- While the strategy may be attractive because of its social nature, it is prone to disruption.

- The amount of data collected is so much that it is time-consuming to analyse. The researcher has to carefully select only that data which are relevant to the study.

- There is room for subjectivity. The researcher should be mature and avoid researcher bias as much as possible.

In the first experience of the above 'warnings', patience and persistence were exercised by the researcher by politely reminding those who had agreed to participate about the interviews. The researcher also sent emails to some universities. In other cases the researcher had to re-send the e-mails because there were no responses from some of the universities. The researcher physically visited universities in Zimbabwe because there were times when internet could not work there. A lot of data were collected. So the researcher coded the records in order to select only that which was relevant to the study. Selection of information only relevant to the study minimized chances of subjectivity.

In the above circumstances the researcher concurred with Gay et al., (2011:402) and Clandinin and Huber (2007:539) that the narrative inquiry is highly personal and intimate. The researcher was very careful and also aware of the sensitivity of collecting data through interviews. The researcher's attempts in finding information were possible through the consideration of ethical norms, with assurance of confidentiality and anonymity.

4.3.1.3 Interim analysis

The researcher employed interim analysis to come up with a comprehensive analysis of the effects of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe. *Interim analysis* is the cyclical or recursive process of collecting data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:366-367). The researcher followed the process of collecting the data, analysing the data, collecting additional data, and analysing all the data during the project. The data were analysed after each interview. The process helped in not getting confused with the enormous amount of information accumulated.

Another reason for opting for the interim analysis approach was that collection of data for this study was repetitive and collection was over an extended period. The extent of time taken was necessary for the success of the research and the deeper

understanding of the problem under study. Interim analysis helped in understanding how Zimbabwe's higher education situation impacted on the country's economy and how it 'drove' students into migration for university education. Just as was the case in the narrative inquiry, the interim analysis approach could be subjective in the sense that if data were selected in a biased way, the results could be unreliable. In an attempt to reduce researcher-bias, the researcher remained focused on the aim (cf. 1.4.1) of the study.

4.3.1.4 Interpretive epistemology

Suter (2012:344) says that interpretive epistemology honours the understanding of a whole experience through the perspective of those who actually live it and make sense of it. Research by Gall et al., (2010:343) and Andrade (2009:43) indicates that the reality is constructed by the individuals who participate in it. Close to what Gall et al., (2010:343) and Andrade (2009:43) say is the observation by Gay et al., (2011:392) that *interpretive validity* refers to the participants' perspectives which the researcher attempts to interpret as correctly as possible. Gay et al., (2011:392) say that individual construction of events can be drawn and processed only through the interaction of the researcher and the participant. The common element in the above views was the participants' perception of events which the researcher later interpreted. This study obtained information from Zimbabwean students in South Africa, parents who have sent their children to study in South African universities, administrators and lecturers who work in universities in Zimbabwe. At the end of each interview there was agreement to verify the content of the discussion between the researcher and the respondent where it was possible. The researcher considered research ethics because by asking the participants to contribute to the study, the researcher was getting involved in the issue that affected their personal lives.

4.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This section of the study makes use of the views of Clegg and Slife (in Mertens 2010:336) who wrote that: "...every research activity is an exercise in research ethics, every research question is a moral dilemma, and every research decision is an instantiation of values". The researchers explain that research is all about ethics, and there are specific implications in respect of ethical behaviour related to research participants. The reason is that in qualitative research there is the probability of the researcher being involved in the lives of the participants. This research involved the researcher in the lives of migrating students and the parents sending their children to study in South Africa. The researcher explained to the participants the requirements of the study and asked these participants who had agreed to contribute to the research to sign a consent form. It should be pointed out here that some individuals agreed to participate, but chose not to sign anything. Likewise, there were others who did not want the interviews with them tape-recorded.

Research by Gay et al., (2011:19), and Menter, Elliot, Hulme, Lewin and Lowden (2011:52-53) say that ethical considerations are very important in research. They stress that in research the ends do not justify the means because the researcher is required to put the interests of the participants first. As much as the researcher expects to be respected, the consideration should equally be granted to the participants. The question of student mobility in Zimbabwe appeared to be a sensitive issue, taking into account that the enterprise was regarded a private initiative by many of the students. Many of the parents felt the same.

Johnson and Christensen (2004:98) indicated that conducting research with humans has the potential of creating physical or psychological harm, depending on the nature of the research. The researchers mentioned that the researcher needs to be conscious of the ethical issues surrounding the research. To not encroach on the time of the participants the researcher first made appointments with them in order to arrange the venue and time that best suited them. This gave the participants time to reflect on their commitment, or to opt out of the study should they wish. The researcher also took into consideration that time was a factor.

The researcher worked towards establishing a trusting relationship with the participants. According to Atkins and Wallace (2012:42), *voluntary informed consent* is the condition in which the participants understand and agree to their participation, prior to the research getting under way. For this reason, the participants were given consent letters to read first so that they may understand the process they would be engaged in, and have it explained if they did not understand, and to sign if they agree to participate. This letter included all the necessary information also explaining why their participation was necessary, the intended use of the data, and to whom it would be reported (see Appendices C and D). The information clearly stated that participation in the current study was voluntary.

Suter (2012:98) namely avoid any use of force in order to get information from the participants. In this research the participants were free to withdraw at any stage without any penalty. Institutions of higher learning from which the participants came were free to withdraw permission for their students, lecturers and administrators to participate.

Ary et al., (2010:595) state that respect for privacy is central to conducting ethical research with human participants. No information may identify the participants. The consent forms (cf. Appendices C & D) specified what data could be anticipated for what purpose and by whom. The participants were assured of their anonymity which protected their identity.

Newby (2010:47) wrote about the importance of maintaining confidentiality with people who contribute information. The participants' names were not revealed in the research.

4.5 GUIDEPOSTS TO ETHICS

In this study the researcher was guided by the work of Smith (in Gay et al., 2011:23-24) who advises that a researcher should be ready to answer questions posed by the participants. The researcher should be ready to answer because qualitative research plans change during the length of time the research takes. This study

needed such guidance because ethical issues were likely to come up. As pointed out at the beginning of this chapter the decisions by the students to migrate and by the parents to send their children to study outside the country were personal issues. For example, attempting to ask them why they migrated for higher education might have been the same as inversion of their privacy. Thus, the researcher needed the following guidelines for responding to situations that arose during the data-collection process.

- A researcher should have an ethical perspective with regard to the research that is very close to his or her personal ethical position (Gay et al., 2011:23). In the case of this research, the office of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe took close to a month to grant the researcher permission to carry out the research at the state universities. The delay was expected and the researcher had to be very patient but constant in order to be granted permission to carry out research in government universities. Participation of the state universities was as important as that of independent universities.

- Informed consent should take the form of a dialogue that mutually shapes the research and the results (Gay et al., 2011:23-24). The researcher drafted separate letters to students, the parents and the administrators and lecturers explaining the intended purpose of the research. In both cell-phone and face-to-face interviews, the researcher explained queries brought up in order to clarify where the participant did not understand. The researcher hoped the discussion with the participants would assure the participants of confidentiality. The researcher promised to hold the participants right to privacy. However, there were some participants who were more comfortable with not signing the consent letter (cf. 5.4.1). To them, not signing anything was further privacy assurance even if they were willing to participate.

- The researchers should also think beyond the methods they plan to use because things may not go as planned. In this research the researcher was guided by social values. The above decision was taken following what Jones (in Punch, 2009:144) says that in order to understand the other person's

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construction of reality, we could do well to ask them in such a way that they can tell us in their terms. While the researcher was aware of the problem of the research it becomes important to get the view of those directly involved hence interviews with participants. The researcher was prepared should there be changes different from the plan at hand.

- Qualitative researchers are morally bound to conduct their research in a manner that minimises potential harm to those involved in the study (Gay et al., 2011:24). While the discussion on student migration seemed not to be something that may cause physical harm to participants, it was necessary for the researcher to consider what could happen if the participants were to be identified. That gave the researcher a reason to take precautions to protect the participants of the study by not writing any names of the participants. It was important to think about the feelings Zimbabweans had about their country in order to consider their privacy. As citizens, they understand their situation differently from the outsider so it was important not to expose them.

- All the actions in a research, whatever the results, should be principled if the findings are to be trusted. The above regard was the reason why participants were treated with respect. Students from Zimbabwe gave reasons why they came to South Africa for higher education. The parents considered it necessary to sacrifice funds and pay for their children's education outside the country especially in South Africa. The administrators and lecturers experienced the effects of migration in their workplaces. It was up to the participants' to contribute to the cause of the research because they had something to say about higher education in Zimbabwe. That was why the researcher had to *ask* for their participation and not force information from them.

- Relationships between the researcher and the participants are determined by the roles, status, language and cultural norms (Gay et al., 2011:24). The research problem was a social and qualitative in nature. The methods selected for data-collection gave the participants freedom to express themselves on why students migrate. The question under discussion thus

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calls for a good relationship between the researcher and participant. The researcher of this study aimed at building a good relationship so that the research would benefit all those who were concerned (Gay et al., 2011:23-24).

The following section discusses issues relating to population and sampling in the current study.

4.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The population of this study was mainly drawn from South African and Zimbabwean universities. The sample was made up of four groups of people, namely (i) students who have migrated from Zimbabwe to South African universities for higher education, (ii) the parents who assisted in the migration process, (iii) administrators who experienced how Zimbabwean universities contributed and at the same time were affected by student migration and (iv) lecturers who directly experienced student migration in the lecture halls as they taught. The above groups were, as Johnson and Christensen (2012:218) assert the elements from a large population. Thus, the groups, which were purposefully selected, were representative of the larger population.

4.6.1 Identification of the respondents

Punch (2009:162) refers to the importance of sampling that it is not only about which people to interview, but also about the settings and processes. The researcher identified institutions for both the convenience of their settings and whether there could be found willing participants. The decision on which universities to get information from was also founded in information about the more popular South African universities than others.

The researcher was aware of the fact that error in sampling was very possible. Gay et al., (2011:139) point out that any random selection does not guarantee the

representation of the population and may result in sample error. Data came from 5 South African universities and a total of 8 students from Zimbabwe who were studying in those universities. Parent participants were more difficult to identify because they could not be found in institutions as the students, administrators and lecturers. The identified students and parents helped in identifying more parents for participation. In the end 6 parents agreed to participate. A total of 12 administrators and lecturers contributed. Data were collected from students from 9 universities and a total of 26 individuals who included parents, administrators and lecturers.

The researcher followed Finch's (2013) advice on how to reduce bias in qualitative research. The research included information from students both known and unknown to the researcher in order to avoid bias. All the parents and all the university staff who contributed were unknown to the researcher. The inclusion of students not formally known to the researcher helped to avoid the bias of participants giving desirable answers.

As initially intended in Chapter 1 (cf. 1.5), the purposeful sampling strategy, which Gay et al., (2011:141) refer to as the *judgement sampling process,* came up with a representative of the population of this study. Identifying possible students for enlisting participation was a bit complicated given that most student interviews were done by cell-phone. There was a possibility of non-Zimbabweans taking part in the interviews. The researcher relied on the use of the Zimbabwean indigenous languages in order to verify the required student participants.

Henning (2004:71) says that purposive sampling and 'snowball' sampling are related and have one common denominator, namely "…the people most suitable to 'wander with' on the research journey are selected at the time they are needed". The researcher identified the first people to build a connection to other possible participants. Identifying the parents for data-collection purposes was even more problematic than identifying student participants because the parents were too spaced to find easily. The researcher relied on the student participants for the identification of some of the parent participants.

4.6.2 Possible threat to ethical authenticity

The researcher's efforts in data-collection were possible through the consideration of ethics, with the assurance of confidentiality and anonymity. That was how a possible threat to authenticity was dealt with. Still, the researcher had to bear in mind that there could be another setback, namely deception.

4.6.2.1 Deception

Deception is referred to as the misleading or withholding of information from the research participants (Atkins & Wallace 2012:35-36; Gay et al., 2011:22; Johnson & Christensen, 2004:109). The researcher recorded information as it was provided by the participants without selection.

4.6.2.2 Data-collection bias

Mertens (2010:398) says that bias in data-collection, which the researcher should be very sensitive to and avoid, results from a variety of differences in social status. Sensitivity of the matter being researched could discourage the participants from sharing information. The voluntary participation stated in the letter of consent which also was emphasised orally, helped the participants to decide on whether to contribute or to opt out.

Another view summarized by Johnson and Christensen (2004:249) is that, "…the problem...is that qualitative researchers 'find' what they want to find, and then they write up their results". The above researchers state that the results are attributed to the fact that qualitative research is open-ended and less structured than the quantitative research method. The researcher was aware of researcher bias and for that reason the data were not a personal view but that of the participants. The researcher presented the participants' views and perspectives of Zimbabwean students migrating to South Africa for higher education.

Thus, the researcher's explanation to the participants, by means of the letter of consent and also verbally, of the question under study, established communication relationship with the participants.

4.6.2.3 Cell-phone bias

The use of cell-phones is a very convenient way of doing research, in this study especially with student participants because of their location. The researcher referred to Wiid and Diggines' (2009:120) observation on challenges paused by opting for a cell phone interview. One possible challenge was that people are likely to screen numbers to respond to and would possibly reject an unknown number should they wish. To avoid being rejected, the researcher worked with a 'link' person first and then personally explained to the participant the reason for making use of a cell phone to make contact. Another reason for making prior arrangements was that a cell-phone is a mobile device which can be left behind sometimes and a caller may not reach the person to be interviewed. The researcher thus made prior arrangements so that the participants were available at the time of the interview. The researcher was also aware of the high cost of air-time, and therefore made sure that enough airtime was loaded for each interview to be completed. Then there was also the issue of network availability. The researcher made appointments for the evenings when the network usually improved.

However, the use of a cell-phone was a good option for obtaining results as soon as possible. The researcher managed more than one interview per day, recording the interviews to be played back later. The method also enabled the coverage of the samples from different universities in South Africa without the researcher having to travel to the places. The response rate was good and the information was found to be reliable.

4.6.2.4 Confidentiality

In order for the researcher to have access to the information the researcher needed to adhere to confidentiality. Johnson and Christensen (2004:112) refer to *confidentiality* as not revealing the identity of the participant to anyone else. Similarly, whatever information the researcher currently received or shared with the participants was regarded very confidential.

Ary et al., (2010:444) warns that confidentiality may be a challenge in qualitative research on grounds of the fact that some of the participants may be known to the researcher and that may interfere with confidentiality. In the case where participants were known, commitment to confidentiality was binding. The researcher promised not to reveal neither the names of the participants nor of the institution they attended. The same commitment was applied in respect of the parent participants.

The researcher was honest with the participants. It followed the reminder by Menter (2011:58-60) that confidentiality can be challenging in terms of setting. The author indicates how a discussion with one participant can influence the interview with the next one if the first participant had suggested someone to be interviewed. The researcher might be tempted to ask what may have been said in the previous interview. In order to minimize the challenge of prior knowledge of a participant, the researcher allowed the participants to choose venues which could not expose them. The chosen venues had to be convenient and safe for both parties. Participants were free to withdraw if they felt threatened.

Atkins and Wallace (2012:96-97) call upon the interviewer in qualitative research to think of his/her role as that of an explorer investigating a new territory, not just surveying the situation. There were no statistics on migration into South African higher education institutions by the Zimbabwean students. The information on student migration had to be investigated from the contribution of the participants.

Participants were not probed or forced into participation. The fair dealing with the participants was important because it was them who held the data that fulfilled the aims of the research.

The researcher did not inform any one group of participants about what the other said. For example the students did not know what the parent participants said about student migration to South African. Misconception was likely to result in adverse outcomes for the participants. Participants remain anonymous.

4.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Wiersma and Jurs (2009:5) underline the point that all research, whether in the qualitative or the quantitative form, must be valid.

Gay et al., (2011:91) define *validity* in qualitative research as the degree to which qualitative data accurately gauge what is to be measured. The two common terms used in describing validity in qualitative research are *trustworthy* and *understanding* (Johnson & Christensen, 2012:264; Gay et al., 2011:92).

Conrad and Serlin (2011:273-274) say that reliability, which is synonymous with dependability, involves accommodating changes in the environment. The authors quote Marshal and Rossman who say that "…the social world is always being constructed…" Thus, the questions the researcher asks tend to evolve in response to the emerging data. Yet the final report ought to be reliable.

4.7.1 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative research addresses the credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability of the study findings (Gay et al., 2011:92).This research was guided by the above conditions.

4.7.2 Credibility

Research by Ary et al., (2010:498) and Shenton (2004:64-69) indicate that *credibility* refers to the accuracy of the findings of a study. Directed by the above view, the researcher made a great effort to be as close as possible to the truth by interviewing

those people who were directly affected by student migration. Collecting data from the relevant sources made the research convincing. The selected research design and the context of the study contributed to the sincerity of the study. In other words, the use of scientifically acceptable methodologies made the current research credible.

4.7.3 Transferability

Transferability is defined as the degree to which the findings of the qualitative study can be applied or generalized to other contexts (Ary et al., 2010:501; Shenton, 2004:67-71). The context of the current study is higher education in Zimbabwe. The sample of the participant students, parents, administrators and the lecturers was large enough to come up with results that could be generalized with regard to higher education in Zimbabwe Recommendations on planning for student migration and higher education were made from the information of that sample. The information was a general experience of higher education in Zimbabwe.

4.7.4 Confirmability

It was the researcher's desire to be very objective in this study. Objectivity prevented bias both in the procedure and interpretation of the results. Research by Ary et al., (2010:504) and Shenton (2004:72) indicates that qualitative researchers are concerned with whether the data collected and the conclusions drawn can be confirmed. According to Gay et al., (2011:92-393) *flexibility* is paying attention to assumptions that may help in the formulation of the question or present findings in a particular way. For this study the researcher kept a diary of recording information. The researcher also used a reliable voice tracer for recording most of the interviews which were converted to a written record. The researcher also started writing before the information was forgotten and the interview could still be remembered. The early recording of information helped the researcher not to lose relevant information on student mobility in Zimbabwe.

4.7.5 Reliability-dependability

Defining reliability in qualitative research, Gay et al., (2011:39) and Shenton (2004:71-72) say that it is the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures whatever it measures. The data collected for this study and the findings as provided in Chapter 5 showed consistency. For example, despite being interviewed at different times and in very different settings, the information given by the participants was consistently similar as shown in how the information matched.

The term *dependability* suits qualitative research more than *reliability* (Ary et al., 2010:502). The researchers qualify their argument by the fact that in qualitative studies the context of the study changes. Similarly, variations in data-collection in the Zimbabwean student migration into South Africa was explained and not quantified. The explanation of the data in the final presentation can be depended upon as it was a reflection of the participants' explanation. The code-recoding technique employed in this study was a way of checking the consistency of data.

Creswell (2008:646) says reliability is when individual scores from an instrument are nearly the same and stable when repeated to other respondents. The researcher says that the scores should be free from sources of error. Johnson and Christensen (2012:138) say that reliability must be determined empirically, meaning that there should be an experiment carried out to determine reliability. In this study, the information from the participants corresponded despite differences in the participants' positions, that is, whether they were students, parents or university employees. As Johnson and Christensen (2012:138) recommend, the findings in this study were determined empirically through the interviews which were conducted. The researcher also spent more or less the same time with each participant so that participants would be allowed equal chance.

4.8 SAMPLING

Sampling has an impact on the end-product of a research. Newby (2010:229) says that the people who give data have to be representative of something meaningful.

Punch's (2009:162) view is that sampling is important because it is about people and about settings ad processes. The researcher chose a sample that represented a population of the students and the parents, and university lecturers and administrators as well. The chosen sample showed how student migration impacted on not only higher education but also on the economy of the country.

Newby (2010:230-231) says that *sampling* helps the researcher to avoid being overwhelmed with data. A manageable but large enough sample was fair enough to represent the population that was studied.

Data-collection involves costs in the form of time and money. It was cheaper for the researcher to choose a sample from the population to be studied rather than visit or phone all 25 the universities in South Africa. This follows the fact that Zimbabwean students are represented in all the 25 universities. It was therefore appropriate to identify a meaningful sample. The selection of a sample cut the costs and reduced the time to complete the data collection process from different places.

In an article in the *American Academy of Orthotists and Prosthetists,* Lunsford and Lunsford (1995:105-112) point out that the cost of studying an entire population to answer a specific question is usually prohibitive in terms of time, money and resources. The researchers say that a subset of subjects' representation of a given population must be selected. The above observation relates to this research in the sense that the representative sample enabled the researcher to come up with results on which recommendations for student migration were drawn. It was also expected that recommendations could be made based on the findings of the research. The question of the time taken to complete the research was crucial because trends in student migration change with time.

The representation of Zimbabwean students in South African universities is undistinguishable in terms of numbers. The researcher could not find specific statistics on student migration especially in Zimbabwe. South Africa indicated the percentages of Zimbabwean students in their institutions of higher learning and a sample was drawn based on the numbers of student as provided.

The following table shows the basic elements considered in sampling.

Table 4.1: Basic elements considered in the sampling for the study

Element	Definition	Issue
Target population	All of the potential sources of data determined by the research issue.	The size may be known or unknown
Sampling frame	Every instance that can be used to generate research data	Not every instance may be identified
Sample	The instances that are selected to provide information	Extent to which it is representative of the population

Source: Newby (2010:232)

The basic elements of sampling in the study were interpreted in the following table:

Table 4.2: The interpretation of the basic elements considered in the sampling for the study

Element	Definition	Issue
Target population	1. Zimbabwean students in South African universities.	1. **Eight students** participated. All identified and interviewed in South Africa, two students per university.
	2. Parents with children studying in South Africa.	2. **Six parents** participated. All identified and interviewed in Zimbabwe.
	3. Administrators at Zimbabwean universities.	3. **Three administrators** took part. All identified and interviewed in Zimbabwe.
	4. Lecturers at Zimbabwean Universities.	4. **Nine lecturers** participated. All identified and interviewed in Zimbabwe
	5. Zimbabwean universities.	5. **Four** Zimbabwean universities responded.
	6. South African universities	6. **Five** South African universities responded.
Sample frame	1. All the Zimbabwean students in South African universities. 2. All the Zimbabwean parents with children studying at South African universities 3. All the lecturers at Zimbabwean universities. 4. All the administrators at Zimbabwean state universities 5. All the Zimbabwean universities. 6. All the South African universities.	Record of the actual participants.
Sample	26 participants and 9 universities	Convincing total number of final participants

Source: Researcher's own creation

The table above shows that the target group was the students who migrated from Zimbabwe to South African universities for higher education, the parents who assisted in the migration process and the administrators and lecturers who were in direct contact with the Zimbabwean universities. The sampling frame was vast. It was represented by a sample of participants, that is, students, parents, the administrators and the lecturers who participated in the data-collection process. The sample was the group selected from the population to provide information on student migration.

The next section presents the course of action followed in the research.

4.9 RESEARCH PROCEDURES

4.9.1 The sampling-process of the respondents

Qualitative samples are different and small because of the aim and needs of the study. This section discusses the sampling procedure.

4.9.1.1 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling was used for the selection of a sample that was believed to be representative of the student population to be studied. (Ary et al., 2010:428; Gay et al., 2011:141; Johnson & Christensen, 2004:215; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319).

According to Crush et al., (2005:19) statistics indicate that Zimbabwean students are represented in all 25 state universities in South Africa. Purposive sampling was used to identify universities from which to look for student participants. A careful survey of the universities was done in order to determine the size of the population for study. In other words, purposive sampling was synonymous to criteria-based election meant to establish the effect of student migration into South Africa by the Zimbabwean students. Purposive sampling was conducted together with random purposive sampling.

4.9.1.2 Random purposive sampling

Gay et al., (2011:143), Mertens, (2010:323) and Given, (2008:697-698) say that purposeful random sampling involves smaller numbers of participants from large population groups, but produces results that are reliable. The purposeful random sampling approach determines the size of the sample of the participants to be involved in the study. The researcher required smaller samples of the students, parents, administrators and lecturers from the larger population. The unsystematic and indiscriminate way of selecting participants allowed for the fair distribution of settings and balanced findings on student migration for higher education. The

selection of participants from diverse locations minimised bias and assured the objective representation of findings. In order to avoid error in this form of sampling, the researcher ensured that the selected sample comprised of participants who met the requirements of the study. Thus, together with the purposeful random sampling, the researcher employed snowball sampling approach.

4.9.1.3 Snowball sampling

Arthur et al., (2012:49) defines snowball sampling as identifying new cases from recommendations of those already chosen. The researcher opted to employ the snowball sampling in which participants lead to other informants. Two students from Zimbabwe who were studying at South African universities were identified. These students were known to the researcher when she was working as a teacher in Zimbabwe. The selected two students were willing to participate. As the literature (cf. Ary et al., 2010:430; Gay et al., 2011:143; Johnson & Christensen, 2004:216) explains, snowball sampling links the researcher to the participants through contributors already chosen. The selected students led the researcher to other informants until a significant number of participants from different universities were obtained.

Snowball sampling was also relevant for the identification of the parent participants for this study. At the time of data-collection in Zimbabwe the researcher asked friends to help to identify parents with children studying in South Africa. That was how the link with six parents came about. While the students may have been relatively closer at the universities, the parents were more scattered. Connecting with the students helped in identifying the parent participants.

The offices of the registrar in the universities in Zimbabwe directed the researcher where to find administrators and lecturers. The administrators and lecturers who agreed to participate directed the researcher to other informants.

The researcher did not reveal to participants of who else was involved in the study. The researcher remained truthful and loyal to participants by not exposing them as was promised.

4.9.2 The data-collection process

In the collection of data, the researcher followed the following procedures, namely

- Applied to the Research and Ethics Committee (CEDU REC) of the College of Education at the University of South Africa for ethics clearance.

- Obtained permission from the South African universities from which data were to be collected

- Designed data-collection tools in the form of interview guides for the student, parent, administrator and lecturer participants.

- Sampled the respondents.

- Made appointments with the respondents.

- Conducted the data-collection interviews.

- Organised the data.

- Analysed the data – considered the data and made recommendations for student migration in Zimbabwe.

4.9.2.1 Data-collection – the interview

This study followed the qualitative design approach. Ary et al., (2010:438) state that, qualitative research approach is about participants' opinions, beliefs and feelings. The study was about the opinions, beliefs and feelings on Zimbabwean students'

migration to South Africa's higher education institutions. The opinions were expressed in interviews carried out for data collection.

The interview method was relevant for this study because it is adaptable to situations and accommodating to settings and participants. The researcher used interview questions only as a guide for discussing the student migration issue. The interview was not structured but more of a casual conversation that allowed the researcher to inquire into the student migration (Gay et al., 2011:386).

In this research it was the respondents who selected venues for the interview. English was the medium of communication, although a slight tendency existed of using the local languages for emphasis. Some places were too far to be visited several times for data-collection purposes. Using a voice recorder made it possible to interview more than one participant per day to retain correct information from them. The voice tracer was convenient in that it saved the researcher time and travelling, and accommodation costs.

The data were collected through voice recording and taking down notes during the interview if the participants were comfortable with it. Otherwise notes were written soon after the interview, especially in cases where the voice tracer was not used. The researcher was aware of the limitation of writing notes after the interview because some of the information was likely not to be remembered. Forgetfulness on the part of the researcher could result in presenting inaccurate information. With the above information in mind, the researcher always started writing soon after an interview, an act which minimized forgetting information. In some cases the researcher had a chance to verify the information with the participant.

4.9.3 Methods of data-analysis

As indicated in Chapter 1, the qualitative nature of this study called for the narrative form of data-collection through interviews. In this study the informal interview allowed the participants to express their views, their experiences and feelings on student migration. The researcher ended up with intricate written data to be

analysed. Research by Ary et al., (2010:481) and Gay et al., (2011:465) consider data analysis as the most important part of the research process, as the researcher tries to understand the reason for the investigation. Effort was made to understand student migration to South African universities by Zimbabwean students from the participants' perspective. In line with what Gay et al., (2011:465) articulated, data was summarized in a dependable and accurate manner that led to undisputable study findings.

In the next section the researcher considers the use of the narrative data analysis, the interim analysis and interpretive epistemology to interpret the participants' views on the problem under study.

4.9.3.1 Narrative analysis

Narrative data-analysis is the examination of how stories are told (Arthur et al., 2012:285; Mertens, 2010:427). Participants in this research had a different way of expressing themselves on student migration in Zimbabwe. This came in the varied ways they told the stories. This study focused on the circumstances surrounding the student migration process, and the flexibility of the stories. In other words, what the stories revealed were of great importance to the question under study.

The researcher goes along with Ary et al., (2010:469) where they indicate that narrative analysis attempts to capture the individual representation of student migration that is experience-based. The reason was for what the students and the parents felt about their social conditions. The literature review (cf. 2.1.0; 2.3.2; & 3.6.1) in this study showed that student mobility started as, and to a greater extent was still, an individual enterprise appearing to have a social impact, which also relates to the economy of the country. In analysing and re-organizing the data, the researcher did not change the information, but merely reconstructed the events to fit in with the problem under study. Again the researcher was aware that in attempts to call something to mind, something sometimes changed the original form. That was the reason for organising the data after each interview while it was still fresh in the researcher's mind

The researcher followed Ary et al.,'s (2010: 470) guiding steps towards narrative analysis, namely

- selecting an individual from whom to learn about student migration;

- collecting the story that reflects the participants' experience of student migration in Zimbabwe;

- Recording the story, including any gestures noticed, taking note of how the story was told;

- analysing the narrative;

- looking for themes;

- restoring the story's chronological sequence, attending to problems and solutions;

- confirming the story with the participants where possible;

- validating the accuracy of the data with the participant where possible.

The researcher listened more and talked less in order to limit selective hearing which might have resulted in the incorrect interpretation of the data.

4.9.3.2 Interpretive epistemology

According to Gall et al., (2010:343), *interpretive epistemology* implies the view that aspects of human environment are constructed by the individuals who participate in that environment. The researchers continue by saying that aspects of social reality have no existence apart from the meanings that individuals construct for them. The mobility of Zimbabwean students to South Africa is an aspect of life that co-exists with the students, parents, administrators and lecturers. However, the fact that the participants' circumstances varied, they were bound to view and express student migration differently. For example, the administrators and lecturers expressed what

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they observed and felt as they worked at the universities. On the other hand, the parents and the students looked at the same issue from their point of view.

The analysis of the data collected was an attempt to explain the nature of student migration to South African universities by the Zimbabwean students.

4.9.3.3 Interim analysis

The researcher carried out a narrative analysis in conjunction with an interim analysis. *Interim analysis* is the cyclical process of collecting and analysing data during study (Johnson & Christensen, 2004:500; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:366-367). A lot of data were collected in this study. The cyclical process of data-processing gave meaning to the information that accumulated. That gives reason to say that an interim process was relevant for the study because it helped in making decisions in respect of data-collection, and also to identify recurring topics.

The amalgamation of the narrative data analysis, interpretive epistemology and interim analysis helped to draw information from the gathered data. After the data was gathered through the narrative technique, following the suggestion of interpretive epistemology, the researcher followed the following stages in analysing the data. The guidance was borrowed from McMillan and Schumacher (2006:366-367) and Gay et al., (2011:469-473). The researcher

- wrote down notes in respect of the interviews to get the whole picture;

- scanned the data collected at that point for possible ideas they might contain, taking special note of what the people were saying;

- identified recurring ideas or meaning that might become themes;

- coded the data by attaching working labels in a recognizable manner;

- grouped together ideas that had similar labels;

- revisited the coded notes and recoded them where necessary to encapsulate similar notes and ideas and to refine the coding system; and

- rearranged the summaries in logical order, bearing in mind that these summaries were a step from the actual data.

The researcher made clear the difference between descriptive data and the researcher's reflective commentary which will be presented under the heading 'Discussion' in Chapter 5. The above stages were done after each interview. The final analysis was done from this work.

Coming next is the researcher's reflection on the research process with regards to the encounter with the research methods.

4.10 ENCOUNTERS/EXPERIENCES WITH RESEARCH METHODS

The methodologies employed in this study required time and great commitment. However, the methodologies fairly addressed the reasons why Zimbabwean students opt to study in South Africa for the purposes of higher education instead of studying at home. It was only by means of the qualitative research methods that the *effects* of student migration on both higher education and the economy were brought to the surface.

The students were eager to talk. They enthusiastically expressed their views and were alert to the direction of higher education and how that course was being unfairly interfered with. All the students who participated in the face-to-face interviews had no objection to the interviews being recorded. What they said and how they said it was only possible through the selected research methods. Being in South Africa gave the students the freedom to express their views.

The researcher sensed disappointment in the parent participants. While they felt that international education was a good experience, they expressed their hope to have the home situation cleared up in terms of higher education and employment. The

qualitative research methods gave the parents the opportunity to express their feelings the way they did.

The administrators and lecturers seemed frustrated about the state of Zimbabwean higher education and its effect on the economy that, they believed, drove the students into migration.   In expressing their views, the researcher sensed hesitation with some and others again were cautious. The differences in the participants' responses suggested that there was more to what they could express in words. While the researcher took time to ensure them of the ethical considerations, the possibility of uncertainty could not be ruled out among some of the participants. In addition to the above observations, some participants took personal precautions by not wanting to be recorded, not wanting to sign the consent form or participating without issuing a letter of permission by their institute. This reminded the researcher how seriously people took the question of trust and safety.

While the researcher found the qualitative research method most appropriate for this study, there seems to have been a gap that was difficult to close. The approach could not reflect the hesitation of a participant as his or her voice went down, and the eyes shot a quick glance at the door, the distant look as the participant reflected on his or her view, nor could the gestures that attempted to emphasise a point be expresses. Words were not appropriate for the appearance of the dejection that dominated especially the parent, administrator and lecturer participants. It was not possible to portray the resignation in the other participants- just shrugging their shoulders, which could mean a lot of things.

The qualitative research approach was found to be effective. However, some things stayed with the participants, which could not be expressed in words.

4.11 POST-RESEARCH CONSIDERATIONS

This study focussed on state universities in regards to student migration in Zimbabwe. If the research was to be done again, an attempt would be made to include South African universities' experiences with Zimbabwean students at these

institutions. If the time allowed, the research could be expanded to include the contribution of the following, namely the authorities at the schools and other centres that facilitate the writing of the 'A' Level Cambridge examinations (cf. 1.1); the teachers who assisted the students with the 'A' Level CSC syllabus in preparation for migration for higher education following the writing of the Cambridge examination; and the offices of the Permanent Secretary of Higher and Tertiary Education for their opinion on student migration to South Africa. An attempt could be made to come up with an even wider scrutiny of the effects of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe.

4.12 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter the researcher explained in depth the qualitative research approach which was employed in the study. The research procedures and the research processes were also indicated.

The data were collected from four distinct groups of participants from two countries, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Qualitative processes were employed to collect in-depth information from Zimbabwean students studying at universities in South Africa, the parents who sent their children for higher education in South Africa and the administrators and lecturers working at the state universities in Zimbabwe. The interview was the predominant method of acquiring the data.

The qualitative research approach used in this study provided a deep insight into the topic, and was appropriate for the nature of the information that explained the problem being investigated.

The following chapter is a presentation and discussion of the findings with regards to the effects of Zimbabwean students' migration to South African universities.

CHAPTER 5

THE PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher will present and discuss the information with regards to the research questions.

The question under investigation is the effects of student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe*.*

The previous chapter stated that the study would follow a qualitative design for data-collection (cf. 4.2). This was the approach which was used to come up with the information presented in this chapter. The data were collected following the research methods presented and discussed in the previous chapter (cf. 4.3). During the data-collection process, the researcher was guided by the ethics parameters posed in the previous chapter. The identification and sampling of the population followed the stages as indicated in Chapter 4. Thus, this chapter is a record of the data obtained through the research procedures presented in the previous chapter.

This chapter explored and came up with information that responded to the first two sub-aims of the study, namely which intended to

- establish the general and local factors that contribute to the migration of students to foreign-based universities;

- ascertain what, in general, drives students to South African higher education institutions (cf. 1.4.2).

The participants also gave suggestions on what could be done about the issue of student migration. The information is in the form of responses contributed by the participants who answered the research questions. The information presented here is valid and can be relied upon, because the sample size and the data obtained from

that sample by means of the interviews were justifiable. The discourse is the response of some of the stakeholders in the migration of students from Zimbabwe to South African universities. In obtaining the information, the researcher remained committed to confidentiality and did not expose the identity of the participants, not even here.

The findings, which are relevant to the 2013-2014 academic years, are presented in the form of discussions. These debates are classified according to the recurring themes and ideas from the narratives provided by the participants.

5.2 PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

The data will be presented in four segments. Phase one looks at the information from some of the students from Zimbabwe who are studying at South African universities. The second phase is a contribution by the selected Zimbabwean parents living in Zimbabwe, but whose children are studying at South African institutions of higher learning. The third phase is what was said by a number of the administrators at Zimbabwean universities who agreed to participate. The final input in phase four, is that of the lecturers from the Zimbabwean participating universities on the effect of student migration to South African universities on higher education in the country.

In each of the four instances, the participants' words are written in italics and are followed by the researcher's analysis. The names of the institutions, the parents, the students, the administrators and the lecturers who participated are not stated in the presentation. This is in line with ethical considerations, and in accordance with the wishes of the participants, namely that they remain anonymous. The researcher made an effort not even to imply the gender of the participants.

It is important to note that response from some universities in both Zimbabwe and South Africa for permission to carry out a research that included them was rather slow in coming. Some universities did not even respond. The researcher had to repeatedly follow up in order to get that very significant permission.

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5.3 PHASE ONE: DATA OBTAINED FROM STUDENTS STUDYING AT AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

5.3.1 Introduction

The data presented in this section were acquired by means of interviews. The interview methods were in two forms: (i) face-to-face interviews and (ii) recorded telephone interviews. The face-to-face interviews were conducted where the students could easily be reached. The telephone interviews were very suitable and convenient, enabling the researcher to reach a wide number of students at different institutions of higher learning in South Africa, without having to travel to these places.

5.3.2 The sample of the students who took part in the research

The final number of interviewed participants was eight (8) students. These were the students who agreed to participate in the research, although the invitation had been extended to a total of 14 students. The sample was drawn from a chosen number of South African universities which were representative enough of the Zimbabwean students studying there. As agreed with the students, their names and those of the universities were not stated in the presentation. Only the information they provided was used. On the question of their experience of studying at a South African university the students provided the information as indicated below.

5.3.2.1 The participants

This segment presents the student participants in the research. The participants are introduced, using letters of the alphabet. However, the participants were not interviewed in the order they appear in this presentation. For the sake of privacy, the participants' contributions are reviewed in discussions that follow the data presentations.

(i) **Student A** found studying in South Africa a unique experience. The student appreciated the rich resources, and considered learning in South Africa an exposure

to advanced literature and technology. It was Student A's choice to study in South Africa, and the parents supported the idea. **A** could also have studied in England, but finally settled for South Africa. This student prepared for migration by writing the Cambridge Examinations, only to ensure acceptance in any international university.

(ii) Student B said, "*Studying in SA is actually the best idea for me. I can say that there are more facilities in SA universities as compared to those at home. I wanted exposure and I wanted to study where there were more facilities*".

Like the former student, this student also said it was a personal choice to come to South Africa, a decision which was also supported by the parents. The student prepared for moving to South Africa by writing both the CSC and ZIMSEC examinations.

(iii) Student C was succinct with the response and personal view on studying in South Africa by saying,

> *It's been good. Generally it has been a good experience*.

On the choice of the study destination, the student further elaborated that,

> *It was my parents' and mine. It was at that time when universities were being closed at home. So my parents saw no point in registering at the local university.*

The student prepared for leaving by writing both the CSC and ZIMSEC examinations.

(iv) Student D perhaps had different feelings about coming to South Africa for higher education and said,

> *Actually, it is not a privilege as many people would think. It is a sign that things are not OK at home. If things were fine at home we would be at either UZ or NUST and not come here to seek better opportunities.*

On the choice of a study destination the student went on to say that,

It was more of a mutual choice between me and my parents because we sat down together to discuss what would be best, not only for me but also for the sake of the family and those who would follow me in the family. So we discussed and decided on SA because it is close at home and that would be best.

The student wrote only the ZIMSEC examinations and proclaimed having considered studying in Australia but found the fees 'unfriendly'.

(v) Student E was of the opinion that studying in South Africa was better than studying in Zimbabwe because in the latter there was a lot of theory to be covered and not as much practical knowledge as compared to South Africa.

E, who had the experience of studying for a whole semester at a university in Zimbabwe, had written both the ZIMSEC and CSC examinations. It was also the student's choice to study in South Africa for the reason that the student's peers had come to study in South Africa, so there was the need to be with friends.

(vi) Student F said studying in South Africa was the best idea, and was supported by the parents. The student had a sibling studying in America and said that their parents viewed international education as the best exposure for their children. The student registered for and wrote both the ZIMSEC and CSC examinations.

(vii) Student G had mixed feelings about studying in South Africa. In the first place the student had always wanted something different in education. The student liked the idea of being far away from home. It was the parents' decision for the student to study in South Africa. For that reason the undergraduate was registered for and wrote the Cambridge examinations only, not the ZIMSEC examinations.

(viii) Student H was of the opinion that education in South Africa was a great advantage for international experience. It was the student's choice to study in South Africa, and the parents supported the idea. Generally the student felt very isolated and lonely. The student said the majority of the students in class were Afrikaans-speaking. **H** had either to speak English all the time or be without anyone. Otherwise South Africa had offered this student a great exposure experience in life. The student

also took the CSC in addition to the ZIMSEC examinations at 'A' Level in preparation for migration.

All the participants said that the number of students coming to South Africa for higher education was on the increase.

5.3.2.1(a) Discussion

The above information from the students was a response to the first two questions of the interview guide. The answers to the first question showed that all the participants did not regret their choice to study in South Africa. They felt that they had made the best choice in selecting the destination. In regard to the decision to study in South Africa, four students, namely **A**, **B**, **E** and **H** had made the choice. For three students, namely **C**, **D** and **F,** the parents and the students discussed the situation, and mutually agreed on the destination. In the case of one student, namely **G,** the parents decided on where their child had to go for higher education. The above intention is in agreement with what was discussed in Chapter 2 (2.3.2), namely that the students and their parents have become confident consumers in respect of higher education. From the Zimbabwean perspective, the shared view is in line with the outlook in Chapter 3 (3.6.2) that both the parents and the students seemed to have lost confidence in their local higher education. This is why they opted for South Africa for the university education for their children.

Almost all of the students indicated that they had decided to migrate to foreign universities for higher education. This view is reinforced by the findings that students **A** and **G** wrote the Cambridge examinations only, students **B**, **C**, **E**, **F** and **H** wrote both the CSC and ZIMSEC examinations and only student **D** took just the ZIMSEC examination. It was stated in Chapter 1 (cf. 1.1) that students write the examination in order to obtain a Cambridge School Certificate (CSC), which provides them with access to foreign-based universities, because they are recognised in international universities. Some of the students were also said to either forego the examinations set by the local board, the Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council (ZIMSEC), or write the examinations of both Boards in order to be on the 'safe side'. Then there

were a small number of students who migrated on ZIMSEC qualifications only. The findings in this research confirmed the observation.

When they were asked whether they had alternative destinations in mind for their studies, two students (**A** and **G**) had other international destination choices in addition to South Africa. One student (**D**) only had either South Africa or home in mind. Five students (**B**, **C**, **E**, **F** and **H**) had decided on South Africa, and had no other destination in mind. The fact that the greater number of the participants had decided on South Africa as their destination confirmed the observation discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.13.3 2), namely that the country was a popular destination for students. All the students indicated their determination for migration, by firstly taking measures through writing foreign examinations, and secondly, for some by having alternative destinations in mind. Thus, indicating the student participants' answers to the fact that they do migrate, and that they prepare themselves for that exercise.

The findings confirmed the fact that the parents where directly involved in the migration of their children. Students **C**, **D**, **F** and **G** said that their parents either came up with the idea or openly discussed their child's proposal to migrate. This supports the notion that the parents felt that quality was important for their children (cf. 2.4.4.10(a). As the students said, they were looking for quality education.

The active involvement of the parents, ascertained from what these participants said, could be said to be in agreement with King and Findley's (2010:32) findings that a parent's occupation, level of higher education and the ability of the parents to finance their children's education abroad enabled the child to migrate for higher education. All the students who participated in the research were financed by their parents. The parents themselves had undergone college and university education, and therefore they understood the benefits that were likely to come with an international higher education experience.

When they were asked how they were accepted at South African universities, all the students said that their institutions did not discriminate against them. The view gave South Africa an aura of internationalization, especially for the SADC region (cf. 3.9.2). However, some of the students pointed out that there were differences in the

attitudes among individual students. A number of them said some lecturers made reference to the Zimbabweans and other nationalities, and that made the students uncomfortable. The students considered the references as individual views, not the perspectives of the institution.

The students were asked whether they would go back to Zimbabwe upon the completion of their studies. All the students said they would look for employment in South Africa, and not go back to Zimbabwe immediately. The findings link Zimbabwean students to the international student migration observation discussed in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.8) that the students usually migrate with the intention of staying in the 'host' country. In relation to the above, the findings also gave Zimbabwean students their place in the African perspective (cf. 3.7.2), where a significant number of individuals who pursued higher education opportunities out of Africa (and outside their country of origin) did not return home. The finding could even be brought closer to home, as pointed out in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.10), where the Zimbabwean students would rather stay and work in South Africa if the opportunity allowed, given the unstable economic conditions back home.

In short, it can be concluded that student migration is an unavoidable phenomenon in respect of Zimbabwe. The students, with the support of their parents, prepare themselves for migration long before they even completed secondary education. Given the economic situation in Zimbabwe, the students would rather stay and work in South Africa after graduation than go back home.

5.3.3 The students' perspectives on their migration for higher education

This section indicates some of the reasons that contributed to why the Zimbabwean students decided to migrate to South Africa for higher education purposes. The students based their choice on the comparison between the South African experience and the Zimbabwean situation.

5.3.3.1 The 'push' into South Africa

Participants gave reasons why they chose South Africa as a study destination. The following were some of the reasons that have contributed to their decision of their choice.

5.3.3.1 (a) Standards

When asked whether the standard of qualifications at South African institutions were higher than in Zimbabwe, seven of the eight students considered the standards in South Africa higher. The students said that the South African qualifications seem to be considered the highest in the employment sector. For this reason the students wished to study in South Africa so that later they may stand a chance to work in the country.

The same number of students also made mention of the availability of resources in South Africa that contributed to the high standards which attracted Zimbabwean students. The students implied that South African education had an international touch. However, two students indicated that the level of higher education in Zimbabwe was higher than in South Africa, with one of them comparing the first course of Business Management at university to the Management of Business at 'A' Level. The other student was not sure whether the South African qualifications were acclaimed among employment sectors in comparison to the Zimbabwean ones.

5.3.3.1 (b) The environment conducive to learning

The students pointed out that generally students look for a favourable learning environment. They mentioned disturbances, such as food and accommodation shortages, the harassment of students even by the police, and the closure of universities as reasons why they opted to study in South Africa. One of the students stated that,

Though I love Zimbabwe and I will be going back after graduation, I would not have studied there because of the opportunities I am getting here in South Africa. Here I learn with people from different places. It is not only about books. It is also about different people. It is not about theoretical stuff, but the knowledge that you may use in the future. In Zimbabwe we could have been a group of the same people from, say the mission schools. Here we learn new ideas from people from other countries. Students are generally looking for better resources which we currently do not have in Zimbabwe. Yes, there is something but it is not enough.

As one of the students concluded, they wanted a different learning experience.

5.3.3.1 (c) The state of the economy

All the students pointed out that the current state of the economy in Zimbabwe was the largest contributor to student migration. They believed that if the state of the economy was fine, fewer numbers of students would be in South Africa for higher education. Some of the students referred to the time when Zimbabwean students did not have to migrate for recognisable qualifications. It was pointed out that the bottom-line was not fine, therefore the students decided to leave. This was said with the belief that there was less of a concentration on education, and more attention was being paid to other issues that are political. The students referred to unfinished buildings at a number of universities which had already been under construction for almost a decade. The students indicated that in South Africa the situation was different in respect of the fact that the country funded higher education and improved the facilities. One particular student mentioned that South Africa believed in the value of higher education, and therefore maintained the institutions.

5.3.3.1 (d) The structure of higher education

On whether the structure of higher education in Zimbabwe was planned differently to South Africa, five participants were of the opinion that it was. All the participants cited

the difference in facilities, with South Africa having up-to-date facilities, technologies, and also constructive interaction between the lecturer and the students. An example was given by a student who had spent a semester at one of the universities in Zimbabwe before migrating to South Africa. The students also mentioned the integration of theory and practice in learning which seemed to be South Africa's approach in many programmes.

5.3.3.1 (e) The students' view of the current higher education situation in Zimbabwe

Three of the eight students indicated that higher education in Zimbabwe had less disturbances in terms of student unrest and demonstrations which seemed to have been 'checked' by the state. The classes were 'on-and-off' and not as regular as they used to be. Two of the three students cited examples of cousins who had confirmed that, apart from the lack of sufficient resources, all seemed to be quiet in their fields of study with limited tuition taking place. Another student thought that in comparison, higher education in South Africa was more thorough and coordinated.

The other five students were of the opinion that higher education in Zimbabwe needed 'an overhaul'. One of the students expressed the above view by saying,

> *I read a lot and personally I think that everything in Zimbabwe is a bit too politicised. For example in education it is no longer about educating people but about passing a certain effect on people. In Zimbabwe opportunities for higher education are still not enough as compared to South Africa.*

What some students considered an improvement in higher education seemed to be not supportive of the essence of higher education. The majority of the students who were interviewed were of the opinion that Zimbabwean higher education was not quite what it should be, and that contributed to student migration to South Africa.

5.3.3.1 (f) South African qualifications and employment

On whether a South African qualification was an advantage in employment, a student said,

> *I think people studying Information Technology can later impart their knowledge in Zimbabwe. In terms of technology, I think South Africa is 5 times ahead of Zimbabwe. But for people doing normal degrees like myself, that is, the Bachelor of Commerce degrees, South Africa has a lot of jobs for us. BUT the challenge is xenophobia. For example, ten companies are allowed to take people for attachment from my college, but of those ten only three take Zimbabweans. South Africa has xenophobia and racism which is not public but hidden.*

5.3.3.1 (g) Discussion

The first aim of this study seeks to establish the general and local factors that contribute to the migration of students to foreign universities (cf. 1.4.2). The primary reason as established by this research is - that Zimbabwean students were, in most cases, just like any other international students when it came to student migration. In addition, students' awareness that student migration in Zimbabwe was on the rise links to the discussion in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.3.3), namely that the global trends influenced student mobility in various ways. The Zimbabwean students were experiencing the same global drive as discussed in the background to student migration in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.3). Secondly, the reasons given by the students who participated in this study were a corroboration of those explaining why African students migrate for higher education (cf. 3.6.3). Thus, also the Zimbabwean students found themselves in an unavoidable global process. In addition, the experience of the Zimbabwean students was enhanced by many other factors specific to their country contribute to their migrating to South Africa for higher education.

In Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6.3.1) the 'push' factors in student migration were discussed, referring to the UNESCO (UIS/IB 2012: 2-5) reports that said that Africa's students were the most mobile in the world. Zimbabwe, being an African country with many migrating students, fitted into the UNESCO description. In the same chapter (cf. 3.7.1) student mobility in the SADC was discussed, with an illustration (cf. 3.9.4, Table 3.2) showing Zimbabwe having the highest number of students in South Africa. This confirms the participants' evidence in section 5.3.2.1(a) that many students preferred South Africa as their destination for higher education.

The question of quality and standard of education and recognizable degrees seemed to be at the heart of the students' decision to migrate. This is why they based their argument for migration on the status of universities where South African universities were top if compared to those of Zimbabwe (cf. 3.9.6.4). The issue of high standards and quality of higher education is considered important worldwide. What the participants said is similar to what was pointed out in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.4.1.1), namely that students look up to destinations like the U.S.A. because of the quality of its education. Given the participants' situation, South Africa provides a favourable environment for their expectations. The required and appropriate resources for desired higher education were only available through migration. However, the students indicated various factors, exclusive of the situation in Zimbabwe, which drove them into migration for higher education.

While the participants mentioned different issues, such as the difference in the structure of higher education in South Africa and Zimbabwe, and how they viewed the current situation of higher education in their country, almost all of them preferred South African higher education. Most of them prepared themselves for leaving by taking the Cambridge examination just to be sure they would not be rejected (cf. 5.3.2.1(a)). Thus, in general, the students' responses suggested that there were a number of reasons, which were further enhanced by local motives which drove the students into mobility for higher education. These reasons were also pointed out by the parents, the administrators and the lecturers.

The participants' observation about the rising numbers of students migrating into South Africa for higher education was confirmed by Moyo in the *Zimbabwe Independence* (January 10, 2014). The writer mentioned how Zimbabwean students had inundated the South African embassy in the country for study permits to pursue tertiary education in South Africa. The fact that the reporter likened the situation to that of 2007-2008 gave credibility to the participants' words of continued student migration to South Africa. The reasons for the migration, such as prospects for employment upon completing their studies, the Zimbabwean unemployment rate standing at 80% plus, the high entry requirements at Zimbabwean universities and limited choices of degree programmes, were among those which were similar to those stated by the student participants in this research. For the same reasons as indicated above the students were unwilling to return home upon the completion of their studies (cf. 5.3.2.1(a)).

From the above information it can be gathered that while global issues contribute to the general factors that are pushing student migration in Zimbabwe, the local factors seem to have more of an influence. This made the experience of student migration a doubtless reality, and more students were making the effort to migrate.

5.3.4 Student funding

Six students were not sure whether there were scholarships and bursaries available for them, especially from the government. On this subject there were responses such as,

> *"I am not sure what support the Zimbabwean students get from the government".*

or

> *"Ahhhh, I have heard that there is some kind of grants, but I do not know much about it. My parents pay for me".*

and

"Ahhhh, I once heard that the government used to give grants some ten years ago but that has since then been stopped. There is definitely nothing coming from government. Those studying in Zimbabwe pay from their own pockets".

and

"I'm not sure. I know of someone who has a scholarship. To be honest, I'm not sure which scholarship..."

One student had this to say,

"Let me tell you the real truth. There is what they call the 'Presidential Scholarship'. That Presidential scholarship does not benefit the people who are really in need of it. There are parents who can afford university in Zimbabwe, not talking about South Africa, BUT Zimbabwe, who have children on this scholarship. Yet those who qualify do not get it. Yet some of those who get it do not qualify at all. There we do not understand the criterion used to select people for the fund. I think it does no benefit those who deserve".

Only one student said,

"Yes they receive some funding. There is a funding scheme whose name I have forgotten".

Another student singled out one company, ECONET, which funded students from high school to higher education. This student did not know of any other funding organisation.

When asked whether they would have studied in Zimbabwe, only two of the students who were interviewed could have studied in Zimbabwe while the others have not even considered that. The latter students cited the lack of sufficient resources in the Zimbabwean universities as the drive behind their choice of South Africa as a study destination. One of these students said,

"Given the resources, I would have loved to study at home. Zimbabwean education is good. The problem is resources. If they were available that would be good."

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The other student, however, seemed less committed, and had this to say,

> *"Yes, I thought of going to the UZ, but when the opportunity arose to study here (in South Africa) I grabbed it".*

When the students compared the Zimbabwean situation to that of South Africa, all the participants admitted that the students were well-supported in terms of funds, and that made learning possible.

However, all the students said that the money spent on their education was worth it if they consider the type of education they were receiving and all the benefits they were enjoying. The students had high hopes that they would get employment either in South Africa, or elsewhere. They seemed not to be too keen to go back and work in Zimbabwe.

5.3.4.1 Discussion

The majority of the students had a vague idea of the availability of student funding in Zimbabwe. The lack of knowledge about student funding was evident in the doubt they expressed in phrases such as,

> *"I am not sure what support ..." or... "Ahhhh, I have heard that there is some kind of funding..."*

From what the students knew, it seems that information about funding for higher education was not made public, something which calls for transparency in the funds management for higher education (cf. 3.19). The fact that the participants doubted whether funding existed or not confirms this lack of transparency in student funding. On the other hand, what students knew and did not know was linked to the discussion in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.12.6.1) on how funding was a major challenge in higher education in Zimbabwe.

On the question of who benefits from the well-known Presidential Scholarship, one participant said that the scheme

> *"...does not benefit the people who are really in need of it. There are parents who can afford university in Zimbabwe... who have children on this scholarship".*

The participants' observation reminds of corruptive acts, because where the funds ended up, it was benefiting undeserving people (cf. 3.6.3.1). What the participant observed was further confirmed by a publication in a South African local newspaper, *The Star* (February 25, 2014). The writer indicated how the fees for the students on the Presidential Scholarships were not paid, but how

> *"...those that had families that can afford will help, but the poor ones will suffer".*

The question is how students who can afford it end up being on the programme meant for the disadvantaged.

Thus, the information from the participants indicated a lack of clarity in respect of student funding, and confirmed what the literature indicated on the same subject. Only one local company, ECONET, was identified for funding students.

From the participants' perspective, the funds went into improving the resources. Out of eight student participants, only two said they would have studied in Zimbabwe if the local institutions were well-equipped. The question of resources in higher education is important, not only in respect of the local students (cf. 2.3.3.1), but also to other international students (cf. 3.13.4). This is the reason why the students believed that their parents were not wasting money by sending them to South Africa and elsewhere to study at well-equipped institutions.

Chapters 2 (cf. 2.3.1) and 3 (cf. 3.5.2) indicated some reasons why students migrate. The participants in this study gave various reasons why students in Zimbabwe migrated. Their personal and general reasons were in agreement with some of the reasons discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.13.3), namely the 'push' and 'pull' reasons for migrating to South Africa for higher education. Thus, student migration is an inevitable process for Zimbabwean students.

Nevertheless, the participants were of the opinion that the migration of the students affected higher education in Zimbabwe.

5.3.5 The effect of the students' migration on higher education

The participants were asked whether it was only the brightest students who migrated. All eight of them said that migration for the purpose of higher education was a question of whether one could afford it, and not whether one was bright at school. One of them said,

> *Anyone, with money enough to afford the foreign fees can migrate. Migration has nothing to do with being bright.*

Another participant said,

> *There are some students who were bad in class. But because their parents could afford, they were enrolled in special universities here in South Africa. There they spend a whole year <u>playing</u> and adjusting to what university may all be about. They only start something in the second year. It's all about whether you can afford it.*

Yet another response was that,

> *It is those students you thought were dull who go to study out. When they come back you see them in high posts in their parents' businesses. They just were able to afford it.*

It was also said that some of the bright students received scholarships and they left as well, usually not to return. One student pointed out that most students in Zimbabwean universities may have wanted to migrate, but they could not afford the international fees.

The participants were asked to compare student funding in Zimbabwe with that in South Africa. The general answer was that in South Africa the government, the banks and other private companies provided the students with bursaries and

scholarships, and some of them offered the students internship. Only one participant knew of a company in Zimbabwe that was involved with student-funding.

On whether migration had an effect on higher education in Zimbabwe, all of the participants were not sure. They had the view that since they were not part of the group studying at home, they did not have the experience of being at a local university.

One of them pointed out that,

> *If so many are leaving then the change ought to be felt.*

5.3.5.1 Discussion

From the participants' perspectives, anyone who could afford the fees of the universities in South Africa could migrate. This view was in agreement with the opinion in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.5.2) that higher education was a privilege of the rich and those who could afford it and not the right of those with the 'best brains'. On the other hand, in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.6.4) it was indicated that those who can afford it go on to migrate to where they could best access quality education, which was also relevant to the current economic demand. However, there was an implication that *some*, meaning *not all* the universities readily accepted students as long as they could pay for themselves. As the participants indicated, all the migrating students did so for different reasons, and did what they thought was the best for them.

The participants were concerned with the lack of student funding in higher education. Their response was an emphasis of what was said in 5.3.4 that participants were not sure about funding assistance given to students. The differences in the students' interests, which can also be said to affect the economy, attracted the students more to South African higher education in the hope of finding jobs. The students pointed out that they would try to get jobs in South Africa after they graduated. The observation of the students not going back to the country of origin is confirmed in IEASA (2011:11) that in 2009 South Africa had 145 000 graduates in its universities. Of these, 11 380 (nearly 8%), were international students. While the majority of

them returned to their home countries, it was noted that this was not the case in respect of the Zimbabwean students. The above information reinforces the participants' wish to stay in the 'host' country after completing their studies outside the country and this linked higher education to the economy of the country. The economy could be affected by losing potential workers.

The students could not be expected to have a clear idea on how their migration to another country impacted on higher learning at home because they were not studying there. One reason for the lack of knowledge was that they were not directly involved with higher education in Zimbabwe. Secondly, they relied on second-hand information on what happens in universities because they studied outside the country. Even if the students were to discuss their experiences with friends from home, whatever information they shared would not carry enough evidence to determine the impact of migration on higher education. However, the fact that they noticed that they were leaving in large numbers justified the view of one of them that if a discernible number was drifting away, then the shift was highly likely to be felt in the country that they left. This calls for the ministry responsible for higher education to admit the existence of student migration and its effects and then make plans to alleviate the situation.

5.3.6 Student migration and the economy-the students' perspectives

In this section the participants' views on how higher education is related to the economy of the country will be presented.

The participants were asked whether student migration ended up in a loss of potential manpower. The response was that they believed that it was.

One of the participants said that,

> *"If students were just going out of the country and not coming back it is loss. But I blame it on the situation of the country. Those who go cannot help it.*

Another participant, who also agreed that student migration meant losing people who would have worked in the industry, said that,

> *The loss may not be felt currently, but the country would feel it eventually. So many of the students are leaving and you do not see them coming back to work in the country.*

Based on the above indications, the participants were asked whether they considered student migration as 'brain drain' and one of them said,

> *Student migration is a brain drain in its initial stages. These students are 'drained' well before they even serve the country. Because there is nowhere to work, people are leaving early. More and more companies are closing so where would people work after studying in the country? And they can't come back either because what would they do if there is no work for them?*

The participants were of the opinion that Zimbabwe was not benefiting from student migration, especially because the migrants hardly ever came back.

On the other hand, one of the participants indicated the observation differently by saying,

> *Student migration in Zimbabwe is not a loss of potential manpower. There is a lots of manpower which is not utilized. Zimbabwe is a special case. There is no loss of manpower. There might be a shortage of unskilled labour, but in terms of skilled labour, NOTHING of the sort. For example, someone trained in engineering ends up being a bank teller. Unemployment in Zimbabwe is about 87%, but skilled labour is seated at home. So, those people (students?) are actually looking for work elsewhere because their skills are not needed in Zimbabwe.*

Another student said,

> *There are so many people who graduate there in Zimbabwe, but are unemployed. So there is a lot of unutilised manpower there compared to*

those who go to study out. So there is more need to deal with those people in the country than those who have gone out.

The participants were of the opinion that Zimbabwe was not benefiting from the students' migration to South Africa. The reason given was that there were only a few who went back and could find work in Zimbabwe because of the state of the country's economy. The participants said that a South African degree was not an assurance that one would get work in Zimbabwe. Many of the students studying in the country and also some of the officials regarded going to South Africa for higher education as looking down on Zimbabwean education.

One student said that,

Those who can afford to migrate come back to run the companies of their fathers and uncles in Zimbabwe, because they are better poised and therefore have better opportunities. Yet someone who had passed with distinctions will not get a job. One who had '2' points only and may have even finished a degree in '6' years will come and run a company. I think it is a matter of having contacts in Zimbabwe.

The participants were of the opinion that student migration should not be regulated but to be left as it was. They argued that regulation, with no alternative action plan, would be unfair, especially to those who had paid for tertiary education without any aid from the government.

5.3.6.1 Discussion

The first response from the participants suggested that Zimbabwean students who migrated were forced to by the helpless economic situation (cf. 3.12.5). The situation could not absorb the students who could have either stayed to study at home or could have come back from South Africa after completing their studies. By not creating an environment that could take care or its own people, the economy of Zimbabwe was losing out.

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The participants looked beyond the current situation by saying that ignoring student migration now may seem appropriate for those who were in the position to act. It would take a long time for the economy to recover from the current loss.

This view was suggested by a student as follows,

> *The loss may not be felt currently, but...*

What the participants said linked closely to the discussion in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.8.2.1) which could be summarised as a loss of skills which could be equated to the 'brain drain' experienced through student migration.

The fact that the participants associated student migration with a brain drain, not only in its initial stages but also in regards to the long-term effect, is evidence of the adverse effects it has on the country and its economy, and resuscitates what Ongaro shares in a blog (September 1, 2011), namely that

> *In order to change Africa and solve the problems of poverty, disease, and environmental degradation, we need collaborative efforts of willing youths to render their leadership and entrepreneurial skills in the immediate development of Africa.*

The above observation suggests that the hope of any generation is its youth, especially the talented youth. It is to the youth that the older generation passes the baton to continue with the race of life. It is therefore this young generation that is expected to take over from the current older generation if a country is to survive economically. With student migration Zimbabwe's economic future appears shaky, because some of its talent was leaving and not returning. There appears to be continuity in the process of the building of the wealth in order for the survival of the nation. The Zimbabwean government should develop and support its young generation in order for both the individuals and the country to benefit from student migration.

Form the participants' perspectives, there was nothing attractive at home to make them want to stay. They were thus lured by other countries that seem to have realised the need of young talent for the survival of their economies. For many

Zimbabweans, South Africa was a most popular destination, specifically on grounds of the benefits discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.13.4). The Zimbabwean experience seems to be the antithesis of the observation discussed in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.3.2), a reference to Hazelkorn's (2011:4-10) observation on how higher education is valued for the survival of the economy. There exists a need for the country to seriously realize how higher education has changed into an indispensable element of the economy. The country needs to set quality standards in order to attract as many of their own students as possible for the survival of its economy.

It has been noticed that information and knowledge affect both the economy in general, and the economic success of specific areas (Jarboe, 2001:4). There seem to be other factors that are closely associated with higher education and that, at the same time, have an impact on the economy. As an example the above researcher gives IT infrastructure and the availability of skilled workers as a prime example. Thus, the general observation is that in Zimbabwe student migration is not being utilized for the economic transformation of the country.

This view was shared by the participants, who said that,

> *There is a lot of manpower which is not utilized in the country*

and that,

> *There are so many people who graduate there in Zimbabwe, but are unemployed.*

Knowledge is the basis of economic power but, as the participants seemed to have noticed, Zimbabwe seemed not to pay special interest to it. This lack of attention has resulted in cases of student migration which could have been avoided in order to retain the talent in the country. Where other countries are recruiting students so that they could make use of the talent after students have graduated, Zimbabwe is losing them.

From what the participants said, it can be concluded that student migration affects the economy, in particular with regard to those who are educated are expected to serve the country but are lost to other countries. The general perspective is, due to a

variety of reasons, that Zimbabweans were experiencing enough service and benefits from their higher education system.

5.3.7 Requirements for higher education

The participants were asked what needed to be done in order to utilize the student migration situation so that it could benefit the country. The general consensus was that there existed a need for action as concerns Zimbabwe's higher education. The participants strongly felt that the government has to take higher education seriously and has to invest in it.

What was said could be summarized as:

(i) the lecturer's working conditions needed to be improved;

(ii) students should be supported financially by means of grants;

(iii) the resources should be improved;

(iv) opportunities for work should receive attention.

The students also suggested that the business sector should help by means of:

i. offering internships;

ii. advertising their services;

iii. offering work.

A participant cited the example of commitment, a value which was said to be necessary for change in higher education, by saying that,

> *People like David Coltart, the former Minister of Education and Culture in Zimbabwe's coalition government, should be allowed to serve longer because his party has students at heart.*

However, the participants pointed out that higher education in Zimbabwe was affected by many factors, and that the entire economic situation needed a revamp if higher education was to revive meaningfully.

The participants did not wish student migration to be regulated.

One of the responses to the question in this regard was,

> *Why should student migration be regulated if there was no other option to it? There should be a clear alternative for students if they were not to go out.*

The participants said that there were other issues to be considered, and some of them would automatically take care of the current student migration concerns.

5.3.7.1 Discussion

The students who participated in this research study had experienced the challenges considered in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.13.3) in one way or another. This is the reason why they were aware of some of the needs in the higher education system. What they suggested to be done, as stated above, from their point of view, was necessary for education in the universities and for the economy of the country.

The main concern was that of funding. The students said that they needed assistance. That would certainly make life easier for them and their families. Sufficient funding for universities was said to take care of the question of resources (cf. 3.17).

The participants said there was a critical need for adequate and up-to-date resources (cf. 3.6.2). Reference was made to the School of Medicine in Harare where it was mentioned that it still used very old and also old-fashioned equipment. What participants pointed out needed to be an indicator to the responsible ministry, MHTE, and to ZIMCHE, that they needed to act, in order to retain some of the students they were losing through student migration.

The participants opted to migrate because they required qualifications that could be recognized in South Africa and elsewhere in the world. They said that while in South Africa they learned about South Africa, but they had a chance to apply their knowledge anywhere else because South Africa was more advanced than Zimbabwe. Thus the question of the recognition of qualifications, discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.13.3.11), and employability (cf. 3.13.4.12) drove the Zimbabwean students to seek a better life outside their own country. Zimbabwe ought to address the problems that have been exposed by those who are directly affected if it were to benefit from those people's services.

Thus, if the government could respond positively to what the participants were calling for, then the country would benefit even from student migration. The private sector could also play a part in supporting higher education, either through the funding or the employment of the graduates. Students would then come back after studies to be employed at home.

The participants mentioned that they relied on their parents for fees and their continuous support (cf. 5.3.2). For this reason they did not make their decisions independently, and that was the reason why the parents were asked to contribute to the study.

The following section presents the data obtained from the parents who have children studying in South Africa, and who agreed to take part in the study.

5.4 PHASE TWO: DATA OBTAINED FROM PARENTS WITH CHILDREN STUDYING IN SOUTH AFRICA

5.4.1 Introduction

The information presented in this section was obtained by means of discussions with Zimbabwean parents who sent their children to South Africa to study. The researcher

asked for permission from the participants to record the conversations so that the presentation would be as close as possible to the correct information. The invitation was extended to eight parents, but a total of six agreed to be interviewed. Of these six respondents, two did not wish to have the interviews recorded. The researcher had to immediately write down the information while it was still fresh.

At the same time, two of the parents agreed to the discussion but were not comfortable with the signing of the consent form. However, they did not mind the recording of the conversation. They explained that what they were to say was more important than the consent form.

The parents who were interviewed were very willing to cooperate. They also provided the names of other parents who had children in South Africa whom they thought would be forthcoming with information on the research topic. This form of gathering information affirmed the advantage of the 'snowball' effect as indicated by Ary et al., (2010:430).

5.4.2 A sample of the parents who contributed to the investigation

The final number consisted of six parents who accepted the invitation to take part in the research. All of them were identified through references, hence the 'snowball' sampling strategy. All the participants stayed and worked in Zimbabwe. For the sake of privacy, the researcher used numbers in the place of their names. It is to be understood that the interviews were not done in the numerical order that the parents were introduced. The information is presented in the form of themes, supported by what the parents had to say in respect of student migration.

5.4.3 The views of the parents on why they sent their children to study in South Africa

(i) Parent 1 had worked in South Africa for a short while. During that time the parent became aware that South Africa had unlimited choices of study courses at university.

In respect of some of the courses being offered at Zimbabwean higher education institutions, the parent said that Psychology, Social Work and Sociology did not help much in terms of getting employment. Parent 1 argued that the country seemed not to make much use of such courses, even though they were offered at university. South Africa was also close to home. For such reasons the parent, who is a professional person, believed that the child should have a South African future, with a South African degree.

(ii) Parent 2, another professional with a degree, wanted the competitive experience of the South African universities. The parent also pointed to the fact that there was no direct involvement of the parent in securing admission at a university for the child. This parent has three children studying at international universities.

(iii) Parent 3 sent the child to university because of the latter's very low points at 'A' Level. The child's and the parent's choice were the UZ, but the child did not qualify for admission at the UZ. South Africa was chosen for giving the child a chance, and for it being near to home.

(iv)Parent 4 decided on South Africa at a time of high uncertainty in higher education in Zimbabwe. The parent had had the experience of being a student at one of the universities in the country when the lecturers were leaving in drones. The future of higher education in Zimbabwe seemed bleak. South Africa was near enough and affordable.

(v) Parent 5 said that usually when a parent was relocating they did not want to disturb the child's learning process, especially when they were going to university. The speaker, who was relocating, continued to say that the state of higher education in the country obliged the family to send the child to South Africa if the child was to have a meaningful future. The parent had gone to university from soon after Zimbabwe's independence.

(vi) Parent 6 pointed out that if a parent had knowledge of and valued higher education, then that parent would give serious consideration to the child's future. The parent continued to say that such a consideration influenced the decision to choose South Africa for the child's higher education, also for its proximity to Zimbabwe. The

parent had studied in South Africa for a post-graduate degree, but was now working in Zimbabwe.

5.4.3.1 Discussion

In this section the researcher discusses the explanation given by the participants on why they sent their children out of Zimbabwe for higher education, and also why the participating parents agreed on South Africa as a destination for study.

The information from the parents who participated in the research confirms the existence of student migration. The information included knowledge gained from the individuals who, after observing and assessing the state of higher education in the country, preferred and decided on foreign higher education for their children. The question of better facilities and opportunities stated by a student participant (cf. 5.3.3.1) was reiterated by the parent participants. The fact that these participants were not necessarily the parents of the students who had taken part in the research is a reflection of how, in general, any of the parents who had sent their children to study abroad were concerned about the state of higher education in Zimbabwe.

The actions and concerns of the participants were in agreement with Lamine's (2010:133) observation that the fact that educated parents understand the importance and value of education cannot be underestimated. The above statement implies that parents with high educational levels are concerned about the educational achievements of their children. The participating parents were either professionals or had undergone university education.

Parents 1, 3 and 6 said that they chose South Africa because of its proximity to Zimbabwe (cf. 3.9.4). None of the parents seemed not to be aware of The Protocol agreement (cf. 3.13.4.7) but were aware that the fees at South African universities were affordable. The question of proximity to a destination is important with some consumers in higher education especially on cutting travelling coasts (cf. 2.4.3.1(b)) It was also said that South Africa offered internationally recognised education. In

other words, the question of internationally recognized qualifications at affordable fees was important to the participants.

Accordingly, the parents witnessed the downward trend change that had occurred in higher education from the time they were in university to the current period (2000 and following years) when their children are in higher education (cf. 3.12.3.2). The changes that were identified are also confirmed by IEASA (2011) document that the political, educational and economic crises in Zimbabwe motivated the choice of South Africa as a destination for higher education. The information from the participating parents validated their decision to prefer a foreign university education for their children, and they found that in South Africa.

5.4.4 The parents' perspectives on their children's migration for higher education

The parents had their reasons for sending their children to study abroad. They justified their actions, among other reasons, on the comparison of their experiences when most of them studied at university and the experiences of their children.

5.4.4.1 Differences in higher education in South Africa and Zimbabwe

When asked whether there were notable differences between South Africa and Zimbabwe, five parents agreed that there were vast differences in the higher education of the two countries. All of them mentioned the availability of resources in South Africa. Specific references were made to advanced technology and the availability of text-books, which were not readily available in Zimbabwe. The parents also mentioned that in South Africa the students were taught by professors and doctors, compared to Zimbabwe where most of the lecturers held either a master's degree, or less.

However, one parent's opinion was that,

Zimbabwean education is better than South African education. I would have preferred Zimbabwean higher education, but I had no choice.

5.4.4.2 Did something go wrong with higher education in Zimbabwe?

Upon being asked what had gone wrong with higher education in Zimbabwe, five of the six parents seemed to agree that the crumbling economy was the major stumbling block.

One parent had this to say,

The uncertainty in our higher education system has been created by the falling economy. If lecturers continue to leave then you do not know what to do. They say some lecturers are beginning to come back. We hope this will improve the situation.

Another parent said,

Because of the state of our economy higher education is failing to accommodate all the students who pass "A" Level. These students are passing very well. But there is very high competition in some programmes and only some of those with very high points end up taking up all the places. If your child does not have those many points then there is no chance. But fewer points do not mean that the child is not capable.

It was also mentioned that,

The major thing that has affected our higher education is the economy. It has gone so wrong that a lot of potential has been lost because of lack of funding for students. I wouldn't have afforded my child's education if it wasn't for migration. Later out there, some funding was provided.

Close to the above views, two parents were of the opinion that a lot of the money that should have gone to education was being misappropriated.

The seemingly odd outlook was,

> *I do not think anything has gone wrong with Zimbabwean higher education. I think now we have more than 14 universities. So higher education has actually improved. The competition is now there.*

5.4.4.3 The current state of higher education

All the parents seemed to agree that the current state in higher education contributed a lot to student migration, with everything rooted in the plummeting economy. It was said that the universities could not meet the demand because they were failing to provide what was required. In addition, many needy students were left stranded because of a lack of funds, while others migrated.

The parents gave the impression that there was a need for diversification.

One observation was:

> *My opinion of higher education in Zimbabwe is that we tend to run in straight lines. Those who are coming out of a commercial background will end up doing commercial degrees. Those from science end up in science programmes and Arts are left out. Yet students would benefit from going across. A literal approach would help them as well. Arts subjects only do not have much weight in the economy. But out there the languages could have a dose of technology and that makes a difference. The ways our programs are set up does not provide for that flexibility.*

5.4.4.4 The major challenges contributing to the increase in student migration

Five parents bemoaned the lack of student funding. They pointed out that ever since the cutting back of grants many students could not afford the fees. Another ordeal was in respect of resources, such as equipment which needed updating. Equipment such as old computers and unreliable internet services hampered the students' learning. The participants argued that the availability of up-to-date facilities would benefit both the students and the state.

One participant pointed out that,

I was not aware that the student migration to South Africa is increasing. I thought the numbers were decreasing with the availability of education here in Zimbabwe. I also thought the number was going down because of funding - that universities in South Africa would be more expensive. Maybe it is that places in Zimbabwe are difficult to get. I thought they were decreasing because here it would be cheaper than in South Africa.

5.4.4.5 Enrolment systems and student migration

The views of five parents on the enrolment system implied that the Zimbabwean enrolment system was a contributor to student migration. One of the participants said that the enrolment system was selective, and was used as a control system. One university was said to enrol students with 13-15 points only for a computer science programme. Yet, a student with 9 points qualified for the same course. Because there were many students who qualified, the points system seemed to be a justified way of enrolment control. The parents who could afford the fees end up sending their children to South Africa for the same study courses.

One of the five parents said that there seemed to be hidden practices behind the enrolment standards. This was why some parents ended up sending their children to South African universities.

The parent said,

Our standards are very high. My worry is that we don't always maintain them. You get a candidate who wants to get into a particular programme following what the university has set but the candidate does not get the place. Then some time later, when the candidate had made other arrangements, the same programme is offered to the same candidate. That was my son's experience with one of the universities. It shows that there is some problem in the system. There must be consistency in what we do and the standards we set.

Locally the father, the mother, and the grandmother... all need to go behind the candidate to get him into the faculty of his choice. The child and the family have got a dream and in order to have the child to do it, you need the family to pull strings and have connections, that kind of thing! That's unfortunate how our situation has developed. Now with more universities it still comes to the same that the parents have to go into it as well.

Yet when my child applied outside the country I didn't have to be involved. All I needed to do was to support in him in various ways. The openness of foreign universities is amazing. While here we tend to have some sort of a bottle-neck where the father or the mother comes in to unplug and unblock the process. The way we are processing applications is that if a parent does not know someone in place of influence, then there is no chance. We are in a sad situation.

Similar to the above observation was another parent's opinion:

Our universities have set their standards far too high. No student with less than 15 points can study Law or Medicine. So if a child with 14 points wants to study such programmes, they can only do that outside the country and South Africa gives them a chance. The Law is that anyone with 2 points in 2 subjects can study at a university. But such students are never considered.

This last parent was aware of the points system but was not sure whether those with 2 points were granted admission to the universities.

5.4.4.6 Whether the parents wanted their children to come back after studying in South Africa

As much as all the parents wanted to be close to their children, especially in Zimbabwe, they were worried about whether their children would find employment.

Some of the responses were as follows:

I would rather have my child work in South Africa after graduation because there are no jobs in Zimbabwe.

and

I would have preferred my child to come and work at home, but as long as she works somewhere I do not mind.

and

I would love to have my child come and work near me. But where is he going to work? There is no work here and the situation is worsening. Some people are working in areas they were not train for. We are living in the 'As long as I work' situation', which is bad. Programmes such as Psychology and Sociology do not really have a place in our economy, but they offer them at university. What's the point?

and

Yes, I would want my child to come home but I would not encourage them. With the way we are running the economy here, I would not encourage him to commit suicide, sorry to say. He would have to keep a constant study of the situation. No parent would like to see his child not doing well. So we discourage them to come where they will not get jobs.

5.4.4.7 Discussion

The differences identified by the participants between higher education in Zimbabwe and higher education in South Africa have been elaborated on in Chapter 3 in the two sections: (cf. 3.9) on higher education in South Africa and paragraph 3.12.3, which is a discussion on the gradual changes in higher education in Zimbabwe as years of political independence progressed. The main concern for the participants was the non-availability of resources in Zimbabwe as compared to their abundance in South Africa. The participants were also concerned by the delivery of lectures at Zimbabwean universities by comparing the qualifications of the lecturers in the two

countries. The comparisons confirmed the loss of confidence in the Zimbabwean higher education system, as discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6.2).

The literature (cf. 3.12.5) attributes the downfall of Zimbabwean higher education to the decline of the country's economy. The same decline was observed by the participants, with 5 out of six of the participants repeating the same view.

Information from the participants expressed how they were dissatisfied with the current state of higher education in the country. The observation is echoed in *The Zimbabwean,* issued on January 30, 2014, that the past successes have been reversed by a raft of problems hinging on the lack of financing. The suggestion here is that the participants' views pointed to the government to redress the situation. With such a decline in the main anchors of higher education, namely resources and teaching, student migration was inevitable.

The parents are important stakeholders in higher education. They pay their children's fees (cf. 2.3.2), and as a result they have an influential say in where their children can receive their education. As discussed in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.6.2), the family, especially the parents, enjoy the pride of a member who attended a prestigious institution of higher learning. They also take pleasure in the success of their children. Therefore, they ought to be considered in terms of planning for their child's higher education. This was why the participants were concerned about what their children would learn at university. The participants were against the continuation of traditional programmes with not much growth in the curriculum. The students said that the choice was no longer wide enough for them to choose what to study. For some of them it was reason enough to choose South Africa where the approach to learning was different.

The participating parents were concerned about the lack of funding for higher education in Zimbabwe. The challenge, which the literature review (cf. 3.12.5) attributed to the economic decline, has been said to hamper positive development in higher education. Many of the parents cited themselves as the example of the beneficiaries of the then terminated 50% loan and 50% grant for their higher education. The practice was a relief to those parents, and a chance for the students

to advance their higher education. The situation is as *News from Africa,* issued on 4 January 2014 indicated, namely that poor families lose out in education. While the parents who participated admitted that they were at an advantage for they could pay, they were still concerned about those who could not do so. Faced with such a dilemma, student migration was unavoidable. On the other hand, the government was called on to set things right, for the benefit of the majority.

The parents did not agree with the limitation of programmes in higher education. They wanted their children not to be limited, because there seemed not to be much difference between what the country inherited at independence and today in terms of the courses being offered. The call was on the government not to run the system 'in straight lines'. With globalization, there was great need to equip institutions with up-to-date computers and working internet services. These are some of the resources the parents wanted their children to enjoy in modern higher education. The parents suggested that Zimbabwean education needed reviving. Their concern was in agreement with what Sinyolo posted in *New Zimbabwe* on January 12, 2009, namely that the government, through a proposed Task Force or other mechanism, will have to mobilise substantial financial and other resources to restore the basic services in schools, colleges and universities.

The parents questioned the enrolment system, which they said encouraged them to send their children out of the country for higher education. They pointed out how high the enrolment standards were, but these do not seem to be applied uniformly. A study course like Law was said to enrol students with 15 points only, but it was offered in only 2 of the 15 universities in Zimbabwe. Yet, somehow the students with far less than 15 points would be found enrolled in the course. The argument was that the set standards ought to be uniformly applied so that the deserving students were not disadvantaged by standards which were not adhered to. The parents argued that outside the country they found fair practice. They also wanted the universities to grow, not only in numbers, but also in terms of the quality of the study courses offered.

The question of employment boiled down to the state of the economy. The parents pointed out that they would be happy to stay near their children, but would not want

to do so in the dire economic system. With challenges such as the failing economy, the high rates of unemployment, the abuse of human rights, armed conflicts and inadequate social services which need to be addressed first.

A distinct respondent saw South African higher education as inferior to that of Zimbabwe and also seemed contented with the numbers of universities and the quality in those universities. Knowing the situation in Zimbabwe, the researcher was aware that such responses were to be expected. There was a possibility of individuals not wanting to face the truth. There could also be the likelihood of suspicion on who the researcher really was and not wanting to be associated with the outcome of an enquiry. There could be hidden anxiety in the reaction of saying that all was well although the participants had willingly agreed to take part in the investigation. To some extent the Zimbabwean situation taught people to be cautious. Perhaps more investigation would come up with answers.

From their point of view, the parents who participated in this study answered the second aim of the research which intended to ascertain what, in general, was driving students to South African higher education institutions. They gave varied explanations on why they, on their part, were part of the reason promoting student migration to South Africa. However, they also came up with suggestions on what could be done to alleviate the situation.

5.4.5 The effect of student migration on higher education

While the parents sent their children to South Africa for study they believed that student mobility had a bearing on the economy of the country. They had their children's lives to consider first. However, they made their contribution.

5.4.5.1 The bearing of student migration on higher education

When asked if the sending of their children had any bearing on the higher education of the country, the parents had mixed feelings. One parent said that these children

are a missing element in the lecture room. Their contribution would have made a difference.

One of the parents reiterated that:

> *Student migration does have an effect on higher education because the pool of the candidate available is partially going out. What remains behind are students who did not manage to go out and some of them would have wanted to go. That limits students' experiences to student migration. If all of them were to study here, student to student interaction would be at a higher level.*

An observation by another parent was that,

> *The effect of student migration seemed to be ignored because there was a tendency of looking at the physical effect. Colleges are always full. There are too many student seeking university places. Therefore, students seem immaterial. But higher education is not a full classroom. Higher education is what comes out of those buildings we call universities.*

It was also said that,

> *A country's success comes from its universities. So, if its citizens begin not to trust there higher education then there is a problem which is carried over even to the industry. The number of students who have migrated has risen in the last ten years. Then looking at the universities themselves, I think they feel it but they cannot come out openly. But there has never been so much advertising from universities as we see now. They must be targeting a certain quality of students.*

5.4.5.2 Student migration and student quality

Parents said that it was not necessarily the best and the brightest students who migrated. They continued to say that while some of the students with 15 points left the country, many more stayed behind, since local universities were targeting those ones.

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A parent had this to say:

> *Migration does not affect the quality of students because those who migrate have lower points. My daughter had only 3 points. Our universities take those who have passed very well first so the rest may migrate if they wish. The effect is not felt again because the number of 'A 'Level' students and the number of universities are a mismatch. There are more 'A' Level students than the universities can accommodate. So we cannot say that the effect is felt. I think here the best and the brightest go after graduation.*

5.4.5.3 Discussion

The matter of whether student migration had consequences on the higher education of the country was agreed on by five of the participating parents. It had a psychological effect on the students who remained behind at the local universities. The parents were of the opinion that most of those who remained could also have gone if they could afford the fees. The perception was that the students studying locally but wishing to be out of the country was said to be unhealthy for the learning spirit. The participants implied that the human mind needed to be focused if it was to be fully productive. The lack of focus was likely to result in disgruntlement. As one of the parents put it, if the students were to learn together, interaction would be at a higher level. Zimbabwe's current situation was likely to be under that psychological influence. The situation was likely to continue as long as student migration existed, and as long as the higher education problems remained unsolved.

One of the participants pointed out how people usually identify with something physical and tangible. With the lecture rooms always full and other students failing to get admission, student migration seems irrelevant (cf. 3.6.2). Perhaps that was why one out of six parents understood that as long as the lecture halls were full and the number of universities had gone up, higher education had no problems. For the others who saw the potential challenge of *effect* thereof, the implication was that the conditions under which the students received their learning were important. The

implication was also that there existed a need to reflect on the 'product' from the universities and how the country benefited from that outcome.

In Chapter 2 (cf. 2.4.4.3) it was discussed, among other things, how higher education was a key part of national survival. In the same section, higher education was understood to be developed so that more and more citizens could take advantage thereof. In order for the citizens to become involved they need confidence in their higher education (cf. 3.19). One of the participants said that the increase in the number of students migrating to South Africa for higher education implies a loss of trust in the local education system. The need, therefore, existed for the government to improve on the delivery of education and its outcomes in the country.

If the brightness of the students was measured by the number of points attained at 'A' Level then, according to the participants, some of the local universities' enrolment would always consist of the brightest students, the 15-point ones, because they targeted those. At the same time, as one of the student participants said, other students with 15 points migrated as well. In other words, migration was concerned with whether one could afford the tuition fees. Thus, there were other considerations too that affected the quality of students country or went abroad for higher education.

5.4.6 The effect of student migration on the economy

5.4.6.1 Perceptions

The parents were asked whether they thought student migration had an effect on the economy of the country, and there were two different responses. On the one hand the process was said to impact negatively on the economy.

One parent said,

> *In a general way we are talking cash-dollars which we may have earned here and sending it to South African universities. We will be talking about liquidity crunch here, but that's what we are doing. It leaves the local university without support. What is interesting is that a parent with a child in a South African*

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university and another one in a local university will pay for the one in South Africa first before paying for the child here. We expect the government to look after us and if it does not, we look after ourselves. It impacts on our local institutions in that getting adequate resources may be difficult.

Close to the above observation was another parent's observation that student migration had negative results on the economy. The participant stated that,

There is a big negative impact on the economy. Those children we send out to study usually do not want to come back. So if they do not come back then they work and benefit South Africa and Zimbabwe loses.

The other two parents were of the opinion that the option of the students to stay in South Africa or to go and work in other countries was loss to Zimbabwe. They said that working in another country was the result of the way the economy was managed, that it benefited a few and disadvantaged the majority.

The parent argued that,

If the situation was fair then the knowledge the students acquired from outside would boost the economy of the country.

On the other hand, some of the parents were of the opinion that there were visible signs of the positive impact of student migration because,

Zimbabweans have always wanted to develop their home, so they work and send money home. So, Zimbabwe benefits from student migration through subsidies. Students' working in South Africa after graduation in a way helps the economy of the country.

An opinion of another parent was that,

When they send money home it is fine. A lot of families have survived that way. There is repatriation of income.

5.4.6.2 The potential loss of manpower

On the question if they thought student migration was a loss of manpower, four parents were of the view that the students preferred to stay in the 'host' country after the completion of their studies. They said that most of the parents sent their children to South Africa in the hope that they would find work there afterwards. South Africa was close to home, so going home to visit would be less expensive. So, while the country lost manpower, the parents still had their children close to home. One parent said that if their children did not come back to work, then it implied a loss of manpower.

Another parent pointed out that,

> *South Africa was benefiting at the expense of Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe's resources go to them in the form of the fees that are paid and later the students who work in their country. We do not get foreign students from anywhere in the world. We may have 1 or 2 here and there but out there they have lots and they are benefiting.*

Two parents did not believe that Zimbabwe was losing manpower through student migration. They argued that there was a lot of manpower in the country which was not utilised.

One of the two went on to say that,

> *So many students get absorbed into the informal sector. Some of these students have some project running by the time they leave university. The informal sector has become so formal itself and that is how some of the students employ themselves.*

5.4.6.3 Discussion

The parents' views were that since they paid their children's fees they expected it to be used at the university where the children were studying. The use of the funds at the institution where the children were studying was an investment because it was

benefiting their children. Indirectly the money benefited the parents by giving their children the education they deserved. Paying fees to a foreign university is considered a loss to the country during the time the country is experiencing a liquidity crisis. A loss to the country is experienced when the students do not return to work in their home country. This is the reason why parents believed that, in terms of the money spent, Zimbabwe was losing out to South Africa.

Higher education started not as a money-generating endeavour. However, in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.3.2) global changes in student migration were discussed, which include how higher education had been subjected to market conditions to make a profit, especially in developed countries. In developing countries like Zimbabwe higher education face the problem of money. Enrolment fees paid either through some or other funding organization or by individuals are expected to contribute to the development of an institution. Thus, student migration limited the country's higher education system due to the fact that institutions loose substantial income that would have been beneficial in terms of further development. This limitation led some parents to say that the local higher education system is losing due to student migration.

The parents also said that the already poor economy made it an even worse state of affairs when students did not return after completing their studies elsewhere. They said that the country lost skilled manpower in this era driven by the knowledge economy. A *knowledge economy* implies that an effective higher education system is integral to the success of a country's economy, resulting in people with knowledge benefiting the country (cf. 2.3.2). That was why some of the participants believed that if the economic situation was just, the country's economy could benefit from student migration.

Some of the other participants looked at the benefits from the point of view of the family. They said that some families survived on the subsidies from children working outside the country. Another opinion form the participants was that while the families benefited, it needed to be taken into consideration that subsidies did not boost a country's economy. The implication was that a country's economy was not determined by what one or two families received from the children working abroad.

The country's industries needed to be productive in order for the country to generate income. Money from outside the country to their families does not boost the economy of Zimbabwe. All the systems such as agriculture, industry and mining in the country need to be operational. Manpower for the operations in agriculture, industry and mining was expected to come from higher education. Zimbabwe was losing some of its students who could be boosting the country's economy. The financial support these students sent home did not create employment. The view about students studying in South Africa and contributing to family survival after graduating was debatable in terms of its value added to a developing economy.

The participants echoed the discussion in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.6.1) where China was indicated as a country that has seriously realised the aging of its labour force for reasons that are particular to the country. That country is said to have taken measures to address the challenges of an aging workforce. The participants' contribution also reminded one of Chapter 3 (cf. 3.8.2) on how poor and developing countries, including Zimbabwe, lost some of their 'brains' to richer countries through student migration. The participants said that it was unfortunate that they contributed to the reality of the loss of potential manpower by sending their children to study in South Africa. It therefore remains to the government to also seriously consider the challenge and lessen the tragedy of the loss of manpower through student migration if the blow on the economy is to be moderated. The loss of potential manpower through student migration to South Africa and the utilized talent of unemployed graduates from Zimbabwe's universities is a huge setback on Zimbabwe's economy. The government, which is the primary responsible authority with regard to the country's economic state of affairs and which is also the largest employer in the country, is expected to work for the improvement of the economy and the regulations with regard to student migration.

5.4.7 REQUIREMENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

5.4.7.1 General improvement

Asked about the need for improvement in higher education, the general accord was that there was a need for a lot of improvement in higher education. The focus should be on the improvement of the economy. It was also said that the improvement of the economy would revive higher education. Thus, according to the participants, universities needed to be improved by means of the increase of resources, by improving the lecturers' working conditions, by means of reliable internet services for research purposes, and by installing the latest versions of computers.

One of these parents said that,

> *We would benefit as a country if higher education become one of our priorities. The family would also benefit because it is strenuous to get children to study out there. If our institutions improve to the extent of accommodating even students with two points then there would be no strain.*

5.4.7.2 The possible regulation of student migration

Student migration is a process with a long history. All the parents who participated in this research said it should not be regulated in Zimbabwe.

The argument was that,

> *Student migration is a private initiative so it should not be regulated. Government control will worsen the situation in higher education. People have found ways of going to study and this has removed the potential problems from home. If all these people around at home there would be even more problems than we have. Student migration should be allowed and left to find its course.*

Another view was that,

Government seemed to have interest in a few who get the Presidential Scholarship. If some students get this scholarship to migrate, why then should it be regulated? If students get educated but then fail to get employment, what's the point of going through higher education? Student migration should not be interfered with.

5.4.7.3 Discussion

The data gathered from the parents indicated that they were determined that their children should receive a decent and meaningful higher education that was relevant to Zimbabwe's economy. Given the opportunity, they would have considered sending their children to local universities first. The participants echoed what was discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.18) that improvement was necessary for Zimbabwe's higher education if a turnaround on excessive student migration was to be possible. The participants suggested that attention should be paid to staff requirements and resources at the local universities. They said enough funding for paying lecturers and restoring resources was needed. There was also a need to create chances for all students who, according to higher education policy, qualified for higher education (cf. 3.12.4).

The participants were worried and concerned about the state of higher education, especially in respect of the lack of adequate resources. Their fears were indicative of what was said in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.7.5), namely that the lack of enough resources exhibited a reduced capacity to function both at the level of students' choice of study courses and at the level of the use of training resources in the universities. Participants also showed interest in higher education and were concerned about the quality of higher education. Just as the case of student migration in India, the parents felt that quality was important for their children (cf. 2.4.4.10 (a)). This quality included internationally-recognised higher education. What the participants pointed at, the concern with higher education, was a national problem that required the government to resolve it.

On the other hand, the participants were of the opinion that student migration need not be curbed. Student mobility was a key factor in higher education. In other words, the students would acquire the type of education that would benefit Zimbabwe if those students were to return. Research would benefit both universities in Zimbabwe and the economy of the country in improving the country's economy. The participants said that the student migration process was on the rise as a result of the problems of the declining economy. What the participants said was a deviation from what was normally expected of student migration where students would come back to work in their country. They said that in Zimbabwe student migration was a people's way of dealing with a problem without even stressing the government. The implication is that higher education authorities needed to be involved in a way that would benefit the country. What they said reminds one of the discussions in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.19). The participants wanted the government to show more commitment than its interest in a few students as was implied by awarding the Presidential Scholarship to a selected few students. Even the students who remained studying in the country should be adequately funded by creating adequate student loans and bursaries. All students were to be part of the budding manpower potential for a sustainable future of the country.

From what the participants said it can be concluded that it was the government that had to make higher education meaningful in order to benefit the economy of the country.

5.4.8 The future of higher education

The parents were asked whether they foresee any changes to be effected in higher education in the near future. Five parents expressed the view that changes in higher education were only a pipe dream. One of the parents said,

> *I do not see any change in higher education in the near future, not even in the 5 years to come. The trend will continue and student migration will continue for some of the following reasons. There is really nothing that will entice students to study in Zimbabwe. For example, a programme like Law is offered*

in only 2 out of 15 universities in the country. Then Medicine and Pharmacy are offered by one university, therefore are highly competitive.

Students with 4 points get a place ahead of one with 10 points. Yet for those who can afford, 4 points will get them into a South African university for a programme of their choice. Sometimes here they offer one a programme one did not apply for. It is so depressing that many students pass but they cannot find university places.

Another parent said that,

I don't seem to find any changes in higher education in the near future. We seem to be running our institutions the way we were ten years ago. There are no changes. I do not see any realization for the need to fund higher education students. So it looks like the current situation is likely to continue for some time.

One parent seems to have a different opinion of higher education. The parent agreed that there was room for improvement in 'anything' including higher education.

The respondent said,

I don't think there is better education out there. They have better facilities, but not better education. I really do not think that there is need to encourage children to go and study out there. But if they can promote student migration like they are doing with the Presidential Scholarship then there is no harm. A child who could not get an opportunity here gets it through student migration.

The above participant seemed to have a different experience in regards to the situation of higher education in Zimbabwe, and also said,

I do not know whether we have enough funding from the government and whether students do not get state funding. Things are okay in higher education. If there is anything really needed, it would just be an improvement on what is there. Students are getting educated and are getting jobs. There is need of improvement in terms of global changes. So far we are okay. We are

not lagging behind. I think our higher education is one of the best. Change is required but if it does not come soon, we are still OKAY.

5.4.8.1 Discussion

According to the participants, the future of higher education was still not clear in terms of improvements. They based their view on the observation that there had been more of deterioration than an improvement in higher education in the last decade. The participants' view was as discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.18) that in Zimbabwe the hazy future of higher education was driving academics away since most of them left the country and consequently the migration of students was on the rise. The continuation of the above processes of lecturers leaving and students migrating had a negative impact on both higher education and the economy.

The participants were concerned about unfair practices in student enrolment for higher education which was equivalent to corruption, as discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6.2) where the enrolment policy was overruled, and undeserving students got admitted instead of the deserving ones. The participants said that the enrolment system should be based on the number of points acquired at 'A' Level. They said that unless the situation was put right the future of higher education in Zimbabwe would remain bleak, with continued increasing student migration.

There were individuals who seemed to have lost hope and had accepted the situation of higher education in the country. Contrary, some participant's belief was that Zimbabwe's higher education (in 2013) was still perfect. The above statement that there was no better education than Zimbabwe's but only better facilities in South Africa is indicative of this view that Zimbabwe was still fine with regard to its higher education. The researcher's opinion on the above view was that sometimes situations bear so heavily on the human mind that one ends up accepting whatever is offered. The participant had lost hope for change in Zimbabwe's higher and accepted the situation as it was. This acceptance seemed to happen in circumstances where one was put in a position one could not change anything but just give up.

The parents wanted positive change in the way universities were run in Zimbabwe by not maintaining the traditional way and the same old system of a restricted curriculum. In Chapter 3 (3.19) it was said that globalization and internationalization influence changes. The participants said that there was no change in Zimbabwe's higher education since political independence in 1980. Many students passed but could still not find placement in universities so that of necessity student mobility was on the increase. The participants showed loss of hope and believed that the current situation in higher education was likely to continue.

The participant who saw nothing wrong in Zimbabwe's higher education could represent the group that benefited from irregularities in the registration of students. However, accepting the declining higher education system does not help the situation to improve, nor does it bring change in student migration patterns. The need for change to save the situation remains a reality.

5.5 PHASE THREE: DATA OBTAINED FROM THE ADMINISTRATORS AT THE ZIMBABWEAN UNIVERSITIES

5.5.1 Introduction

In this section the data obtained from the administrators working at some of the Zimbabwean universities will be presented. A request to carry out research was sent to 8 of the 15 universities in Zimbabwe. Of the eight universities which were asked to participate four responded positively. It was from these institutions that responded that the data were obtained. Three of these institutions were private and one was a state institution. One state university turned down the request, and one more requested a letter of permission from the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education.

Before approaching any state university, the researcher first directed a letter of request to do the research to the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education. The response from the relevant Ministry never came by the promised time. The researcher made five visits to their offices in an attempt to remind them of the request, but to no avail. The office seemed not to be concerned. The researcher

gave up on the office and approached the universities directly. That was why only one state university came to agree to participate in the research study.

The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education only responded much later, after the institutions had closed for holidays. In the letter of response the research topic was changed from *"The Effects of Student Migration to South African Universities on Higher Education in Zimbabwe"*, to read *"The Effects of Student Migration to South African Universities. Accordingly, be advised that the head on higher education in Zimbabwe"* (cf. Appendix G). The latter seemed to be an editorial mistake or the people concerned were unwilling to participate because they and did not correct the mistake when it was pointed out to them.

The above experience was the reason why the data for the current research came to be collected only from one state and three private universities.

5.5.2 Lecturers and administrators who contributed to the enquiry

A total of 12 lecturers and administrators participated in the study. In this section the letters of the alphabet were used to present the participants. Of this group three were administrators and nine were lecturers. All the participants admitted that they were aware that the phenomenon of student migration *definitely* existed. They also agreed that the trend was visibly on the increase.

5.5.3 The administrators' input

All three administrators acknowledged the unavailability of statistics on student migration because, as far as they knew, student migration was an individual enterprise. It was therefore difficult to follow up on individuals. There was no record to follow up.

5.5.3.1 Why students migrate

The participants were of the opinion that there were irregularities in the way students were admitted to institutions of higher learning.

5.5.3.1 (a) Administrator X

Perhaps one of the reasons is a lack of confidence in the local institutions. Another reason is the lack of transparency in our institutions because sometimes students question the operations of our home institutions especially when a student applies for a specific programme but is given a place in a different area not applied for. I think we need to set and keep guidelines on admitting students. If we say 'in this area we need people with such requirements', then we should be seen doing that. If we set a standard, students would not need a consultant to help them get into a programme of their choice.

5.5.3.1 (b) Administrator Y's view gave the impression there was agreement with X on irregularities in respect of admission, and added even more.

That administrator highlighted that,

It's pathetic. This business starts back at 'O' and 'A' Levels when examination papers sometimes leak! Why would someone do that if not intending to 'squeeze' someone into higher education after they have passed well? Other students and their parents perceived our standards to be to going down. And more so some of those who go out were not very good performers as compared to some students in Zimbabwe. For these, their parents could afford.

5.5.3.1 (c) Administrator Z

This administrator mentioned that,

Student migration is an international feature and when Zimbabwean students migrate, they are following the global influence. Some of them may have other reasons but globally this is what is happening. Then we have challenges in this country, especially in the last 10 years when our economy also affected

our higher learning. That period has seen an increased number in student migration.

5.5.3.2 Discussion

The administrators said that student migration was an international trend and a global stimulus. Their observation was in line with the viewpoint in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.3.3.1) which gave the general reasons why students migrate. In other words, the information from the administrators confirmed the international trend of student migration. They put Zimbabwean students in line with the rest of the international students when it comes to student mobility. By so doing, the administrators responded to the preliminary part of the first aim of this study which seeks to establish why students generally migrate for higher education. Secondly, the information provided made the Zimbabwean student fit into the group discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.5.1), namely where Teferra and Knight (2008:496) indicated who the international student in Africa was. That further gave an insight on the rationale for the mobility of students in Africa, including those from Zimbabwe. It can therefore be said that, generally speaking, Zimbabwean students are like any other students in the world in respect of migration for higher education.

Each country has reasons specific to it when it comes to student migration. From their administration offices the participants singled out administrative reasons that 'pushed' Zimbabwean students out of the country. One of the reasons given by Administrator X was the lack of transparency which also made people lose trust in their own higher education institutions. The reason was also discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.19). The administrator said that consistency was important in the running of universities.

Administrator Y saw situations where the students applied for a study course but were offered the opportunity to do other courses with no explanation to the student. An observation in this regard was made by one of the parents (cf. 5.4.4.5). Such actions made those prospective students who could afford international fees look elsewhere in order to study the course of their choice. It was therefore concluded

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that either there were too many students for the course, or there might be other reasons. As discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.19), transparency is crucial if there is to be trust.

Administrator Y said the loss of trust went as far back as when examination papers leaked at 'O' and 'A' Levels. The aim was to start early enough in secondary school to squeeze in someone into higher education. Administrator Y's suggestion was that there was a need to adhere to the set standards if students and even their parents were to have confidence in their local higher education. Observing the standards would set irregularities in higher education right, especially in the registration of students.

The question of the poor economy and its subsequent outcome kept recurring. The recommendation was that the state of the economy needed to change, otherwise it would not be easy to bring about constructive modifications in the universities.

5.5.3.3 Why choose South Africa as a destination

5.5.3.3 (a) Administrator X

This person pointed out that,

> *Many students migrate into South Africa because it is near us. South Africa's entry requirements are favourable to us. Our students do 'A' Level and South Africa does 'M' Level so the students more or less walk in without much hustle. South Africa has a history of reputation. More of the students go to South Africa's reputable universities. Both students and parents are happy about these reputable institutions.*

5.5.3.3 (b) Administrator Y

This administrator had less to say other than that,

The main reason is that they may doubt the credibility of the degrees from their own universities in their country.

5.5.3.3 (c) Administrator Z

This official said,

In addition to the proximity of South Africa, the country has advanced universities which are competitive internationally. That has attracted many of our students.

5.5.3.3 (d) Discussion

The administrators' views on why the students chose South Africa as a destination for higher education focused on what the students usually looked for when deciding on a study destination. One of the considerations was proximity (cf. 2.4.3.1(b) & 3.9.5). A good number of Zimbabwean students preferred to be relatively close to home. Therefore South Africa, in addition to other advantages, was considered a suitable destination, a place where one would not feel too lost. Too much unfamiliarity affected some students' adjustment to the learning process.

Administrator X pointed out that the 'A' Level examinations written in Zimbabwe and acceptable for admission at South African universities was preparation enough for migration. The connotation was that all 'A' Level students were prepared for South Africa, even if they would not necessarily all migrate.

The participants considered the question of credible universities seriously. Administrator Z indicated that South Africa had reputable universities. The implication was that students would be recognized on the international market. The students needed to be of value in the marketplace.

5.5.3.4 The benefits of foreign qualifications

One administrator indicated that students benefited from being exposed to up-to-date facilities and institutions. The administrator admitted that the country did not have up-to-date facilities, and that some of the structures were deteriorating. The same participant mentioned that countries such as South Africa and other destinations seemed to have less of those constraints. The participant commended the developed infrastructure which was said to be helpful to the students.

The other participant differed, saying that the question of benefits such as getting better jobs later was just a belief that there were advantages in studying in a developed country rather than in a developing one. The contributor also said that it was not necessarily true that qualifications obtained from developing countries were equally good. The argument was based on the participant's conviction that not all foreign universities were good, and that some institutions of higher learning did not produce credible results.

The other view was that education, taken and given in good faith, would always be beneficial.

5.5.3.4 (a) Discussion

The administrators who were involved in the day-to-day running of the institution were more aware of the internal problems of the institutions. They came up with a comparison of the infrastructure between Zimbabwean and South African institutions. In a way, what they said was that where the students received their instruction and what was used in teaching counted a lot with the students. What the administrators touched on was, as was discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.2.3) that students chose where to go and what to study in order for them to fit in the global knowledge economy. Their observation about the type of resources in their universities justified the observation that students would benefit from the exposure to migration. South Africa seemed to have less resource constraints, hence the students' popular choice.

In Chapter 2 (cf. 2.6.4), it was indicated that the desire to gain a qualification that may enhance their prospects of employment, influenced the students' choice of specific study courses. In Zimbabwe, where the choice of courses is still limited, the students leave, especially for South Africa, where some of the acclaimed courses are offered. It is important to note that, while the participants were generally in agreement with the above observation, some of them said that not all the universities in South Africa offered reputable qualifications. This observation called for a scrutiny of the universities attended by some of the Zimbabwean students. Such a scrutiny should give a rational assessment that does not omit what might be negative in respect of student migration to South Africa.

5.5.3.5 'Push' challenges in higher education

When asked what exactly might have been 'pushing' students to South Africa, one of the administrators was rather hesitant, and merely said that,

> *The challenges may not be very obvious but they might be there. But with a university it is difficult to tell what the reasons could be.*

On the other hand, another administrator said that,

> *Students migrate because of the newness of something foreign. People also see something imported as good. It now depends on what new and foreign programme that they learn. Such new knowledge such as that of nuclear or rocket science is not offered in our universities. If what a student desires to study is not offered locally then that student goes. I must admit that we are still very limited in terms of what we offer, therefore some students go. We are still rather traditional in terms of what we offer.*

Another contribution was that,

> *Our country still has a way to go if we compare with what the international universities offer. That is one of our big hurdles. Then sometime students, because of competition, fail to secure a place in their programmes of choice.*

Then those students are likely to migrate if they can afford international fees. There was a time when we faced unrest in some of our colleges. Although that seems to have gone, the experience may still influence migration. Why? Because parents and guardians still remember and may decide for their children. It happened a few years ago and the current crop of students may not know.

5.5.3.5 (a) Discussion

One of the participants was very cautious and was careful enough not to give a specific answer to what 'pushed' Zimbabwean students to South African universities. That hesitance said a lot, because it may not really have meant that the participant was not aware of anything at stake. Thus, while this administrator may have agreed to participate, he/she was likely uncomfortable with some of the questions.

Another participant's view implied, that what was referred to as the 'traditional' way in which Zimbabwean universities were run, was the key factor which seems to influence the students in enrolling at the local universities. The limited variety of study courses offered diverted students' attention elsewhere to where things were more attractive. The participant, in other words, indicated that globalization had made the students aware of 'new knowledge'. Adaptation to *the changing times and demands* were necessary if the students were to be more attracted to local universities. The quest to access knowledge results in the students' response to globalization and internationalisation by their choice of destination countries and migration for higher education (cf. 2.3.2).

The question of problems that faced the universities was a cause for concern. A participant continued to say that unrests in institutions of higher learning were 'unhealthy' for the learning process. It was also said that while the disturbances seemed to have been constrained and not erupted for some time, its power remained influencing migration. The participant's implication was that the history of unrest in the universities influenced what was happening now. That was why the parents, who were more aware of the past, were hesitant and did not quite trust that

the wave, especially of violence, was completely gone. That was one of the reasons why those who could afford it still sent their children away, especially to South Africa (cf. 3.12.3.2).

5.5.3.6 Barriers created by the enrolment system

The question was put to the participants whether the enrolment system created barriers in the students' enrolment.

To this question one of the participating administrators revealed that,

> *About the enrolment barrier, I think children of the very 'important' people just walk into any programme, sometimes without even the requirements needed for that programmes. But the ordinary folks must have the needed requirements.*

> *Then the double standards we practice here discourage the families of the ordinary people, those who are not from the 'top'. Thus, they feel that if they go out they would be fairly considered, AND they are fairly considered. Zimbabwean students are considered very well prepared for university work.*

Another administrator had this to say about barriers created by the enrolment system in higher education, namely

> *Here in Zimbabwe there is a lot of competition when it comes to who should enrol for university education. Our 'A' Level graduates are passing with high grades to such an extent that universities want to enrol students with 14-15 points only for some degree programmes. Those who would have attained lower grades would definitely want to move and find where they can do those programmes that they wanted to study at home. This happens mainly in Medicine where they now enrol students with 14 and 15 points only. In South Africa they can study Medicine with less than 14 points.*

Yet another administrator said,

Ample financial support is another reason why students go to study out. There they have access to scholarships, something which does not happen here.

5.5.3.6(a) Discussion

Information from one of the participants implied that it appears as though there were some offices with power enough to influence registration. The participant said that some officials' authority allowed them to overlook the set regulations, thereby allowing their children or whoever they recommended admitted to a university ahead of everyone else. Those recommended may not necessarily have the required grades for the courses they register for. Deserving students end up failing to gain admission or they are offered courses not of their choice. The participant's observation supports the discussion in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6.3.1) where it was said that undeserving students ended up benefiting ahead of the deserving ones. In this case some students who had not passed well get admitted while other students with high scores end up not getting admitted. The interference with registration was given as one of the 'drivers' of migration to South Africa for those students who could afford it.

The participant condemned double standards in student enrolment. Double standards were driving students into migration. The action by the top government officials gave room for the university administration to be equally corrupt in the enrolment of the students. There was talk of them accepting bribes in exchange for university admissions. In Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6.3.1) this challenge was discussed. This further contributed to the people's loss of confidence in the local higher education system.

Another participant confirmed the irregularities in registrations and mentioned a department where such irregularities seemed to be very obvious. Judging from the above observation, the participating administrators indicated the need for a discrete and reliable system for the registration of the students. For example, if students do not need to physically be at a university for registration but may register online, perhaps the setback caused by corruption and misuse of authority would be minimised. International universities use the online system, and the outcome is very

fair. However, for Zimbabwe to achieve such a level, it goes back to the need to build up the economy first so that advanced technology could be available for registration.

5.5.3.7 Financial support for higher education studies

When asked whether the students received enough financial aid for their studies an administrator stressed,

> *Our students do not get enough financial support, NOT AT ALL! There is no funding. I think that's one of our main problems. We do not take our students very serious. There is no funding. Students take care of themselves. If they cannot take care of themselves, tough luck! There used to be the grant and loan system, but in the 5-10 years it has not been there. And that may be one push for the students to apply for scholarships outside the country. That kind of support is offered outside and not inside the country. THAT IS TRUE.*

Another participant said they currently received very little funding, going on to state that,

> *The aid they get from the government is not enough to cover all the fees that the university might actually want from their students. The students might decide to migrate.*

The above views were supported by the third participant who pointed out that students faced serious funding problems. The students had to look out for where they could get scholarships. Some universities were said not to consider the government aid known as *cadetship*.

5.5.3.7 (a) Discussion

The data for this study may be deemed credible for the reason that the participating administrators were the people who were directly experiencing the changes in the universities. They indicated what they saw happening as they worked each day.

Their experience in respect of funding in Zimbabwe's higher education was that it was not only insufficient for the students, but also for university resources. Their observation and experience can be linked to what was mentioned in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.19) where Mlambo (2010:107) pointed out how higher education institutions did not know how their funding was calculated by Treasury, even though they were involved in negotiations for the funds. Treasury makes the final decisions on university funding. Universities end up receiving not enough funds for salaries and for acquiring recourses. Because of ill-equipped institutions, the students have reason for migration. The question of funding needs to be considered seriously by the government.

The participants also said that the funding awarded to students by the government was not fairly distributed. It was a general observation that it was not paid in time for the students to whom it was allocated. Some universities ended up demanding the funds from the students but those students could not afford paying the money. It was said that some of the universities did not to accept any students who were on state funding. The challenge of funding in Zimbabwe's higher education which was discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.12.6.1) requires the government's serious attention.

5.5.3.8 The quality of foreign qualifications

The participants were asked whether foreign qualifications were of a higher standard than those in Zimbabwe.

The first participant who did not believe that foreign qualifications were of a higher standard than those in Zimbabwe, added that,

> *Our degree programmes are also as intense as theirs or even better. Students do not consider the question of the superiority of degrees but (1) financial support, (2) opportunities and (3) to enrol into a university. For these reasons, they may migrate.*

Another response was that there were no real differences between the standards of Zimbabwean universities and the universities of the other countries where the students migrated to, explaining that,

> *Perhaps the other countries have a policy of having foreign students. A certain quarter of their students are supposed to be of international students. That tends them not to put roadblocks on anyone who applies. Zimbabwean students have a tendency of getting hold of those opportunities. Some of these institutions have support even for foreign students.*

One administrator mentioned that,

> *Rich parents usually send their children even further than South Africa. They may send them to the U.K., the U.S.A. or even Australia. It is the middle class whose children do not go very far because of expenses. Therefore it is not a question of superior degrees but the need to have a university qualification. In addition to this are inadequate local facilities which included student accommodation. There are some students who find it very hard to study from home as people's living conditions differ.*

5.5.3.8(a) Discussion

The participants were of the opinion that migrating specifically for quality qualifications was not a priority among the students. They argued that Zimbabwean degrees were as good as those from any other country. According to them, the major concern for Zimbabwean students was the fact that they longed for university education in a favourable study environment. This view substantiates the discussion in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.12.3.2) indicating that there was massification of education in Zimbabwe without planning how the students would be accommodated by enrolling all deserving students at higher education level. The administrators expressed the opinion that the students would still be comfortable with a Zimbabwean qualification if they were all accommodated at the universities. As discussed in Chapter 3 (3.19) in Zimbabwe there still existed a growing and unsatisfied demand for access to

higher education. What was needed was a situation where deserving students could all be fairly accommodated at the local universities. The participants said that the reasons as indicated above contributed to the students' migration to South Africa. Thus, the participants argued, that for most parents who could afford to pay for their children, they wanted their children to have a university education.

The participants said that although some students had thought carefully about the study environment most students still did not have access to facilities. The shortage of accommodation in Zimbabwean universities was discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6.3.1 & 3.12.6.1). The administrators said that accommodation was important in higher education if the students were to study in places conducive to learning. The participants said with the situation not improving, students would still find reasons for migrating to South Africa where they believed conditions to be better.

5.5.3.9 The effect of student migration on higher education

The situation of student migration was observed to have effects on higher education in Zimbabwe in a number of ways.

5.5.3.9(a) Student selection

When they were asked whether the selection of students for enrolment affected the education at the local universities, the first respondent said,

> *Actually if we look at who gets the place to study in Zimbabwe and who fails to, that would imply that those who go to South Africa would have performed lower, compared to those who remain. We would have taken those with 14-15 points (cf. 3.12.1) and those with fewer points decide to migrate. Performance does not get affected.*

The second participant looked at the issue from the viewpoint of performance, and indicated,

I get the impression that it is the middle class that migrates- those with the know-how and a little bit of resources migrate. Studying outside the country involves searching for places in a costly manor, such as paying for CSC examinations in pounds. Thus, it is not a matter of quality of students, but a matter of affordability. It is the money that is not paid into our colleges that affects us.

The other participant mentioned the question of affordability and that of grades. The participant pointed out that while those with high points were admitted at the local universities, there were also still some with high points who migrated. So, both social status and grades counted in respect of student mobility, and the impact on performance was insignificant.

5.5.3.9(b) Discussion

From what the participants said, the universities in Zimbabwe tended to accept a larger number of students who had attained high points at 'A' Level. Given such a situation it could be expected that higher education would not be affected in terms of high pass-rates. Some of the participants' observation was that it was mainly the rich and the middle-class who had the means to send their children out of the country regardless of their results in the 'A' Level examinations. The administrators said that the children of the rich and the middle class did not affect higher education as far as performance is concerned.

Though many students with high A' level points were accepted at universities the implication was left that in practice undeserving students is not stopped to be enrolled as well. Participants were more concerned with the irregularities in the selection of students at the time of registration, where some undeserving students found their way into the system.

5.5.3.9(c) The effect of the quality of the students who migrate on higher education

A question was asked on whether the quality of students who migrated affected the quality of higher education.

The participant who was asked first said,

> *I think student migration affects our higher education because some of our best brains go. They are nurtured abroad and some of them do not come back. So it does affect the calibre of the students that our higher education institutions are getting. The local institutions end up with those students who had no choice but to go into local institutions. Given a chance to study abroad they would have done so.*

> *It is true that out there we give them some of our best and brightest. I think it extends to our citizenship and laws and systems. While other countries look for the brains, we don't. When our students migrate, we tend to think it is good riddance. Other countries look for the brains and develop on the strength of our country's brains. Thus our higher education in affected.*

The next administrator also agreed to the fact that the quality of students who migrated did affect the quality of students who were enrolled in the universities stayed because,

> *It is not only, as it is believed, the students with lower grade who go to South Africa. Other students with high points also go if they fail to be accommodated in the programmes of their choice. The example is that of students who want to do chartered accountancy. South Africa seems to have a less rigorous way than in Zimbabwe where the programme is done within some selected companies. Some students prefer the South African way, so they migrate. So any student who goes and does not come back is a loss to Zimbabwe. It may not show visibly but the effect is there.*

The last participant's contribution was that,

While the local lecture halls seem to be full and everything seems to be normal, there is a missing bond which is not visible. The question is, 'Where are the rest of the students who graduated at 'A' Level?' it boils back to the inadequate facilities, hence our incompetence in supplying for higher education. All those students who were not accommodated, some of whom may have migrated, are a glaring reminder that we are inadequate when it comes to higher education.

5.5.3.9(d) Discussion

According to the above views it was evident that both the bright and the not so bright students, according to Zimbabwean standards, migrated. However, it had to be taken into consideration that scoring low points at 'A' Level does not prove that the student was dull. In Zimbabwe, if a student passed the 'O' Level examinations satisfactorily enough to qualify for "A' Level, it implied that the student had the potential for passing the 'A' Level examinations. However, the same student may attain lower grades at 'A' Level because there were other factors that may have affected the student's performance. The above observation is in line with Danili and Reid's (2006:1-2) findings that the best students found by one method is not necessarily the best student by another method. The methods of teaching used at the 'O' and 'A' levels are not the same, and a number of students may be affected, ending up with lower grades.

The above observation implies that some of the 'best brains' are lost through migration because they had low grades at 'A' Level. As pointed out by one of the participants, the Zimbabwean higher education authorities seem to think that the migration of such students is good riddance, when in actual fact it is a loss. It is therefore necessary to keep the potentially good students in the country.

For the reasons discussed above it can be stated that the influence of student migration is not to be seen or felt (2013) but it will be observable after years of the so-called 'brain drain' due to potentially good students who leave to study outside the country . The participants concluded that a full lecture hall did not necessarily

mean that there was no loss of students through migration for higher education. Their assessment is like what was said in Chapter 1 with regard to the massification of education at primary and secondary school levels in Zimbabwe, whose consequence is a large number of enrolments at tertiary levels.

5.5.3.9(e) Other effects of student migration

One administrator explained that,

> *If we have students who do very well in popular programmes at a foreign university, we lose out because the credit goes to that outside university. We have students who have done well in South African universities, but the credit went to South Africa and no to us.*

> *Another observation is that people perceive our higher education as one that cannot accommodate its student population. Migration means we have failed to accommodate the student crop that we produce at 'A' Level.*

Another consequence of student migration came as,

> *You know what; we won't grow as institutions of higher learning. We remain the same, enrolling the same number of students, doing the same course, just like that. I think we need to do something such as introducing more programmes in order to take care of our own students.*

Then the view was expressed that,

> *I think our higher education has not made much difference since independence. Yes, the number of institutions may have increased but we still are not that attractive. With this globalization, students will continue going while we remain in one place. With some structures not completed for years now what do you expect? We cannot move forward.*

5.5.3.9 (f) Discussion

One of the participants observed that a student's good performance gave credit to the university where the student was studying. The view could be linked to a report by a Fort Hare University official in *The Herald* (January 29, 2010) on how well the Zimbabwean students were performing at that university. The effect from student migration there was a loss not only of the student who contributed through high performance, but also of honour on the part of Zimbabwean higher education. The credit goes to South African universities for producing quality results. Zimbabwean universities would have to be judged by their own products, hence the negative impact.

Another participant's observation on the effect of student migration on higher education drew the attention on the massification of higher education in Zimbabwe in the country's early years of independence, as discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.12.3.2). Higher education was not prepared for the sudden influx of students qualifying for university. To date (2013), with the continuation of the process, local universities are unable to enrol all students who are passing. Some of these students end up migrating as they are considered not to have passed well enough for the universities in Zimbabwe. In other words, a country's higher education was expected to accommodate its own high school graduates. Therefore, there ought to be measures in place for the higher education provision of these students.

Participants also pointed out that the growth of higher education in Zimbabwe was not expected to affect higher education. If higher education did not grow, the country equally remained in the same place in regards to its economy. The limited and static curriculum was evident in the form of more or less the same courses being offered since Independence (1980). The offering of the same old programmes ended up driving them into migration. Internationalization in institutions of higher learning, which is how universities respond to globalization, is what Zimbabwean higher education requires. Currently (2013) its situation is not very attractive in regards to study programmes offered.

5.5.3.10 Student migration and the economy of the country

The administrators linked student migration to South Africa to Zimbabwe's deteriorated economy and gave their views on how the two were interconnected.

5.5.3.10(a) Employment opportunities

The administrators were asked whether the students, after studying outside the country, had better employment opportunities.

One participant said,

> *"While the students are away, our economy is just not growing but contracting. The students struggle to get employment. Therefore the families of these students are likely to influence them to find employment in the host country rather than coming back.*
>
> *Another thing is that when they come back they are not readily accepted. Those who would have studied locally see them as a challenge. They consider students who went to study out as actually had run away and now they want to take the opportunity that is before them. Employers might be neutral, but there is competition. The environment is not friendly".*

The other administrator had this to say,

> *The situation is tricky. Those students who go out study acquire knowledge about their host country because they use examples of that country. So on coming back they may not know the ins and outs of how to get a job. Local students may have done an attachment with a company and they are likely to find employment with that company because they would have showed what skills they have.*
>
> *Some of the local students go into an institution as unofficial apprentices so as not to waste their brains. When an opportunity arises, they get into the system. But a student who has been studying outside may not be able to*

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grasp the practice because he is coming from a different environment where, like in South Africa they would have taught using examples from their own country. The locals have found the method as a way to penetrate employment.

The third participant agreed that for those who studied outside the country to find employment was a challenge, and said,

Some companies who may require specific qualifications may take them. But chances are very slim considering that unemployment is very high here in Zimbabwe. Ummmm, chances are very, very slim. They do not have better employment opportunities. And if these students cannot work then they do not contribute to our economy

5.5.3.10(b) Discussion

What the participants came up with reminds of what was mentioned in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.8) which indicated that students went through higher education with the intention and hope of finding rewarding employment. Zimbabwean students migrate to South African universities with the intention and hope of finding rewarding employment (cf. 5.3.3.1). The students gain international knowledge, but they cannot apply it at home because they cannot be accommodated there. The country loses on the knowledge acquired from other countries and loses the service of the students who were trained outside.

One of the participants said that there was a belief by Zimbabweans that student migration was getting rid of the less useful (cf. 5.6.2.4(c)). Close to the belief of 'good riddance' when students migrate to South Africa was the observation by one of the participants that students who studied outside the country were not really accepted in the field of employment, being considered 'run-away' students. By not giving these students a chance to contribute to the economy of the country, the country lost on the services these students could provide.

In relation to the above, a participant suggested that a possible reason for looking at students who migrated as people who had run away was that the Zimbabwean economy was actually declining more than before while the students were studying outside the country. If the economy could improve, only then the student who had studied outside could be accepted.

Another argument was that any host country's teaching uses more examples from the own country than from outside. Students get to know more about the host country than their own country. If they were to come back home and try to find work, the students were 'strangers' in industry because they would not know much about local practices and are unlikely to be employed. The students would not be familiar with some of the 'cunning' ways of finding the few jobs that might be available. Therefore, they end up unemployed. To the country it is a loss because the students cannot impart the unique knowledge they would have acquired. The economy does not gain anything from them. However, adaptation would be possible if the students were to be employed and so they should not be rejected in Zimbabwe's industry when they come from student migration.

It was also said that generally, student migration impacted negatively on the country because it was regarded as an initiative that could benefit the country in terms of obtaining skilled workers. There seemed to be no room for those who returned intending to work at home. Because students were not accepted in their home country, most of them tried to find work either in the host country or any other country where their services are required.

5.5.3.10(c) Student migration and brain drain

One of the participants thought that student migration was not quite a 'brain drain', but just close to it. The reason given was that students who would have studied in South Africa were likely to stay and work there. That would not benefit the local economy either. The participant agreed that student migration was a loss of potential manpower for Zimbabwe.

The other two administrators' responses echoed the above view.

 It was observed that,

> *If one studied outside we may lose them because they have the potential of*
> *being employed out there other than at home. We lose, yes.*

5.5.3.10(d) Discussion

The participants thought that student migration and 'brain drain' were synonymous
where students do not come back home and contribute to the development of their
country. The participants agreed that that was what Zimbabwe was experiencing, to
a greater extent. The view is in agreement with what Pavalko (1968:300) said about
Canadian students migrating to the U.S.A., namely that though numbers were small
in comparison to the number of students who stayed behind, those students would
have made a difference. The high level of education attained and specialized training
was potentially an additional supply of manpower to the country. By not returning to
Zimbabwe upon the completion of their education, the students also represent at
potential loss of manpower. The country's economy needed some boosting,
therefore the necessity to avoid the brain drain in its initial stages before student
migration occurs.

5.5.3.10(e) Whether student migration benefits the country

The participants were asked whether the Zimbabwean economy benefited from
student migration.

 One response was,

> *If the flow was reciprocated, Zimbabwe would benefit through transfer of skills*
> *and knowledge. When they go, they do not come back so the transfer does*
> *not take place.*

The other two administrators indicated a view similar to the above, saying that it never happened that students came back after studying elsewhere. Thus, the country never benefited from student migration.

5.5.3.10(f) Discussion

It was said that Zimbabwe was not benefiting from student migration because the process was not reciprocal. The observation reminds of the discussion in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.3.3) on whether the qualifications acquired under the Erasmus programme carried the same weight as other programmes in the Euro-zone. The responses from the participants can also be linked to the view that in countries with stable economies student migration benefits the 'sending' country through the gaining of skills and the reduction of pressure on resources (cf. 3.16). Yet Zimbabwe seems to be lagging behind in advantages created by student mobility. There is a need for the realization that student migration could be utilized for the benefit of the country.

5.5.3.10 (g) The effect of student migration on the economy

On whether student migration had an effect on the country's economy, one of the administrators said,

> *It does, it does. It's not always that when people finish their higher education they always want to be employed. Some may want to start their own projects and they may succeed outside and that does not benefit our country.*

Another administrator said that because of student migration,

> *The economy does not get the best human resources that may be there. Some of the best brains go away so the economy suffers from competitive human resources. Putting it bluntly or crudely, the dull are the ones running the economy. The very clever ones run away. So those who could not do*

anything about the situation are the ones who remain and they run the economy. They may have limited exposure. The economy follows their abilities. So we do not get the type of people who experiment and act. They go with student migration.

The third response was that,

The economy loses out with student migration because in the last 10 years anyone with potential who has gone out has remained there rather than bring their knowledge here. It is sad.

5.5.3.10(h) Discussion

What the participants said was that rendering service to the country was not always about getting employed by an already established company after one had graduated. It was said that after graduating one could initiate a project which could create employment for more people. The implication is that some of these projects are started outside the country, hence the loss to the country.

The participants spoke of gaps left when the students left for South Africa, and some were even obliged to stay out of the country because the inflation rate back home was so high that there was no more room for employment. If students who had migrated stayed away, there would be less competition for the few jobs that were available. The view is opposite to the discussion in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.3) in respect of the historical background in Africa, namely that education (which includes education obtained through student migration) was expected to help produce the much needed human resources to meet the growing economic needs.

The students' contribution after graduation would help in resuscitating the economy, but the state of the economy has not yet allowed them to exercise their abilities due to the limited growth and employment patterns of not accepting students who had migrated.

5.5.3.11 What to change in higher education

The participants suggested what needed to be done if the student migration situation was to change.

One participant said that,

> *We need student funding. That would make most of our students not to look elsewhere. (2) Our entry system needs to be transparent. (3) We need to maintain set standards so that people can rely on our expectations. Some students go out because what they expected here has not been made available. (4)   Now we have so many universities that could accommodate so many of our youngsters. We need to improve them in order to help our situation.*

Another administrator pointed out that,

> *The number of cut-off points should be clearly defined and followed. This way, students would not be disadvantaged unnecessarily. (2) Students should be provided with enough resources because this is one of the main challenges our higher education faces. (3) Some of the students migrate because the programmes they wish to pursue are not provided at home. These programmes should be made available and should be supported enough in order for the country to retain as many as possible of the students. (4)Students should be encouraged to do the first degree at home then they can migrate for a post graduate degree - though this would be possible if our higher education is well supported by our government.*

In addition to the above views, the third administrator said that,

> *Student migration should not be regulated but need to be left as it is. Regulation would be infringing human rights of freedom of movement. (2) Bursaries and scholarships should be widely advertised so that as many people as possible can have information on them. They should not be limited to those who are 'well connected'. (3) The main issue here is that our*

economy needs to improve. Perhaps we can then have a higher education we desire.

5.5.3.11(a) Discussion

The participants' concerns were from an administrative point of view. The main worry was in respect of funding. As has been discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6.1), the increase in the number of universities required an increase in the budget for higher education. This budget is what was said to be totally inadequate. Institutions lack adequate funding for research and infrastructure, driving some of the students to better-funded institutions outside the country. With some universities having incomplete buildings which are said to have been in that state for a decade or more, funding would help to relieve the situation. The participating administrators also said that enough funding would cover bursaries, scholarships and grants to help students to pay the required fees.

Another reason given for student migration was the question of double standards in the enrolment system. The participants wished for a situation where there could be no interference in the registration of students.

There was a suggestion that the higher education curriculum needed to have more programmes for students to choose from. Introducing more courses might help to retain some students at home. The participants contrasted their suggestion against what they said was a maintaining of the seemingly *status quo* since 1980. Zimbabwe's institutions of higher learning, as was suggested, needed to grow. The universities' growth would help in the development of the   country's economy by getting people with knowledge and expertise to work in the country.

It was indicated that with enough funding, the students should be advised to do the first degree at home. This would perhaps attach them to their country. This view was based on the observation that South Africa teaches by means of examples from their own country (cf. 5.5.3.10(a)). If they were to study in their home country for at least

the first degree, the students would perhaps be more accepted than rejected by their own country.

On the other hand, participants were of the opinion that if the economy was thriving, in turn, higher education would improve. They indicated that institutions needed to have independence to decide on their management practices and operate without any unprofessional interference and allow fairness in their enrolment procedures.

After the administrators had made their contribution, the lecturers also gave their input to the current study which aimed at establishing the general and local factors that are contributing to the migration of students to foreign-based universities in particular to South African higher education institutions.

5.6 PHASE FOUR: DATA OBTAINED FROM LECTURERES AT ZIMBABWEAN UNIVERSITIES

5.6.1 The lecturers' input

A total of nine lecturers from four universities in Zimbabwe participated in the research. These nine pointed out that the magnitude of student migration was difficult to tell. The reason for the unavailability of statistics was that the process was not initiated by the government, but it was an individual venture. The participants also said that the general attitude seemed to be that student migration was a way of getting rid of a problem. Another outlook was that those who were migrating seemed to have looked down on the local education institutions, and for that reason the students were not motivated to study at local institutions.

However, the lecturers gave more information on why the students migrate, in general, and specifically to South Africa. The participants' contribution is not presented according to the individual responses because of the numbers involved, but according to some identified topics which were evident from the discussions. The nine lecturers all indicated that they were aware of the fact that student migration to South Africa existed, and that it seemed to be on the increase. The lecturers'

explanations and views on student migration were based on their observations in the lecture halls.

5.6.2.1(a) Why students migrate

When the lecturers were asked why Zimbabwean students generally migrate they indicated that several reasons existed why students migrate.

One participant mentioned that,

> *The main reason for studying in South Africa is, first and foremost, they want resources, enough resources. Secondly, they want stability. Zimbabwe's current situation is not stable. So students are assured that if they start their programmes out there they will finish.*

The issues of resources, security and an environment conducive to study were reiterated by two more lecturers. The other reasons given for migration were, namely the instability of the economy, and staff shortages.

A comparison was drawn between Zimbabwe and South Africa, as follows:

> *The universities are well staffed with professors and doctors and the higher*
>
> *education system is not affected by the economic conditions.*

<div align="center">and</div>

> *In Zimbabwe students generally migrate especially to South Africa because of the economic situation of the country.*

One participant continued to say that,

> *So many students pass at 'A' Level, but very few, in terms of percentages, make it into the university. So they end up migrating into South Africa.*

Lecturers' views were in agreement in some cases. One participant said that,

> *Students want to go and study elsewhere because they believe that standards are higher out there.*

Another participant said,

> *Students believe that if they do their degrees in South Africa then they can also get jobs there. They believe that the economy of South Africa is better than of this country.*

and

> *They think and hope to find better jobs, either there or when they come back to the country-if they come back at all.*

The other lecturer said some parents were driven by prestige that they can afford to send a child to study in South Africa.

Two lecturers expressed the view that the parents had the final say in the migration of their children, with one of them saying,

> *Some parents believe that there is better education in South Africa, especially with what the situation has been in this country.*

5.6.2.1(b) Discussion

The responses of the lecturers were more inclined to what affected the students' learning process. In the first place they were concerned with the lack of sufficient resources, and indicated that the latter was one of the reasons that contributed to the 'push' to South Africa. The issue of insufficient resources, whether they be human resources discussed in Chapter 3, or other resources used in teaching and learning (cf. 5.3.2.1 & 5.6.2.4(b)), was the concern of the majority of the participants in this study.

The participants pointed out how important it was for the students to complete a study course without any disruption. The observation echoed the unrests experienced before in some of the country's universities (cf. 3.6.2 & 3.12.3.2). The

implication was that while the situation appeared calm, the students and perhaps their parents were alert, lest the unrest would be repeated. Being in such a situation created tension in the students whose priority it was to study.

The lecturers reinforced the view of other participants in the study, namely that the economic situation in the country was the major contributor to the challenges faced by the students in the universities. That was why some of them ended up migrating to where situations were more stable and resources were available. A stable higher education system is essential for economic reform.

The question of more students passing the 'A' Level examinations which was pointed out by the administrators (cf. 5.4.4.2) was again echoed by the lecturers. The observation reminded of the lack of planning for higher education (cf. 3.12.3.2). The preparation for the enrolment of a bigger number of students at university level which should have been together with the decision for the massification of primary and secondary education now needs to be done.

The lecturers said that they expected the students they taught to benefit the country through working in locally after graduation. However, unemployment had become a challenge. With jobs becoming less because of inflation, the only way the students hoped to find employment was through migration. The students always wanted to find employment soon after graduation (cf. 2.6.4 & 3.16). That was why lecturers said that the students foresaw that they would not find work in their country and migrated for higher education.

Another observation was that sometimes foreign ideas were attractive. Foreign education received in a developed country can also attract student. That was why not only students but also their parents decided on South Africa for higher education in the hope of a better life for the children after graduation. The lecturers reinforced this view that Zimbabwean students seek employment outside their country after they graduated from university (cf. 3.13.4.12).

5.6.2.1(c) Why migrate to South Africa

The explanations given for choosing South Africa included the following:

Students are flocking to South Africa because our universities are asking for better results. Those with lower grades usually migrate to South Africa as long as their parents can pay.

Three lecturers said that South Africa was a close destination for higher education for Zimbabwean students. The proximity of the study destination made it easy for both the parents and their children.

Another participant said,

Most students choose to study in South Africa because most of the universities in that country are linked to international institutions of higher learning, and there are always opportunities to go and learn in other places in the world. Yet Zimbabwe is Zimbabwe.

The issue of affordability was pointed out by three participating lectures as yet another 'drive' to South Africa for university education.

One of the lecturers said,

The parents who work and earn something can afford sending their children to South Africa. Most of them cannot send them any further because it is expensive.

Study visas were easier to obtain to South Africa than for other destinations. That was why most students preferred South Africa as a study destination.

5.6.2.1(d) Discussion

Lecturers said there were local universities which had the highest passes as entry requirement, which was 15 points, at 'A' level. They also indicated that the students with lower pass-rates, if they could afford it, went to South Africa for higher education. Students believed the myth that higher education in South Africa was

easy (cf. 3.15). The belief that education in South Africa was easy, according to lecturers, was an excuse in higher education that showed the weakness of a system that had failed to accommodate its own students. There should have been a plan with higher learning of the country to accommodate all deserving students. The country should not regard them as failures because of scoring low points at 'A' Level.

In addition the lecturers believed that internationalization of the programmes of South African universities attracted Zimbabwean students. They cannot find quality higher education without travelling far from home. They opted for quality education, and they were very happy to find it close in South Africa. The lecturers explained that the question of the proximity of the destination was important for Zimbabweans.

The fees in South Africa's universities were more affordable than in countries such as the U.K. and the U.S.A. and Australia. Parents in Zimbabwe, including those who did not earn much, sacrificed the little money they made to send their children to South African universities (cf. 1.2). South Africa charges lower fees for the Zimbabwean students because Zimbabwe is one of the SADC countries. The SADC protocol agreed on charging lower fees to member countries. Thus, it can be concluded that South Africa has the quality international higher education that Zimbabwe needs.

5.6.2.1(e) Benefits of a foreign degree

Two participants believed that there were employment benefits with a foreign degree expressing that,

> *If you learn here in Zimbabwe there is no job for you. It's better for one to get a qualification out there where one can easily get hired. Zimbabwe is not a job market. Another reason is that you get a global outlook and you are not limited to the local employment sectors.*

A second participant went on to add that,

We are now living in a global village with diversity and a competitive environment. We need to develop so that when we come back we are going to impart the knowledge because commerce and industry are different. It pays off in the long run.

Two of the contributors said that the benefits depended on the course the student chose to study.

One of them added,

As for benefits, it depends on the degree obtained because they have not advanced in some programmes in this country. Medicine is one of those areas because the equipment that was used 20 years ago is still the same in use today. But out there resources are constantly changing. Students would find it easier.

Another respondent's view was that there was not really any benefit in a foreign degree. This individual said that attributing benefits to a foreign degree was just a belief, not a reality.

Four participants were not sure whether there were any benefits in studying at a foreign university.

5.6.2.1(f) Discussion

There seem to be more benefits for an individual who migrated for higher education into South Africa than those who do not. The higher education they receive is accepted internationally so the students are employable not only in South Africa but in any country where their services are required. The lecturers believed that, South African higher education prepared the students in such a way that they could be accommodated in the international world of work. What the lecturers indicated is similar to what was said in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.6.1 & 2.8) that all students make an effort to get a higher education that would enable them to be employed. This view, in regards to Zimbabwe, was expressed with some nostalgia of the time when the

country's higher education was still very acceptable to many countries. The lecturers said that the government should improve university education so that students would get jobs after their graduation as was happening in other countries. The participants wished the country regained the prestige in higher education that was now lost.

However, not all participants were of the opinion that benefits from a foreign qualification benefitted the students. The lecturers said that students had a belief that foreign qualifications were the solution to getting employment. The above perception is similar to that of a parent participant who saw nothing wrong in the higher education of Zimbabwe also not being aware that student migration was on the increase (cf. 5.4.8). Considering what the lecturers and the above parent said, it seemed to be possible that the pressure exerted on individuals by the economic hardships, sometimes make people disillusioned and disheartened. The hardships are likely to affect participants' objective assessment of the circumstances and the state of higher education. The call is on the government to transform the economic situation of the country and also the state of affairs in higher education.

5.6.2.1(g) The lecturers' views of the challenges driving students to migration

One lecturer held the opinion that Zimbabwe's higher education faced the challenge of in adequate resources. Universities were not provided adequate and appropriate funding.

The same person went on to say that,

> *The country's higher education lacks quality and qualified personnel because of the prevailing economic situation. If you are a lecturer and you get your most appropriate qualifications, you are no longer marketable in Zimbabwe. You end up looking for greener pastures. So in Zimbabwe we remain with those who are still learning or who have other reasons to stay. But the quality and top staff leaves. With such challenges, those students who can afford follow the seasoned teacher out of the system. They are attracted elsewhere. Our higher education is losing its former attractiveness.*

It was made clear by yet another lecturer that while ZIMCHE was attempting to retain good and dedicated lecturers in higher education, the state of the economy was the reason why some of them had left the country.

Another input was related to status and reputation.

The respondent said,

> *Zimbabwe used to be one of the best in Africa. Whether we like it or not migration is a reminder that the standards have deteriorated. Sometimes we comfort ourselves unrealistically. Students look for universities that have reputation if they can afford it. That is why they leave.*

One contributor added that students from poor families could not afford to pay for higher education. The lecturer elaborated by stating that, in addition to a lack of government support to students, there were also not many business companies who could assist with scholarships.

Another view was that the parents, especially the learned ones, pushed that their children should go outside the country for higher education.

The participant continued to say that,

> *If you are a professor or a doctor you would not want your child to be taught by someone with just a master's degree. There are not enough qualified personnel in our higher education. I think last year (2012) we did not have a class of Medicine students because there were no lecturers.*

A different opinion was that in Zimbabwe, higher education was still of high standard. The participant had observed that a number of study courses in the country could be completed in four years, whereas in South Africa the same courses could be done in three years. The reasoning behind taking more time on the same course was that Zimbabwean students had more to learn. Students preferred to take less time at university level therefore they migrated if they could afford the foreign fees.

The above opinion that higher education in Zimbabwe was still of an acceptable standard was supported by the lecturer who said that,

Generally our universities are good because ZIMCHE's efforts to build in quality assurance are becoming effective. ZIMCHE is attempting to bring the universities to international standards.

5.6.2.1(h) Discussion

Lecturers said that universities faced challenges of human resources especially in teaching. They are of opinion that there in general were not enough resources in higher education to be used by both lecturers and students (cf. 3.18). Lack of resources drove the students to migrate to foreign universities.

Another challenge was the unavailability of financial resources (cf. 3.13.4.9). The lack of funds drove some of the teaching personnel out to countries where they could receive higher salaries. Students who could afford foreign fees migrated to countries where there were enough lecturers to teach them. The lecturers indicated that the students who did not have lecturers in some modules did not do well in the untaught subject areas.

As the participants elaborated, the universities seriously need funds, despite the different view from other lecturers that Zimbabwean higher education was still fine and that there was not any reason to worry about it. Their reasons for not worrying about higher education was that Zimbabwe now (2013) had 15 universities, therefore there were now more students enrolled for higher education. Another reason provided to substantiate this view was that the four-year study courses showed that the country's higher education provided for a more comprehensive content in their courses than the three year equivalents of South Africa.

5.6.2.1(i) Problems created by the system

Four lecturers were of the opinion that there were no apparent difficulties created by the system of higher education, giving reasons such as,

Most universities advertised themselves and students chose where they want to go.

and

Now we have so many universities. We actually have done well in terms of catering for the students. I do not think there is a challenge in that area. All our students are getting places. Everyone has an opportunity to go into higher education these days.

and

I do not think there are problems in the enrolment itself. I believe any student who goes to 'A' level and passes with any grade can go to any university, depending on the number of their points. Some universities take only very high points and the remainder can get enrolled in other universities.

and

The British point system we adopted, i.e. enrolment on the basis of points, assures us of maintaining high standards.

and

Everybody can come in. There is no barrier.

Yet, some saw a problem in what others thought was not, that is, in enrolling by the point system (cf. 3.12.1).

One participant put it this way,

The point system used to be fine, but now it seems different. Some programmes, such as Law and Medicine, are demanding 15 points. On the other hand Sciences as low points as 3 or 4. This certainly affects the science subjects. Then in other programmes, the point system does not apply. Some students are referred to a university through some 'influential' (political) offices and in such cases it is a directive. This is how some students are registered. In such cases the number of points does not count. This is what is actually

happening. If someone deserving a place comes to register he is turned down because the place has been taken. Such students end up migrating so that they can study programmes of their choice.

Another view on the point system was as follows,

The basic regulation requirement is for one to have at least 2 points in 2 subjects at 'A' Level. We then fail to accommodate the entire number of students who are passing because our institutions cannot cope. Some then find alternative places through migration.

One also said,

Our lecture rooms are very crowded. There are just too many students in a small space. Then one wonders what they really learn sitting that way, I think that is also why some choose to migrate instead of learning under such conditions.

5.6.2.1(j) Discussion

The lecturers did not see any problems that could lead to student migration in the modules they were teaching. Rather, they pointed out that student migration was the result of administrative mismanagement in higher education. For example, the lecturers said that they had over-crowded lecture halls and students did not have enough classrooms where they could sit in manageable groups. More students were enrolled, but there was no provision of more space to accommodate the rising numbers of these students.

5.6.2.1(k) Financial support

All eight the lecturers pointed out that student funding was a major challenge in higher education. All of them were aware of the government aid-scheme called the 'Cadetship'. Under this programme the government was to pay part of the fees, and

the assisted student would pay the remaining amount. However, two lecturers stated that it was not everyone who enjoyed relief of the Cadetship Fund. Some students from a specific university seemed to receive the funds while others did not get it.

One observation was,

> *People are struggling with education finance. One is assured of support if one is at 'K' university, but other universities are struggling. We do not know what criterion they use to select the deserving students.*

Following such an observation, it was believed that some students migrated to South Africa where they were likely to get funding through scholarships.

Another participant pointed out that,

> *Students no longer receive financial support. Interestingly, a few students are getting funding to study in South Africa, and yet in our country students are not getting that. There used to be student support, but things have changed. They support just a small group of people.*

Apart from ECONET, a local telecommunications company, no other private organization was known to fund students at higher education level, and who were studying at local universities. ECONET was applauded for paying for many disadvantaged students. The Presidential scholarship fund paid for a few students to study in South Africa.

A participant pointed out that,

> *The government has been able to assist by offering grants, but they cannot cater for everyone. A few are being assisted, but many students cannot access grants.*

5.6.2.1(l) Discussion

The participants were aware that funding in higher education was the main challenge. Almost all the participants pointed out that the universities needed a lot of funds. It was pointed out that Cadetship scheme, as the only funding initiative from the government, was unreliable (cf. 3.12.6.3). The participants were aware of the institutions that benefited most from the Cadetship scheme and said that supporting students from a few universities was not fair to those institutions of higher learning not benefitting in the same way.

While some students who could afford the costs chose to migrate, the majority of students who remained behind still needed funding. Action was needed in order to alleviate the problem of funding for the students.

5.6.2.1(m) Standards of qualifications

One participant did not know whether the standards of higher education were lower in Zimbabwe than in South Africa. The participant said it was because they knew only one side, the Zimbabwean side. The other seven expressed the opinion that the level of a degree depended on the university one studied at. They said that there were some universities which were more commended than others.

What most of them said was explicitly expressed by one participant, namely that,

> *I wouldn't say that the standards of qualifications in Zimbabwe are lower. Some students say the standards being set in Zimbabwe are actually higher than those set in South Africa. In South Africa it depends on the university. Their universities have different standards. So it depends on which universities in Zimbabwe you compare with South African universities. It also depends on different degree programmes. There are some degrees which are not affected, to a larger extent, by resources. But other programmes are certainly affected. For example one cannot study radiology where there are no machines.*

Another participant said migration was not about institutions but about people behind these institutions, and said,

We need to identify the same things and then compare those. Our standards are internationally accepted so they are as good as at any other university.

5.6.2.1(n) Discussion

There seemed to be mixed views and mixed feelings about the standard of qualifications in Zimbabwe's higher education. One participant said that the standards of higher education were, in fact, higher than those in some of the South African universities. This view was similar to the belief of a student who said that higher education in Zimbabwe was harder than in South Africa (cf. 5.3.3.1).

Another view was that the subject of standards in higher education was debatable. The view was based on the question of who set the standards. The argument relates to the discussion of Neo-liberalism in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.8), where the theory shows that the people and organisations who were privileged determine the standards. Therefore, it would depend on which South African universities were being compared with universities in Zimbabwe if you wanted to determine which universities were best. The lecturers pointed out that universities offered different courses. The lecturers questioned whether standards were set by comparing similar study courses as well. The participants were of the opinion that not everything about Zimbabwean higher education was depressing. The prevailing opinion was that the standards of higher education were not necessarily lower than elsewhere, rather the people responsible for higher education in the institutions should create the conditions so that the standards could be maintained. In this case the management and administration of higher education were to be improved.

5.6.2.2 How the students' migration impacts on higher education in the country

This section presents the participants' views and experiences on the impact of students' migration on higher education in Zimbabwe.

5.6.2.2 (a) Student quality and migration

According to the participants, it was not the best students only who migrated. The local universities selected students with high grades first for enrolment and then the rest were left to find themselves an institution where they could study. The participants said that it was those who could afford international fees who mostly migrated.

One opinion was that,

> *The middle and upper class children go to study outside the country. There are also parents who have studied outside the country who want their children to do the same.*

5.6.2.2(b) Discussion

The participants seemed to group the 'best' students by grades and points obtained at 'A' Level. Students with 15 points and above were the best. They referred back to the time, as discussed in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.13.3.8), when the U.Z. used to register students as from 3 points. In the administrators' responses it was pointed out that a student with 2 points in 2 different subjects used to qualify to be enrolled for study (cf. 5.6.2.1). Currently (2013), students with a minimum level of 14 points at 'A' Level were the only ones accepted for some study courses. The policy of enrolling students with 2 points in 2 different subjects was disregarded. Thus, a student was advantaged or disadvantaged by the points obtained at the final 'A' Level examinations. That is the reason why some students were driven to migrate for higher education. Thus, the policy of enrolling students with 2 points in 2 different subjects applied in theory but not in practice.

The disregarding of the policy lead to unfairness in student enrolment through the irregularities it created. For example, some students with less than 15 points were enrolled for study in courses such as Law where students with only 15 points and above were now required. Therefore, there was a need to use the same criterion if student enrolment was to be fair. Double standards continued to encourage student migration.

5.6.2.2(c) Student migration and the quality of higher education

One observation was that,

> *We can say that the bright ones and also the not so bright ones are migrating. In South Africa the demands for the first degree are different from those of Zimbabwe. So, some people who do not qualify in Zimbabwean universities will qualify in South African universities. As long as one can afford, one can have a chance in South Africa. Zimbabwe equally remains with both the bright and the not so bright students.*

All eight the lecturers agreed that those who could afford it did, in fact, migrate.

5.6.2.2(d) Discussion

Student migration was determined by one's choice of programme. If the study course was not available in Zimbabwe's universities, then the students who could afford it migrated to where the course was available. The migration for a study course was also mentioned by the administrators who indicated that Zimbabwe's higher education curriculum needed to widen up and provide a more comprehensive range of programmes (cf. 5.6.2.4(d)).

It was said that irregularities in student enrolment, in conjunction with various other causes presented in this chapter, was one of the key factors influencing students' choice to migrate. Lecturers said that the quality issue might be a misperception that might influence in people's opinion and created their interest in favour of migration.

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Considerations of high standard varied with different groups of people. Low standards in higher education and failure to provide adequate resources were encouraging student migration especially to South Africa. However, the two were not be a general application with regard to the state of higher education in Zimbabwe. Yet in all instances students were expected to do their best and perform well. While the government was expected to play a greater part in the development of higher education, students had to play their part also and work harder and do well in order not to worsen their situation.

5.6.2.2(e) The effects of migration on higher education

It was agreed generally that student migration did affect higher education. One participant pointed out that those who migrated should have been part of what was supposed to be one large group of students studying at Zimbabwe's universities. In addition, one lecturer said that student migration did not support the academic growth of local institutions.

The emphasising statement was,

> *We don't grow.*

Close to the above opinion was the expression that,

> *They pay South African universities and the money develops South Africa's universities instead of developing our own. We do not benefit'.*

Another participant said that student migration was a 'brain drain' in the sense that 'brains', that is students who think', were 'removed from the lecture hall of the Zimbabwean university', reducing the competitive environment in learning.

The same view of reducing competition was put across by another lecturer who thought,

> *It may affect the pass rate, not that those who remain are less intelligent.*

Another view was that,

If you remove some of the elements that are supposed to be creating our own student body, there certainly is some effect. Those that are removed affect the overall group. A missing element is there.

Someone else put it this way,

The lecturers migrate first and the students follow. Then some departments close as happened with the department of Meteorology in one university. Our universities cannot grow. Go and check! The education department has had very few post-graduate students for a long time. Universities need to grow and there should be more research, but we do not have them.

One other lecturer said that losing students through the migration process was losing them for good.

The participant said,

Those who go out and do very well are targeted by the host country. They are offered good jobs there. Back at home there is nothing to attract them back. Somehow they leave a gap.

Another view was,

There is a psychological effect here which may be quite damaging. In comparison, those students who remain are very intelligent. It is only that they are poor otherwise they would also go. But these are the people who make our commerce and industry tick. But the question is, these people, in mind, have migrated.

It was also mentioned by another participant, in a thoughtful manner that,

You feel that migration in the lecture room because of the quality of students you have. You are left with those who come from a poor background, those who have got low points. In a class there isn't that normal distribution of the extreme who are almost your level or even better than you! Everybody is in the mediocre and from such a student it is very difficult to make a super one. What we lose is a good crop. That is why some schools and individual

students write both Cambridge and ZIMSEC examinations, just to remain safe. Their stress and focus is on Cambridge examinations and the parent, who pays the fees, right from the beginning, determines the standard and study destination of the child.

Only one participant had a different opinion, namely that,

I do not think student migration has an effect on higher education. Students go out. Parents pay the fees and some of the students do not want to come back. The government allows them to go.

5.6.2.2(f) Discussion

What the lecturers said was from the teaching point of view. However, in many areas the lecturers complemented what the administrators noticed about the effects of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwean universities. For example, the issue of funds paid to South Africa in the form of fees was emphasised by one of the lecturers. That money would develop foreign institutions. The information from the two sides showed that the administrators and the lecturers were affected by the problems in higher education in the same manner.

The participants were of the opinion that the complex effect of student migration was, to some extent, psychological, namely that students in Zimbabwe's high schools were not certain whether they would find employment after graduating at the local universities. Students emulated their counterparts who could afford to migrate for higher education. Students, who were the future workforce for the country, were uncertain about employment after they graduated at university. Lack of employment for the students would not help the economy of the country since the students could not use the knowledge they acquired in higher education.

The participants mentioned that it was not obvious that student migration had impacted negatively on the students who remained in Zimbabwe's universities. Lectures said that student migration brought about a divide, namely on the one side those students who migrated and the other side the students who stayed in

Zimbabwe. The participants were of the opinion that the group of students who remained at the local universities and those who migrated would have encouraged a greater extent of competition among students if the latter had stayed. The participants considered competition to be good for producing high-quality results.

Student migration was believed to affect the expansion of higher education in that the study courses remained limited. Consequently, it was the government's responsibility to build a higher education system that attracted international students as well keeping their own first-class students at the same time.

Still, also the lecturers had their own personal opinions about the situation. While some lecturers appeared concerned about the direction the country's higher education had taken, others seemed to have given up hope and looked as if they had accepted the situation as it was. The submissive lecturers gave the impression that as long as there were students for them to teach it was acceptable.

Submissiveness was apparent in the following statement by one of the participants namely that,

> *Students go out. Parents pay the fees and some of the students do not want to come back. The government allows them to go.*

The economic situation in the country may have driven people to losing hope. Therefore, there was an even greater need to rebuild trust in the country's higher education.

5.6.2.3 The effects of student migration on the economy of the country

Higher education is associated with preparing individuals appropriately for future employment, hence the critical part played in the economy of a country. The participants expressed their views on the relationship between student migration and the economy in Zimbabwe.

5.6.2.3(a) Completing studies outside Zimbabwe and finding employment at home

The general response was that the majority of those who studied outside of the country were unlikely to find employment upon returning, saying that student migration did not help changing the dire economic situation.

One participant said,

> *I am told that the unemployment rate in this country is over 90%, but when I did a survey I found out that the rate is 97%. So chances are very low that they will get jobs.*

Another participant paused a statement (with a sad laugh) that,

> *Even our own graduates here are struggling.*

It was also said that,

> *Students may get employment depending on who is interested in what they have studied. But their remuneration is likely to be lower than what they would receive if they were to work outside the country. Some programmes do not apply in our situation, such as aircraft engineering or robotics. So, such people can't be expected to find jobs here. So we cannot say something is being contributed to the economy.*

5.6.2.3(b) Discussion

The participants indicated the seriousness of the economic situation in the country. One of the lecturers sounded resigned and hopeless. Thus, what the lecturers said created the opinion that the students' situation was hopeless as was the universities' plight as was part of the economic system. There appeared to be no plan with what came out of the universities because the graduates, in any case, did not get employment. The participants said that the over 90% unemployment rate spelt disaster. This gave the students more reason for migration if they were to find

employment after acquiring their degrees. The participants were of the opinion that the purpose of higher education seemed not to be respected if students found themselves unemployed after graduation. As a result, the economy loses on not utilizing the university graduates.

On the one hand the money invested into education of the university students was not all ploughed back into the economy. On the other hand, a bigger problem was the creation of an emerging group which formed part of a generation of educated but unemployed youths. The situation called for serious commitment for change in the economy if students, including those who studied outside the country were to benefit the country.

5.6.2.3(c) Student migration as loss of manpower

On whether student migration was a loss of potential manpower, half (i.e., four) of the participants believed that it was.

One of them said that,

> *If they do not come back then who is left over for our country? If our young generation is out there developing other countries then it means we have a gap there. Then how do we develop when brains are out there?*

On the other hand, four participants were of the opinion that student migration was not a loss of potential manpower. One of expressed the view that,

> *I consider student migration to be empowering the people to earn a living. If we say it is a loss, and already there is a 97% unemployment rate, if they were to come back the chances for them to get jobs are very slim.*

5.6.2.3(d) Discussion

The lecturers considered the students to be valuable to boosting the economy if they were utilised by being employed. One of the participants indicated that student

migration was empowerment of the students. The fact that they are going out to learn in South Africa gave them a higher education and they had a chance of being employed. It was said that their not coming back to Zimbabwe is a loss of potential manpower. As a result there is need of boosting the economy in order to utilise the empowered students. Thereby the country can benefit from the international outlook they would have acquired.

5.6.2.3(e) Student migration as 'brain drain'

The general point of the view was that student migration and 'brain drain' were synonymous. It was believed that student migration was parallel to 'brain drain', as indicated below, namely

> *Because if those brains do not come back home it is a loss. Instead of planting them here at home we lose them out there. There is no lucrative life here so they would rather have their better lives out there.*

Another point of view was that,

> *Those students who are sent to Group 'A' schools write the Cambridge examination and that is where the brain drain starts. So, from the onset the top class is always out. We are left with the mediocre and those who are very bright but disadvantaged.*

5.6.2.3(f) Discussion

The lecturers were of the opinion that 'brains' could already be 'drained' as early as the stage of studentship when students left Zimbabwe and did not come back to work into the country after graduation. This view was close to how countries like China, as discussed in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.3.2), work to replace its aging workforce. This is similar to losing its young and upcoming potential manpower through student migration. The participants added that there existed a need to create a rewarding life through employment locally if 'brains' were not to be lost to other countries. The

current situation of the struggling economy gave students a reason to start preparing for migration while still in high school by looking for international study destinations. The kind of student migration where students did not come back to work in the country did not help the economy of Zimbabwe as was pointed out above (cf. 5.6.3(e)) that,

> *We are left with the mediocre and those who are very bright but disadvantaged.*

Similarly, an administrator (cf. 5.5.3.10(g)) observed that,

> *So those who could not do anything about the situation are the one who remain and they run the economy. They may have limited exposure. The economy follows their abilities. So, we do not get the type of people who experiment and act. They go with student migration.*

Considering what the lecturers said, efforts should be made to retain students, bearing in mind that they are the future workforce that needs to run the economy of the country.

5.6.2.3(g) Precise effects of student migration on the economy

One view was that,

> *The Zimbabwean economy does no benefit from student migration, not at all. What seems to be a benefit does not improve the economy. Student migration is removing stress on the side of some students but creating further pressure on the already stressed local situation.*

> *The other side is that those who go out are swallowed up there. After being educated for 13 years in Zimbabwe, they go out and just after 3 years they get everything. What they get is individual benefit and also South Africa's benefit. There is no benefit for us as a nation.*

Another perspective was that,

To a larger extent we are not benefiting from student migration. The unfortunate part of it is that Zimbabwe has a lot of educated people, but out there it now reflects as if the country has the least educated ones. Most of our universities do not have doctors and professors, but our doctors and professors are out in other countries, something which does not help the country at all. Students go out, qualify and never come back.

Yet another perspective was that,

Right now we do not benefit anything. If the economy was vibrant perhaps we could benefit in our industry from the knowledge of those who study outside. Our industry is down and only the government is the major employer.

5.6.2.3(h) Discussion

The participants were of the opinion that student migration does not benefit the country. They said that while Zimbabwe boasted high percentages of highly educated citizens, most of them were currently out of the country, not serving in the country. An example was given of many academics working at universities outside the country. The country thus lost out as it also did not support the local students either.

Currently Zimbabwe is said to be in dire need of the resuscitation of the economy. Reducing stress through student migration was not helping the economy.

All the participants' contributions revolved around the need to revive the economy if the students who had migrated for higher education were to work in the country. It was therefore said that the government's serious and committed intervention could save the situation.

5.6.2.4 Suggested changes required for higher education in Zimbabwe

The general agreement was that there was a need for action if the situation was to change in higher education. All eight participants agreed that the problems in Zimbabwe's higher education were caused by the poor state of the economy. They held the opinion that if the economy improved for the better, higher education would be on the right course again. However, two participants pointed out that ZIMCHE had started making efforts in improving the standards in higher education. ZIMCHE was visiting institutions of higher learning and holding workshops to discuss how best the standards could be improved. Attempts were being made to call back the professors and doctors back home. Although ZIMCHE's efforts were to be commended, the lectures strongly believed that the state of the economy had to improve first.

5.6.2.4(a) Action to be taken

On what action was to be taken, one participant pointed out that,

> *There was a need to (i) retain our intellectuals within our nation. (ii) Graduates needed to get or set up jobs in a flourishing economy. This observation seemed to be slowly escalating. (iii) Various sectors have to come together to ensure that the country attract our students to stay at home. This would help the economy a great deal. (iv) The government was providing grants though this assistance was only benefiting a few students. This support should be extended to many more students. That would help more students to access higher education, and in turn it would help our economy. At the same time the country would lose fewer students through migration into South Africa.*

Another participant had this to contribute,

> *The only way to face student migration is through addressing the problems in the country, at least starting by small sectors. The salaries of lecturers need to be increased. That in turn will attract educated lecturers to come back to our*

higher education. University facilities and resources need to be improved as well. But it all boils down to the economy of our country.

5.6.2.4(b) Discussion

Judging from the contributions of the lecturers, the suggestion was that the Zimbabwean government had to set right the economy first and foremost. With the economy in place, universities would have the funds to support the lecturers' initiatives. There would be money for bursaries, scholarships and for resources. There would also be funds for research and development. The participants believed that a working economy was the solution to the challenges leading to student migration. They suggested that the economic status of the country ought to receive attention.

5.6.2.4(c) Planning for student migration

One contributor said that the prevailing efforts did not curb student migration and that*,*

> *There should be created conducive environment which regulates student migration. This does not necessarily imply that student migration is bad. But given the resources, students can do the first degree at home and then migrate for post-graduate programmes.*

It was also necessary to have plans in place concerning student migration. The participants said that Zimbabwe needed to learn from other countries, where the students went to study elsewhere and then came back and to use the knowledge they gained to the benefit of the country. No statistics were available on student migration because the process was considered to be an individual enterprise. The need existed to properly plan for the process of migration, and to have a record of the numbers of the students who had left the country in order to be of benefit to the state. No policies in respect of student migration were available.

One respondent said,

> *Here we do not know our students who are out. It is the parents who decide where to send their children. Yes, the same thing happens in other countries, but there are students who go out on government sponsorship then they can come back and work for the government before they can go and work elsewhere.*

Another conviction was that,

> *If required programmes are not available in our universities but are required in the country, the government should pay students to go and study them outside. Then the students can come back and serve in the country for some time. If such an approach causes problems then such programmes should be introduced in our state universities.*

5.6.2.4 (d) Discussion

The participants indicated that student migration should not be regulated, as that would interfere with the people's right of movement. They said that student migration would regulate itself. They also added that if the economic situation was more conducive to studying in the home country, there would not be the kind of exodus seen today, especially to South Africa. In this respect student migration could be considered as manpower training where the students were funded to study outside the country, and come back and serve their country. Studying in South Africa would be fulfilling the agreement of the Protocol (cf. 1.2). Thus, there needs to be a working plan for student migration, but with the economy in place first.

 As things were then there did not seem to be any interest in planning for student migration, as it was considered as getting rid of a problem, namely the shortage of vacancies at universities, and the unavailability of employment opportunities.

Another suggestion that was made in regards to student migration was the same as suggested by other groups of respondents namely that Zimbabwe had to increase

the number of its university courses and offer a wider variety of programmes. The courses that are offered at university ought to lead to opportunities in industry. This would attract the students to the local universities and prepare them to work in their own countries.

5.6.2.4(e) Changes in higher education in the near future

The general consensus was that changes in higher education in the near future were not possible.

One participant said that,

> *Change calls for a holistic approach, starting from the economy, the politics-everything needs to change. We need to change our mind-set. We need to create opportunities, and then we can handle the needs in higher education.*

Another one said,

> *Currently, I do not see any changes in higher education as long as there is no qualified personnel to train the locals.*

5.6.2.4 (f) Discussion

The lecturers thought that higher education in Zimbabwe was affected by several factors, from politics, to the economy, to the running of the institutions. All that made the situation a complicated task. They supposed that stakeholders in higher education were aware of the problem, but would require opportunities and resources to try and rectify the problem of the failing economy of the country.

In Chapter 2 (cf. 2.9) the researcher discussed how the government could motivate student migration, with the proviso that the students return to their home countries to work after graduation. The participants said that Zimbabwean students seemed to be migrating because they are demotivated to stay in their home countries. That was

possibly the reason why the participants saw no chance of change in higher education in the near future.

On the other hand, the participants were of opinion that the government did make an effort of boosting higher education. As indicated in chapter 3 (cf. 3.17), at this stage there were more state-funded universities than at independence. However, these universities were not so economically viable that it would bring about a change in higher education.

The setting-up of ZIMCHE in the 2000s was an aim by the government to deal with quality requirements in higher education. The participants reported that ZIMCHE was making an effort to revive the standards at the universities. ZIMCHE had good intentions but it remained to be seen how successful it would be, given the fact that the situation in higher education had been ignored for such a long time.

The participants indicated that despite the economic hardships, it is a well-known fact that the higher education of the country needed attention. With so many challenges, it called for an even greater commitment on the part of the government to try and restore the situation to its former glory.

5.7 STUDENTS STUDYING IN SOUTH AFRICA - PROSPECTS

By means of the information given by the students on why they sought higher education out of their country the researcher attempted to achieve the first aim of the study. The participants articulated that the challenges, from their point of view, were 'push' factors contributing to their migration. The reasons they gave caused them to fit into the general international student group who migrated for higher education. Among the reasons was the influence of globalization which had made people aware of the possibilities in higher education elsewhere.

Locally the students' unmet expectation in regards to higher education drove them to South Africa. The students needed funding, which they were not quite aware of whether existed in Zimbabwe. They valued qualifications, and wanted to be recognised internationally. To them studying in South Africa was just like taking an

educational safety precaution which assured them of employment internationally. Their argument was that South African universities were ranked higher globally and therefore their qualifications would be recognised better. The comparison was in regards to the understanding of the current state of higher education in Zimbabwe which was definitely not acclaimed locally.

The students who had chosen South African universities for a study destination believed that they had made the right decision. The students liked how South Africa's higher education was structured and they enjoyed studying in a peaceful and supportive environment with sufficient resources. The students believed that the supporting structures they experienced in South Africa could not be found at home.

The students believed though they loved their country and would love to be at home, they still had a life ahead of them. The current economic state of the country seemed not to support their dreams. If the situation changed, perhaps it would support the provision of higher education at home.

5.8 PARENTS WITH CHILDREN IN SOUTH AFRICA - WISHES

The parents who participated in this research happened to value higher education. It was because they were either professionals or had studied outside the country. Their choice of South Africa was because of its proximity to home. The parents had also witnessed a change in higher education at home, so they either agreed with their children's choice to migrate to South Africa or they suggested it themselves. This was because they were unhappy with what they saw as deterioration in higher education at home.

The lack of funding and the limitation in respect of study courses were reasons enough to send their children to South Africa where there was the possibility of support. In addition to the above, some of the parents' children were disadvantaged by the double standards in the enrolment system. For that reason the parents had less faith in the county's higher education.

The parents wished that their children would get employment after graduating. Yet, the state of the economy seemed to betray them. While the sending-away of their children was likely to disadvantage the country and have an effect on the delivery of higher education, the parents had to consider the future of their children first. They would rather invest in South African higher education through the paying of fees in the hope that the child would get employment in the country. They also argued that if the future of higher education was so uncertain, then migration was the only alternative.

5.9 LECTURERS AND ADMINISTRATORS - RECOMMENDATIONS

The administrators' and the lecturers' opinions were based on the view that they worked in the higher education institutions. Their explanations were based on first-hand experience of how universities were governed. The two groups admitted that by migrating, Zimbabwean students, like any other international students were responding to the influence of globalization. They pointed out that reasons for mobility differed in the different countries.

The administrators wished for fairness in the enrolment of students, basing their view on witnessing the double standards that disadvantaged some deserving students. They also questioned why the examinations papers leak out, and wished for fairness in terms of the registration of students.

On the other hand, lecturer's added by wishing for resources for those affected by the resulting limited learning process due to a lack of facilities. The classrooms were overcrowded, which strained the insufficient resources and the lecturer as well. A critical need existed to attend to this problem.

The lecturers and the administrators believed that South Africa was close to Zimbabwe, and the nearness was convenient for student migration. Students found it less expensive if they migrated to South Africa for higher education. The lecturers wished that the students they taught could find jobs in Zimbabwe after graduation. They wished that students, who were mentally prepared for study, would not be

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forced by circumstances to go and study elsewhere. The administrators acclaimed South Africa's reputable universities. They wished that the students could be given a chance to apply the skills and expertise developed in South Africa, in Zimbabwe.

The administrators suggested a change from the traditional way of running universities. The addition of new study courses would bring new development to the universities. Similar to this view was the lecturers' indication that progress was required in higher education. However, there seemed to be loopholes in the registration process which required rectification.

The value of higher education was stressed. The administrators suggested not 'good riddance" of students with low points, but that Zimbabwe should take care of as many as possible of the high school graduates. In addition to this, those students who study outside the country should be absorbed into the system through employment if the country is to benefit from student migration. Zimbabwe should respect the purpose of higher education instead of creating a generation of educated but unemployed youths.

Both the lecturers and the administrators were of the opinion that there existed a need to make Zimbabwean higher education lucrative enough to attract back those who had migrated. Their remaining to work in the host country was regarded as a loss of skills which the country needed so much.

The question of funding in higher education was indicated as the major reason driving students out of the country for higher education. The hope was that with an economic turnaround most of the problems in higher education would be addressed.

5.10 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The   aims of this study (cf. 1.4) led to an investigation of the effects of student migration higher education in Zimbabwe. The analysis of the data was done in order to come up with recommendations for future policy guidelines for the development of the higher education of the country (cf. 1.4.2).   In this chapter the researcher

discussed at length the effects of student migration to South African universities on the higher education system of Zimbabwe.

The researcher attempted to present what was indicated by the sampled-Zimbabwean students in South African universities, parents at Zimbabwe who had sent their children to study in South African universities and lecturers and administrators working at Zimbabwean universities. The four targeted groups of participants gave their accounts. Narratives, descriptions and discussions were employed as channels to present the views of the participants. The methodologies and the procedures followed in the research brought out the views of the participants.

The participants' general perspective was that the process of migration by Zimbabwean students was similar to international trends. They believed that globalization affected Zimbabwean students in the same way as it influenced other students internationally. The discussion linked the above view to what was mentioned in Chapter 2 where student migration from an international perspective was discussed. The participants said that in migrating the students of Zimbabwe were doing what all the other international students were doing. They were responding to globalization by migrating for higher education.

The participants also gave *specific* reasons why Zimbabwean students were migrating to South Africa.

While the details varied, the specific reasons that contributed to student migration which were presented by the four groups of participants could be summarized as follows:

(i) The general deterioration of higher education in Zimbabwe.

(ii) The lack of funding for students and institutions.

(iii) The shortage of resources at the universities.

(iv) Irregularities in the student enrolment process.

(v) Unfavourable learning conditions.

(vi) The poor state of the country's economy.

(vii) The need for internationally recognized qualifications.

The participants described the effect of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe, mainly with regard to two major areas, namely and covered a wide outlook of spheres and concerns.

(i) The impact of student migration on higher education in the country; and

(ii) The effect of student migration on the economy of Zimbabwe.

What follows now is a summary of the participants' responses on how student migration impacted on higher education:

(i) *A disparity of the student population.* If most of the students were to study at Zimbabwe's universities without many of them opting to migrate, interaction and competition among them would be more rigorous with obvious higher levels of more enthusiasm with regard to higher education (cf. 5.4.5.1).

(ii) *Limited number of graduates.* A limited number of students managed to gain admission at the universities while many were left out though they deserved to be enrolled. Full lecture halls did not imply that the university produced the required number of graduates needed in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.4.5.1).

(iii) *Loss of trust.* Many students were migrating because of a loss of trust in the local higher education situation (cf. 5.4.5.2).

(iv) *Creating inequality among the students.* The students with low 'A' Level points but whose parents could afford to pay for their studies went ahead with higher education. Those who could not afford had nowhere to get loans and scholarships. Poor students could not receive higher education (cf. 5.6.2.2(a) and (c).

(v) *The loss of the brightest and the best students.* Many of the students who migrated could have improved the quality of the university graduates (cf. 5.5.3.3(e).

(vi) *Lack of development.* Student migration did not support the growth of both individual institutions and higher education in general. It was necessary that the country established ways of benefiting from student migration (cf. 5.6.2.2e).

(vii) *Loss of funds.* The fees paid at South African universities do not help upgrade Zimbabwean higher education. Instead, they are used to develop South African higher education (cf. 5.6.2.2(e)). Zimbabwe had to find ways of gaining from the students who study out of the country.

(viii) *'Brain drain'.* Students left the country to study and they stayed to work in the host country after graduation (cf. 5.6.2.2(e)).

(ix) *Functioning of some departments.* Some departments did not function at full capacity. Other departments closed (cf. 5.6 2.2(e)).

(x) *Production of post-graduates.* The low number of post-graduates from Zimbabwe's universities indicates that not much research is being carried out in those universities thus contributing to the low ranking of universities (cf. 5.6.2.2(e)).

(xi) *Psychological consequences.* There are students who would have migrated, but they could not afford to do so. These students studied in local universities, but with the hope of finding their way out of the country (cf. 5.6.2.2(e)).

(xii) *A lack of challenges in the lecture halls.* There are instances during teaching when the lecturer missed teaching the bright students because they have migrated. There were classes with the average students only because brightest students usually migrate. By writing Cambridge examinations at 'O' and 'A' Levels, students prepared themselves for migration for higher education (cf. 5.6.2.2(e)).

The participants had the following observations on how student migration to South African universities affected the economy of Zimbabwe, namely

(i) *The cash crisis.* The parents' hard-earned cash was passed on to South Africa. The money could have benefitted the local universities and the country (cf. 5.4.6.1).

(ii) *Loss of potential manpower.* The loss may not be felt now (2013) but the country will feel it eventually in future because many of those who migrated did not return (cf. 5.3.6, 5.5.3 & 5.6.2.3(c)).

(iii) *Loss of gain.* Both resources and potential manpower were being lost to South Africa at a time when more companies were closing in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.3.6 and 5.4.6.2).

(iv) *Creation of strife among graduates.* There are very few jobs in the country, if any. Those who studied at home may feel that it is their right to be employed first, as compared to those 'who ran away' for higher education (cf. 5.4.6.2).

(v) *Loss of international experience.* Those who study in other countries have the potential of being employed in the host country. The country loses the educational inspiration which comes with international experience (cf. 5.5.3.3(b) and 5.6.2.3).

The following is a summary of the participants' suggestions for the resuscitation of higher education.

(i) *The need to invest in higher education.* The government needs to prioritize higher education and invest in it by adequately funding universities (cf. 5.3.7).

(ii) *The necessity to improve the economy.* If the economy was to be restored again for higher education to improve as well (cf. 5.4.7.1).

(iii) *Funding.* With adequate financial resources institutions would grow and be able to accommodate students comfortably in regards to paying fees and having adequate resources. Students would look forward to higher education in their own country (cf. 5.5.3.4; 5.6.2.4a).

(iv) *Enrolment system.* The registration system of universities needed well-defined policy principles and distinct measures so that no students would be disadvantaged unnecessary (cf. 5.5.3.4).

(v) *Reliable standards.* There existed a need for maintaining set standards, so that people could rely on a set of criteria in the enrolment of students. (cf. 5.5.3.4).

(vi) *Teaching.* It was necessary to retain local and international intellectuals in the universities by paying them attractive salaries. Universities would be managed with enough teaching staff (cf. 5.6.24(a)).

(vii) *Employment.* It was essential for universities and industries to work together so that graduates could find jobs in industry upon leaving university (cf. 5.6.2.4(a)).

(viii) *Access to study environment.* There was a need for the creation of a conducive study environment in Zimbabwe so that some of the students who would have migrated would come back home to work. It was essential to identify and keeping a record of students who had gone out of the country to study and returned to work in the country. The government sponsor students to study courses that are not available at the local universities but are required in the country so that those students return skilled in the required fields (cf. 5.6.2.4).

(ix) *A holistic approach.* There was the necessity for a holistic approach to higher education if the current situation was to change in order for student migration to benefit the country (cf. 5.6.2.4 (e)). In addition to the political will, multiple societal sectors should contribute and their expertise and efforts utilized to turn the economy and the higher education situation around.

In the following chapter, the researcher summarized the general causes of student migration, and also summed up why Zimbabwean students chose South African higher education institutions for their studies. The effects of student migration on both higher education and the economy of Zimbabwe were summarised.

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Recommendations were made for future policymaking in respect of higher education and the development of the country.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSES, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

In the background to this study it was pointed out that student migration was a worldwide phenomenon (cf. 1.2). This reality means that Zimbabwe is experiencing what any other country experiences, namely to be part of the global movement of students in the era of globalisation.

The researcher was once a teacher in Zimbabwe where she witnessed students migrating, and even participated in preparing them to migrate for the purposes of higher education, by helping with the private tuition of those students who were following the CSC syllabus (cf. 1.3.1). As the study has shown, the majority of the students who received assistance went to South Africa for higher education. In Chapter 5, this study heard the voices of Zimbabwean students studying in South Africa, the parents who sent their children to study elsewhere, the administrators and the lecturers at Zimbabwean universities articulating their experiences with regards to student migration. The student participants gave their views, explaining why they migrated, while the parents explained why they supported their children with the migration process (cf. Chapter 5).

The study of the literature revealed that student migration for the sake of university education was an old phenomenon in Zimbabwe, and the current study has shown that the experience was now on the increase (cf. 3.13.1). Yet, the trend does not seem to be openly discussed in the country. The researcher could not find any publications addressing Zimbabwean student migration to South Africa. There also does not seem to be any research work done on the effect of student migration on higher education of the country. No literature was found on how the economy was, affected by the migration off students. All the participants indicated that higher education and the economy of Zimbabwe were affected by this process.

In this chapter the researcher presents a summary of the investigation, an analysis of the findings, limitations of the study, conclusions and some recommendations based on the findings of the research on how student migration impacts on higher education in Zimbabwe.

The chapter is presented in 7 sections which are:

(i)   A summary of the aims, the research methods and the literature review as part of this study.

(ii)   An outline of the findings based on theory.

(iii)   Challenges in Zimbabwean higher education.

(iv)   The concluding analysis of the findings.

(v)   Recommendations for future policies in the development of the higher education of the country.

(vi)   Recommendations for future research.

(vii)   The final conclusion of the study.

The major objectives of this research have been:

- to determine the general and local factors contributing to the migration of students to foreign universities;

- to ascertain what, in general, is driving students to South African higher education institutions;

- to explore the impact of migration on the education system and the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe;

- to develop guidelines for how student migration may be incorporated in the development of higher education.

The nature of the study, which called for detailed descriptive information and not numerical information, regarding why students ended up leaving Zimbabwe for South Africa to acquire higher education, successfully addressed the above objectives. The findings of the study showed how student migration to South African universities

impacted on the higher education system in Zimbabwe and also on the economy of the country.

The following section presents a summary of the study aim, and the research methods which were employed in the study.

6.2 AIM OF THE STUDY

The problem investigated had to do with the fact that a notable number of Zimbabwean students were migrating to South Africa for higher education. It was observed that, despite the provision of more institutions of higher learning in the country, the students were still leaving for university education in other countries. These students had the support of schools and teachers who prepared them academically, and the parents who bore the costs of very expensive fees (cf. 1.3). The data gained from the students and the parents confirmed the observation that had been made about the extent of student migration (cf. 1.3.1).

Thus, the main research aim was to establish the effects of this process to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 1.4.1). The study was done with the hope of coming up with recommendations that would be of assistance in policymaking in terms of higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 1.4.1). The study succeeded in establishing this aim of the research.

The main findings of the study were determined through the sub-aims of the research (cf. 1.4.2). The first sub-aim was to establish the general and local factors that were contributing to the migration of students to foreign universities. What the participants said validated the reasons for migration presented in the literature review (cf. 2.6.2 & 3.6.3.2).

The second sub-aim, as indicated above, was to ascertain, what, in general, was driving students to South African higher education institutions. The students explained why they left to South Africa for higher education (cf. 5.3.3.1). Also, the parents gave their reasons why they chose to send their children to South Africa instead of to the local Zimbabwean universities (cf. 5.4.3). The administrators who

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participated in the study also made their contribution (cf. 5.5.3.3), and lecturers who were asked added on to why the students chose South Africa as a study destination (cf. 5.6.2.1). The participants' responses explained the reasons for migration. Especially for the parents, it was to create a better future for their children and therefore they were prepared to find extra help with the preparation for the CSC syllabus (cf. 1.1).

6.3 RESEARCH METHODS

The establishment of the research aim was possible through the empirical investigation employed in the study (cf. 1.5.2). The study systemically employed a qualitative research design for data-collection through the non-experimental descriptive research design (cf. 4.2.2). The data were collected through the informal conversation interview, the interview-guide approach and cell-phone interviews (cf.4.6.2.3). The method selected for the collection of the data was relevant to reach the non-numerical findings required for the research. One of the methods employed in the study was grounded theory (cf. 4.3.1).

6.3.1 Grounded theory

As is the nature of grounded theory, the study constantly drew comparisons between what the students thought about higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.3), the views of the parents on the same subject (cf. 5.4), the arguments of the administrators in regards to why students came to South Africa for higher education (cf. 5.5) and the thoughts of the lecturers on the topic under study (cf. 5.6). Through grounded theory the researcher was able to say why students generally migrated, and what the local factors were that contributed to the migration of the students (cf. 3.6.3), and also why the Zimbabwean students migrated to South Africa (cf. 5.3.3.1, 5.4.4.1, 5.5.3.3 & 5.6.2.1).

The grounded theory approach is open to many methods of data-collection, hence the recorded interviews and also the recorded cell-phone interview method of

collecting data (cf. 1.5.2). Typical of grounded theory, the data were analysed during the collection process and also after the collection.

6.3.2 Narrative inquiry

Student migration, which is a social issue, as stated as part of the information on grounded theory (cf. 4.3.1), called for the narrative-inquiry method of data-collection (cf. 4.3.1.2). Through the above inquiry-method the students shared their experiences (cf. 5.3), the parents communicated their feelings (cf. 5.4), the administrators imparted what they came across (cf. 5.5), while the lecturers also had experiences in respect of student migration (cf. 5.6). In other words, student migration was understood through collaboration between the researcher and the participants. The participants narrated the story which the researcher reviewed by means of a narrative analysis (cf. 4.9.3.1). The interaction with the participants resulted in an understanding that student migration was a fundamental social issue that necessitated action if it was to benefit the country.

6.3.3 Interim analysis

The data in this research were collected from four different groups of participants, i.e., from the students (cf. 5.3), the parents (cf. 5.4), the administrators (cf. 5.5) and the lecturers (cf. 5.6). The data were analysed after each interview. The researcher then analysed the data collected from each group before moving on to the next group. This interim analysis of the data helped in two ways, namely (i) the data were not accumulated, which could have resulted in confusion; (ii) the data-collection period was quite long - five months - and the research was carried out in two countries, namely South Africa and Zimbabwe. This approach helped the researcher not to forget important issues, and to answer the sub-aims of the study by establishing why the students migrated to South Africa (cf. 1.4.2). The analysis also helped in establishing the effects of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe and on the economy of the country.

6.3.4 Interpretive epistemology

The analyses, which followed the participants' perspective, and which were in this study presented as 'discussion', followed the interaction between the participants and the researcher. It was through these analytic discussions, which were based on what the participants said that the effects of Zimbabwean students' migration to South African universities were established (cf. 1.4.1). The decisions were arrived at as a result of the understanding of the students, the parents, the administrators and the lecturers who experienced student migration, hence the interpretive epistemology approach.

6.3.5 Ethical considerations in the study

As explained in section 4.4, this research was guided by the requirements in terms of ethical research. The researcher followed the necessary guideposts to ethics (cf. 4.4) and also obtained the required ethical clearance for all research operations.

6.3.6 Population and sampling

The population of the study included participants from selected South African and Zimbabwean universities. The sample was made up of (i) students who have migrated from Zimbabwe to South African universities for higher education, (ii) the parents who assisted them in the migration process, (iii) the administrators who saw how Zimbabwean universities contributed to, and at the same time were affected by student migration, and (iv) the lecturers who directly experienced student migration in the lecture halls. The sample of eight students (cf. 5.3), six parents (cf. 5.4), four administrators (cf. 5.5), and nine lecturers (cf. 5.6) was large enough to make the results valid and reliable (cf. 4.7). The participants were identified by means of the snowball sampling technique (cf. 4.9.1.2), which was random purposive sampling (cf. 4.9.1.3). The method came up with a fair enough representation that answered the research questions (cf. 1.4.1).

The researcher presented the experiences encountered during the research (cf. 4.10) and also the post-research considerations (cf. 4.11). These two sections provided a further reflection on how student migration to South African universities impacted on higher education in Zimbabwe.

6.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The literature review in this study was done in two parts, namely Chapters 2 and 3. In Chapter 2 the historical background of international student migration was presented (cf. 2.3.1). The researcher discussed the changes (cf. 2.3.2) and the trends (cf. 2.3.3) that have taken place in international student migration. Also, the trends in student migration in the three major and most popular international destinations for higher education were presented. The destinations discussed were the United States of America (cf. 2.4.1), the United Kingdom (cf. 2.4.2) and Australia (cf. 2.4.3). In Chapter 2 the researcher also discussed the emerging student migration destinations (cf. 2.4.4). The section considered student migration in the emerging hubs, for example Asia (cf. 2.4.4.1), with destinations like Singapore (cf. 2.4.4.5), Japan (cf. 2.4.4.6), Malaysia (cf. 2.4.4.7), and China (cf. 2.4.4.8). The researcher furthermore presented student migration in South Asia (cf. 2.4.4.10), which highlighted India (cf. 2.4.4.10(a)), Pakistan (cf. 2.4.4.10(b)), and Bangladesh (cf. 2.4.4.10(c)). In Chapter 2 were, finally, presented the student migration trends in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) (cf. 2.4.5). The impact of international student mobility (cf. 2.5) and general observations made in international student migration (cf. 2.6) laid the foundation for the discussion of Zimbabwean student migration to South African universities in terms of the motivations driving the demand and supply of higher education (cf. 2.6.1). The presentation of the factors that determined the students' choice of destination (cf. 2.6.1) was the basis whereby the aim of the study (cf. 1.4.1) was achieved.

Chapter 3 presented student migration from Africa's perspective, with the aim of establishing the effects of student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 1.4.1 & 1.4.2). In the same chapter, a historical perspective on higher education and student mobility in Africa (cf. 3.3) were first

presented. Africa's experience of colonialism still had a bearing on the continent's higher education (cf. 3.4). The trends in student migration in Africa (cf. 3.5) were found to have been those of the colonial heritage, rather than of the traditional African student migration that originated in North Africa. In other words, Africa's higher education heritage from colonialism was presented in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.6). The driving force behind student migration in Africa (cf. 3.6.3) was not similar to those forces presented in Chapter 2 (cf. 2.6.2). Zimbabwe, being an African country, shared most of the experiences with the other countries on the continent (cf. 3.6.3.2 & 3.13.4). Furthermore, the researcher also discussed higher education and student migration in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC). As part of the SADC Zimbabwe was bound to experience influences in the region which include the trends in student mobility (cf. 3.8).

In the various sections of Chapter 3 all the aspects of Zimbabwe's higher education were discussed, including the size (cf. 3.12.4) and challenges in university education (cf. 3.12.6), which included the impact of the economy on higher education (cf. 3.12.5). The trends in student migration in Zimbabwe (cf. 3.13) were traced, which included the 'push'-factors in the student migration process (cf. 3.13.3) and the 'pull'-reasons for choosing South Africa as a destination (cf. 3.13.4). The myths relating to studying in South Africa were discussed (cf. 3.15), before looking at the effects of student migration on the individuals and on higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 3.16). The researcher indicated some of the government's efforts in higher education (cf. 3.17) which could work as the basis for the government to improve on the higher education system (cf. 5.7, 5.8 & 5.9),and the discussion of the future of higher education in Zimbabwe. The literature reviews in Chapters 2 and 3 lay the foundations for the presentation and discussion of the findings with regards to the effects of student migration from Zimbabwe to South African universities as indicated in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4 comprised of the presentation of the research methodology on the effects of student migration from Zimbabwe to South African universities.

In Chapter 5 the researcher presented the findings as they were given by a sample of the students, parents, administrators and lecturers who participated in the research, using the methodologies discussed in Chapter 4.

6.5 THEORETICAL REINFORCEMENT

The findings of the study supported Wallerstein's (2011:15-17) World Systems Theory which divided the world into three layers, namely the core, the buffer and the periphery (cf. 2.7.2). As the Theory explains, the core layer constitutes the countries which are developed and have advanced technology which includes advanced higher education systems. The World Systems Theory confirmed the first sub-aim of the study on the general and local factors that contributed to the migration of students to foreign universities (cf. 1.4.2). The Theory and the findings of this research affirmed that students from Zimbabwe desire quality higher education and that they therefore migrate to the developed countries to acquire that education (cf. 5.3.3.1 & 5.6.2.1).

The findings further affirmed the World Systems Theory (cf. 2.7.2) in that Zimbabwean students migrate to South Africa because the country lies in the 'buffer layer', which is considered neither developed to the level of the countries in the core, nor as poor as the countries on the periphery. It was found that South Africa's higher education is more advanced in terms of resources than what was the case in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.3.3.1). Thus, Zimbabwean students and their parents found solace in South Africa because of its internationally-accepted higher education. While most of the students from Zimbabwe cannot make it to the U.S.A. and the U.K. (cf. 2.3.3.2 & 2.4.3.3), they go to universities in South Africa which are ranked higher than those in their own country (cf. 3.9.6.4). This view was supported by what the administrators and the lecturers' views who indicated that the students were looking for well-supported higher education (cf. 5.4.4.1). Thus, the World Systems Theory had an explanation, not only for the general reasons of the Zimbabwean students' migration, but for the reasons why they specifically chose South Africa.

The findings of this study likened higher education in Zimbabwe also to the World Polity Theory (cf. 2.7.3), namely that there seemed to be *right* people placed in influential positions to achieve what was wanted by those in high political positions, in whom they choose for enrolment and in the way they want. The participants were of the opinion that selected leadership practices in the country might represent what higher education in general should have been, but as one of the participants s stated,

> ...*personally I think that everything in Zimbabwe is a bit too politicised. For example in education it is no longer about educating people but about passing a certain effect on people...* (cf. 5.3.3.1(e)).

It was from attitudes as the one above that the researcher learned that there were undeserving students who got admitted to Zimbabwean universities just because they came through 'some offices' of political influence. One of the administrators said,

> *Some students are referred to a university through some 'influential' (political) offices and in such cases it is a directive. This is how some students are registered. In such cases the number of points does not count. This is what is actually happening. If someone deserving the place comes, there is no getting in because the place has been taken* (cf. 5.6.2.1(e)).

As a result, the students ended up migrating. The behaviour as indicated above was another possible answer to the questions of the first two sub-aims of this study, namely why Zimbabwean students migrated (cf. 1.4.2). The interference of some offices with power enough to influence registration, and which lead to corruption (cf. 3.6.3.1 & 5.5.3.6), has some history. This influence was already made clear at Independence when it was announced that,

> ...*higher education was too important a business to be left entirely to deans, professors, lecturers and university administrators* (cf. 3.12.3.2).

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As regards the above proclamation, the World Polity Theory explains that student mobility in Zimbabwe was unavoidable, partly because of the political decisions which were made (cf. 3.3.1). The situation was, as Lulat (2005:4) said, namely that,

> ...at the end of the day it is politics that determine what kind of plan will be implemented. It is not "experts" but politicians who decide what is best for society, for good or ill.

The management and focus of the institutions affected the students just as the politics in a country determine the country's stance. The participants indicated how many good students were disadvantaged by undeserving ones who were enrolled at the universities. Thus, those who could afford it ended up at South African universities which provide some answers on the questions related to, hence the first two sub-aims of the study (cf. 1.4.2).

In addition, the World Culture Theory also provide guidance in answering the questions emanating from the first two sub-aims of the study by highlighting how, in Zimbabwe, it was a culture that the parents have their children to advance to the 'A' Level examinations with the aim that they could go to university level. Many parents with very low literacy levels may not have been aware of the new developments in higher education and the shifts in employment trends, but they were familiar with a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree. Any higher education qualification, for some, is respected. The B.A. degree, one of the traditional qualifications, has been held high for a long time. For this reason they aim to educate their children so that the family, no matter what higher education qualification, may be respected as well. This belief goes back to what Kupe (no date) (cf. 3.8) stated, namely that,

> ...the largest 'religion' in Zimbabwe is education...

This is why those parents who can afford it and some of those whose children may have been disadvantaged by the interfering *hand* in higher education, end up sending their children to South African universities. This migration of students has become a culture on its own.

The above analysis is, to date, supported by the influence of specific demands on the job market, especially with the tendency of the growth in the world of science, technology and business (cf. 2.7.4). The findings also show that it has become a culture that, where the local universities cannot satisfy the students' demands, migration is the alternative (cf. 5.4.4.5). The findings also show that the tradition of student migration was growing stronger (cf. 5.3.3.1).

The findings further showed that the current state of higher education in Zimbabwe was closely linked to the status of the economy (cf. 5.3.3.1(c), 5.5.3.3(a) & 5.6.2.3(a)).

As a result, large international corporate organisations ranked Zimbabwe's higher education much lower than what it was at the country's independence in 1980 (cf. 2.7.5). The decision to rank universities high or low seems to contradict the characteristics of free-markets, hence the Neo-liberal Theory (cf. 2.7.5). At the same time, the result confirms the fact that the concept of the free-market system is a human-contrived philosophy (cf. 2.7.5). From the participants' point of view this human decision to rank universities encouraged student migration in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.3.3.1(g) & 5.6). The parents and the students said they looked for higher education that had economic benefits (cf. 5.3.2.1(a) & 5.4.3 (i) *1st parent*). The benefits were manifested in employment opportunities (cf. *iv* Student and 5.5.3.3(a)). The collapse of the Zimbabwean economy and the ranking of Zimbabwean higher education limited access for some people and privileged others (cf. 5.5.3.4). The students whose parents could afford to pay the international fees were driven to South Africa for higher education (cf. 5.3.5). In other words, the Neo-liberalism Theory endorses the findings related to student migration in Zimbabwe, in the sense that the students' destinations were universities which offered the type of knowledge that would later enable them to be employed in profit-generating jobs (cf. 5.4.3(i)). The choice of a study destination came as a result of the role of the state universities which had to go by the decisions of the controlling organizations, and these, again, were based in the developed countries (cf. 2.3.3.1).

Furthermore, the findings confirm the myth that South Africa's higher education was easier than that of Zimbabwe (cf. 3.15). Two student participants said that higher

education in Zimbabwe was harder than in South Africa (cf. 5.3.3.1(a)). One of these participants based the comparison on the experience of the Business Management module in the first year at a South African university. The module was said to be just the same as the Management of Business done at "A" Level in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.3.3.1(a)). With such information relayed back home, those students aspiring to migrate would always carry this belief, belief which could lead, for some students, to the continuation of the migration process.

The results of this research reinforced the belief among some of the Zimbabwean students (cf. 3.15) that all the South African universities would accept anyone for a relevant study course regardless of the number of points obtained at "A" Level (cf. 5.3.5). A parent participant pointed out that a specific family sent their child to South Africa for higher education because the child had attained low points at "A" Level in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.4.4). This was confirmed by a lecturer also who stated that South Africa accepted Zimbabwean students with low points at "A" Level (cf. 5.6.2.2(a)). However, the researcher found that South African universities had different ways of determining the enrolment of international students. In the case of UNISA, an applicant had to submit both copies of the "O" Level and "A" Level certificates. Where the "A" Level certificates may not be out in time for registration, as is often the case with ZIMSEC examinations, the results had to be couriered directly from ZIMSEC and *NOT* from the student. These two sets of results were used to determine whether the student qualified for the course being applied for. The South African higher education institutions had standards which were different from those in Zimbabwe. South Africa's way of enrolling students seemed to support the view that low points do not imply that the student is not good enough for higher education. Yet, without such knowledge, the belief that South African universities enrolled students with low points would continue in Zimbabwe.

The belief that if one graduated at a South African university, one was assured of employment in that country recurred among the participants (cf. 5.3.3.1(a*)*, 5.3.3.1(f), 5.3.4, 5.4.4.6). Zimbabwean students at South African universities were reluctant to go back home after graduation (cf. 5.3.2.1(a)), with their parents supporting the idea (cf. 5.3.4), while the administrators and lecturers seemed not to blame them for the

decision. With an unemployment rate above 90% in Zimbabwe, the prospects of getting jobs in South Africa after graduation continue to fuel student migration to the country (cf. 5.6.2.3(a)).

Thus, in line with the theoretical framework above, the beliefs held among Zimbabweans about higher education in South Africa would continue encouraging student mobility. As long as the economic situation did not improve, the country would find itself loosing potential manpower and the necessary 'brains' to South Africa and other international destinations through student migration. The situation was a challenge to the government of Zimbabwe as the custodian of its people, to look into planning for the development of higher education. In that way, all the qualifying students would be assured of fair treatment when it came to registration, and all the students would experience quality higher education, and be able to choose the study courses they want to study.

Following the above theoretical framework that served as the basis of this study, the next section will consider the challenges in Zimbabwe's higher education. These challenges were found contributing to the continued migration of students to South Africa. The challenges, which came from the contribution of the participants, answered the questions related to the aims of the study. The participants (administrators) said that by migrating, Zimbabwean students were behaving just like any other students (cf. 5.5.3.2). This meant that the students were like international (cf. 2.3.2 & 2.3.3), continental (cf. 3.5), and regional (cf. 3.8) students who were migrating for the reason of higher education. Each group of participants gave their reasons why the students migrated to South Africa (cf. 5.3.3.1, 5.4.3, 5.5.3.3 & 5.6.2.1). The views from the participants provided the answers to the questions based on the second sub-aim which sought to ascertain what, in general, was driving students to South African higher education institutions (cf. 1.4.2). An analysis of the effects of the migration on the education system and on the provision of higher education in Zimbabwe was the third aim of the study (cf. 1.4.2). The analysis came up with the challenges that showed the effects of student migration to South Africa on higher education in Zimbabwe.

6.6 CHALLENGES IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE

This study brought to surface some challenges in the Zimbabwean higher education system.

The challenges have been partitioned into the following groupings, namely

- systemic challenges;
- organizational challenges;
- financial challenges; and
- economic challenges.

The above challenges are discussed under some identified themes, with recommendations following each discussion.

6.6.1 Challenges in respect of student the applications and study courses at universities

The data, as supplied by the participants in this research, indicated that there existed a need for the review of the application system at universities in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.5.3.1(a) & 5.5.3.1(b)). Zimbabwe needed a system which allows fairness, with deserving students gaining admission without any interference from the administrative system. Universities could set an online system of registration where there is no face-to-face contact on the submission of the forms. A face-to-face procedure opens room for corruption (cf. 5.4. 4. 5), thereby driving away students who could have had a just opportunity. It was concluded that there was a need for closing the gaps of dishonesty in the enrolment and registration of students so that people would rely on enrolment expectations (cf. 5.5.3.4).

In addition to the above, some students were studying courses they did not apply for (cf. 5.4. 4. 5). This leads to mistrust and disgruntlement on the part of the students and the parents. The conclusion was that there ought to be openness and honesty if the conduct in the handling of the applications is to be trusted.

Zimbabwean higher education seems to have set the entry standard to universities too high in order to control the enrolment system. Some study courses now require 14-15 points for a student to be enrolled (cf. 5.5.3.6) in spite of the existing policy which says a student should have at least 2 points in 2 subjects at 'A' Level (cf. 5.4.4.5, 5.4.7.1 & 5.6.2.1(a)). However, students below the above cut-off point are found among those who had met the enrolment standards (cf. 5.5.3.). This indicates a disparity in the enrolment system. It was concluded that the double standards in the way students were enrolled at university needed to be stopped. There ought to be uniformity (cf. 5.6.2.2(b)).

The findings of this research also showed that the number of students passing well at 'A' Level was increasing (cf. 5.5.3(f)). This could be the result of either the increase in Zimbabwe's population or simply that students had found a way of managing 'A' Levels. Despite the increase in the number of universities in Zimbabwe, the students were still crowded in the lecture halls (cf. 5.6.2.1(a)). More students still failed to gain admission to the universities (cf. 5.6.2.1(a)). A greater need existed to plan for space to accommodate the increasing numbers of students.

The majority of the participants pointed out how students had limited access to Zimbabwean universities (cf. 5.6.2.1(a), 5.4.4.2, 5.6.2.4(a)). Many students who qualified for admission to the university did not get a chance to do so, despite the number of these institutions growing from 1 at Independence in 1980 to the current 15 universities. Those who can afford the fees end up going to South Africa for higher education (cf. 5.6.2.1(a)). It is necessary for the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education to improve on the size of the total enrolment to give as many students as possible access to higher education if student migration is to be regulated.

A good number of the student participants (cf. 5.3.4), the majority of the parent respondents, as well as the lecturers (cf. 5.6.2.1(k)) and the administrators (cf. 5.5.3.7) were concerned about the lack of funds. The general consensus was that not much seems to be done about the situation. Whatever funding there was in the form of either the Presidential Scholarship (cf. 5.3.4, 5.6.2.1(k)) or the cadetship (cf. 5.6.2.1(l)), it was not available to the disadvantaged majority. The suggestion was

that the funds should be allocated fairly to those who deserve it, instead of manipulating the process to the advantage of non-deserving entrants.

6.6.2 Challenges in respect of the services of higher education institutions

This research ascertained that the institutions of higher learning, due to their limited services and practices, drove students to South African universities. At the same time, the institutions are impacted on due to many good students who are lost and could have enhanced the competitive culture typical of modern higher education institutions.

The findings revealed that the institutions gave the impression of selecting the 'cream' and rejecting the 'waste' (cf. 5.5.3.6). The participants pointed out that, in addition to a number of 'good' students, the universities in South Africa were enrolling most of the Zimbabwean students, even those with low points (cf. (iii) Parent 3, 5.5.3.3(b)). The research ascertained that the above view, of the selection of students with very high points and leaving out those with less points, was a mere excuse for the inadequate enrolment places at the universities. The participants argued that there was a need for planning for an increasing student population in higher education so that all the qualifying students could be accommodated (cf. 5.5.3.3(d)). The planning would help some of the students to stay at the local universities instead of being forced to migration to South Africa.

The participants argued that Zimbabwean higher education offered a 'thin' curriculum, that is, there was not a wide choice for students to select study courses (cf. 5.5.3.2). In addition to the 'thin' curriculum, the participants also pointed out that Law was a study course which was only offered at 2 of the 15 Zimbabwean universities, and Medicine was studied at only one university (cf. 5.4.8). The participants said that there was need to introduce not only Law but also other study courses in the other state universities. By so doing the administration would not use the limit of 15 points as a requirement for anyone wishing to study Law or any other study courses that now required very high points. The participants said that despite the increase in the number of universities from one to 15, more study courses

needed to be introduced so that the students were not obliged to look elsewhere for what they desired to study (cf. 5.4.8).

Students experienced over-crowdedness in the university lecture halls. The students were packed in the lecture halls, the libraries, the laboratories and in the halls of residence (1.2). In some courses students used out-dated equipment (cf. 5.4.5.1). The cramming of large numbers of students into lecture rooms once meant for fewer students was the result of massification of higher education, a concept discussed in Chapter 3 of this study (cf. 3.12.3.2). The participants pointed out that because a greater number of students were passing "A" Level examinations, the institutions tended to enrol more numbers than the infrastructure can contain (cf. 5.4.4.2). This finding challenged the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe to plan for space to comfortably accommodate all the students they enrolled at the universities

The participants also indicated that the large student numbers were straining resources (cf. 5.6.2.1(i) & 3.12.6.4). The large student numbers impacted on the lesson delivery, and the marking of the students' work took longer. The participants wondered what they really learnt in those circumstances (cf. 5.6.2.1(i)). Over-crowdedness resulted in discomfort, less concentration, and low motivation among the students. A low motivation was also said to have a psychological effect, where the students in the local universities ended up wishing they were studying outside the country.

6.6.3 Challenges related to the funding of higher education in Zimbabwe

The funding of higher education was one of the major challenges as identified by the respondents. In the first place, six out of the eight students who participated in the research were not sure whether there were any scholarships or bursaries for the students, especially from the government (cf. 5.3.4). The fact that the participants seemed to rely on hearsay about student funding established the perception that either the funding did not exist (cf. 5.5.3.7 & 5.6.2.1(k)), or the little funding that was available assisted only a very small number of students (cf. 5.3.4).

The findings further indicated that all the institutions needed more funds (cf. 5.5.3.4 & 3.12.6.1) in order to improve these universities with the aim of both enrolling and accommodating more students. The institutions did not have up-to-date facilities and some of the structures were failing and were not repaired (cf. 5.5.3.4). Other structures which were in the process have not been completed for years (cf. 3.12.6.1). Thus the information provided showed how a dire need for funds was one of the major challenges which needed to be addressed by Government.

The problem of funding was said to affect the teaching staff at the universities. The participants were of the opinion that the country's higher education lacked quality and qualified personnel (cf. 5.6.2.1(g)). This finding confirmed what was concluded in the literature namely that funding sources and means have a powerful impact on the way resources are utilised and also on the performance of the institutions as well as their individual staff members (cf. 3.12.6.1). One way in which Zimbabwean universities have been grossly affected by the lack of funding was the continuous migration of lecturers to destinations where they are better paid (cf. 5.4.4.2). Therefore, sufficient funding was needed for paying the lecturers a reasonable salary if the teaching at universities was not to be disrupted.

The participants pointed out that in some departments Zimbabwe's universities still used out-dated equipment and technology (cf. 3.6.2). Lagging behind and not keeping abreast of new advances can only be to the detriment of higher education and the country's economy.

6.6.4 Challenges to the economy due to student migration

The participants were of the opinion that student migration was a loss to Zimbabwe because students hardly returned home to work, and they cited various other ways through which the loss was experienced (cf. 5.3.6). Participants indicated that students who finished higher education outside the country rarely returned to work in their home country (cf. 5.3.6, 5.6.2.3(g), & 5.4.4.6). They pointed out that there is a reluctance to return. The loss of graduated the students with expertise negatively affected the economy and represented a loss of skilled human resources (cf.

5.6.2.3). The loss ought to be a wake-up call to the government to create an environment that would attract its citizens back home to develop their country.

The participants also pointed out that some of the students who studied in foreign countries chose courses such as rocket science and even actuarial science which could not be applied back in Zimbabwe even though the country needed the services (cf. 5.5.3.5). Since the students qualified themselves in courses that were not yet applicable in Zimbabwe,   they stayed in the host countries or went to work in other countries where their services were required. Zimbabwe could have benefited from the students who studied unique courses if the government would consider it seriously to improve the country's economic state of affairs. The government needed to create the conditions to build a stable and growing economy so that citizens who desire to come back from studying outside the country could be accommodates through employment.   The country would benefit from the skills and expertise learnt from other countries.

Some participants regarded student migration as empowering the people to earn a living (cf. 5.6.2.3(c)). After studying outside the country, students were likely to be employed where their skills were required. However, in the case of Zimbabwe, the student migration process was tantamount to a 'brain drain' because the qualified students did not come back to work at home (cf. 5.3.6). It was recommended that the government should rather work towards a 'brain gain' through the improvement of Zimbabwe's higher education and a stable economic situation. Improvement of higher education would contribute to attracting excellent students from other countries who could have the opportunity to stay and work in Zimbabwe after their graduation and thereby positively contribute to an affluent economy. The improvement of the economy was the only way through which the unemployment rate which stood over 90% (cf. 5.6.2.3(c)). The government ought to attract back those who go out to study and employ them rather than consider them as 'good riddance' (cf. 5.6.2.4(a)). The participants suggested that the government should consider how much it invested in the 13 years of primary and secondary education of an individual (cf. 5.6.2.3(g)) and turn this investment around to benefit the country by creating an environment that enticed the individual students   back to the country.

6.6.5 Discussion

The findings of this investigation confirmed that Zimbabwean students who migrated for higher education were driven into that decision more by the poor economic state of the country than anything else (cf. 3.19). Especially mentioned the influence of the terrible state of the country's economy was mentioned as the major driving force of migration (cf. 5.3.3.1, 5.6.2.3(g)). All the other 'pushes' emanated from the country's state of the economy. Not only did the state of the economy 'pushed' the students to South Africa, it also made the *'pulls'* very visible and clear.

Although the participants sounded disheartened about the situation in respect of higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.4.4.5 & 5.5.3.1(b)), they appreciated some of the achievements of their country. One of the achievements mentioned was the additional number of universities (cf. 5.4.4.5), which meant that more students could now be enrolled. The participants also mentioned the attempts by ZIMCHE to improve the quality of higher education (cf. 5.6.2.1(g) & 5.6.2.4).The student participants specifically pointed out that at South African universities they were known for their outstanding hard work (cf. 5.3.2.1(a)). One of the parents (cf. 5.4.8), all the administrators (cf. 5.5.3.4) and the lecturers (cf. 5.6.2.4(e)) indicated a silver lining of hope should there be an economic turnaround. Based on the above information, the researcher was of the view that improved learning conditions in Zimbabwe's higher education institutions were likely to create changes in the attitudes in respect of the student migration process, and later bring about a positive influence on the economy of the country.

In Chapter 2 (2.3.1) where student migration from an international perspective was discussed, it was seen that the process of students who journey to various countries for study purposes is a common phenomenon around the world. In the chapter the history of student migration was traced back as far as Pythagoras (569-475B. C.) (cf. 2.3.1), indicating that student migration is a very old occurrence where students seek a different way of teaching with different study courses being offered. Zimbabwe also has its own history of student migration. In this study the researcher attempted to establish not only the historical, but also the current developments in respect of student migration. The historical background and the current (2013) effects of

student migration show the direction of student migration in Zimbabwe and how it was influencing higher education in the country. The conclusion in respect of the future direction of student migration in Zimbabwe was based on the findings of this study.

The research followed a qualitative research design (cf. 1.6.1 & 4.2.2) through a narrative inquiry to gather the data (cf. 4.3.2). The recorded interview-method of data-collection afforded the researcher a first-person version feel of the information, where the information was direct from the participant (cf. 1.8.1 & 4.5.2.1).The narrative was the participants' personal encounter with student migration, with the researcher only repeating the experiences in writing (cf. 4.3.2). The details presented in this study are a complete account of the experiences of the Zimbabwean students studying at selected universities in South Africa, a number of parents in Zimbabwe who sent children to study in South Africa, and also administrators and lecturers working at universities in Zimbabwe.

The interview method used in this research allowed the participants to open up and express their views about higher education in Zimbabwe in regards to student migration to South African universities. The effect of student migration caused unhappiness with some participants because they were being disadvantaged in their capacity as individual students, parents and administrators and lecturers who worked in higher education. The participants also thought that they missed opportunities due to the malfunctioning of the country's economy and higher education system (cf. 5.4.6.1, 5.6.2.2(e), 5.5.3.2 & 5.5.3.3(b)). They said that first and foremost the government was responsible for education and the government had to correct the current (2013) situation before they could really make an input in the further development of their beloved country (cf. 5.4.7.1).

The participants admitted the enthusiasm of students towards their t universities a few years into independence (cf. 5.4.3, (v) Parent 5). The students who participated enthusiastically expressed their expectations of higher education in Zimbabwe when they were in secondary school. However, the students of the future and their positive feelings need support, especially from the side of the government through an open

and fair enrolment system into universities, if they were to stay back home and contribute to the upliftment of the country (cf. 5.3.7).

The outcomes of the study pointed to many challenges that are currently impacting negatively on the higher education system. Higher education is directly linked to economic development. Turning around the economy is the only way to resuscitate Zimbabwean higher education and help it to find its place on an equal basis with other higher education systems in Africa and the world. The country requires the already mentioned holistic approach if the situation in higher education were to return to normal (cf. 5.6.2.4(e)).

6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS IN RESPECT OF POLICY ON HIGHER EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE COUNTRY

In addition to the recommendations made in the afore-going sections (cf. 6.6.1–6.6.5) this section presents some further recommendations that could guide future policy in transforming the higher education system. The recommendations are presented under different themes as identified on the basis of the investigation.

6.7.1 Economic turn-around

The findings revealed various limitations in the economy of the country (cf. 5.5.3.3, 5.6.2.3). There is a positive awareness among respondents that the economy should be restored first before real transformation of higher education with all its challenges could be achieved (cf. 3.18 & 3.19).

The Zimbabwean government, as the main role-player in restoring the economy needs to implement measures towards macro-economic stability to encourage positive growth and development. The hope was expressed that all the professors and lecturers who left the country would be attracted back by creating a stable economy (cf. 5.6.2.3(g)). These professionals were expected to utilise the expertise gained from various academic posts in other countries to benefit higher education

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back home and, encourage more students to stay and study at local institutions (cf. 5.6.2.4(a)), and also entice those students who would have migrated to come back after graduation to make an impact with the acquired expertise (cf. 5.3.6 & 5.6.2.3(e)). The government should follow the recommendations of the National Manpower Advisory Council (NAMACO) on human resource development and skills training. The NAMACO should work closely with the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE), which is responsible for maintaining standards in education (cf. 3.12.1).

The expansion of Zimbabwe's key economic growth power areas such as mining, agriculture and manufacturing of goods and greater focus in higher education and research in these areas should give rise to enhancing more expertise in key development areas which in turn would benefit all sectors involved. That would also create motivation for training of students in the country's own universities or, alternatively, sending them to train in other countries to and equip them with the relevant skills required for the growth of the economy. The need for specialise training would have a bearing on the curriculum at university level to offer a broader spectrum of study courses that would suit the needs of the country's economy (cf. 5.6.2.4(c)). Thus, the economy in Zimbabwe would be supported by the country's higher education system.

The findings of this study called for the realisation that universities play an integral role contributed in the economic success of a country. Economic successes and continuous growth are intimately linked to an effective higher education system and the production of knowledge which is essential in respect of a country's economic advancement (cf. 2.3.3.1). Therefore, it is recommended that the government makes the success of higher education part of the country's broader renewal and development plan. The rebuilding of the higher education system would require government's determination and dedication as the custodian of higher education and education in general as the backbone of economic growth.

Findings of this study exposed student migration as empowerment of people to earn a living (cf. 5.6.2.3(c)). It is recommended that higher education policy should regard migration as a means of allowing students who received their higher education at

international universities to be employed in Zimbabwe in order for the country to benefit from the expertise gained elsewhere.

Findings also led to the recommendation that Zimbabwe should invest more in the development of the formal sectors of business and industry and reduce the informal sector which has grown vastly since the economic deterioration of the country (cf. 5.4.6.2). The respondents' view in this regard were that the growth of the informal sector has discouraged many prospective students from pursuing higher education in their own country, or pursuing higher education at all because there would be nowhere for them to work.

6.7.2 Funding requirements

The question of student funding was found to be a huge problem in Zimbabwe (cf. 5.3.4, 5.4.4.4, 5.5.3.4 & 5.5.3.7). This was one of the reasons why students migrated to countries like South Africa where some of them received financial assistance. . The findings indicated that only one organization in Zimbabwe was known for assisting students with funding for university education (cf. 5.3.4, 5.6.2.1(k)). Should the country's economy be restored, business and industry involvement should be high priority in order to broaden the basis of student funding for study purposes. In this instance higher education can play a key role in their research efforts to establish alternative and additional ways in which students could find funding for higher education and development

6.7.3 Administrative requirements

The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education needs to appoint a task team or an advisory committee with representatives, inter alia, from university administrators, government departments, and lecturers' unions to develop a plan on solving the challenges of higher education as highlighted by this investigation. Working as a group of interested parties could help in contributing ideas for the implementation of

such a development plan in order to transform the country's system of higher education.

Zimbabwe needs to address the causes of the massive student migration the country is facing (cf. 5.3.3.1). The team suggested above is to come up with genuine and realistic strategies to renew the higher education system, including measures to support student migration where it could benefit the country. The recovery team has to work closely with the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education and provide guidelines for the implementation of the recovery scheme which should be a design for setting right higher education.

It was unlikely that the influence of the big organisations, such as the Organisation for Economic and Cultural Development (OECD), the World Bank (WB), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), could be negated (cf. 2.7.5). Zimbabwe needs to work with international organizations, through the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education to place Zimbabwe's higher education back into the international arena with the benefits that could arise from such exposure. In this era of globalization it is necessary for Zimbabwean higher education to be involved in international cooperative efforts because such actions could also benefit the student migration process to other countries than South Africa which could be of benefit to the country (cf. 5.3.2.1).

Zimbabwe is also recommended to work closely with the rest of the SADC region through student exchanges and the country's commitment to agreements. In Chapter 3 (cf. 3.9.2) it was stated that Zimbabwe continues to charge higher fees for SADC students than for national students, hence a potential barrier to student mobility. This is contrary to the agreement in the Protocol (cf. 1.2) where SADC countries committed themselves to regional support in respect of the enrolment fees charged for students from other SADC countries. Zimbabwe needs to work hand in hand with the region in order to improve the quality of its higher education.

Zimbabwe needs to improve its Information Technology (IT) systems in order to enhance web-based research and innovation. IT systems will improve communication between institutions and their students and enhance the research

possibilities and networks for lecturers and researchers. The exchange of knowledge among students and other experts will be possible. The lack of advanced technology is one of the reasons behind student migration to South Africa (cf. 5.6.2.4(a)).

6.7.4 Teaching requirements

Zimbabwe needs to create a favourable political environment in order to open up opportunity   for the establishment of a healthy socio-economic atmosphere. The need for favourable conditions follows the finding that everything in the country was not about educating people but about conveying a specific message (cf. 5.3.3.1(e)). Participants said that there was interference into higher education by some 'influential' people (cf. 5.6.2.1(i)). A favourable political environment would promote constructive critical thinking in higher education without fear of intimidation. In other words, criticism by academics was not to be understood as a threat but advice to governance. Therefore, first and foremost, there was need for the creation of a favourable democratic political environment before education of the country could advance.

The outcomes of this research revealed a shortage of teaching staff in universities because they were leaving the country (cf. 5.4.3, iv Parent 4, & 5.6.2.2(e)). In relation to this exodus, it is recommended that there be incentives to attract lecturers who had left the country to come back (cf. 5.6.2.4(a)). It is also recommended   that the government should work through higher education to attract additional international lecturers to enrich the tuition locally.

The programme qualifications mix in higher education needs to be investigated and widened to include more and also more relevant study courses which comply with the country's development needs. Universities still offer more or less the same subjects 34 years after Independence (cf. 5.5.3.5). The courses offered for study should be in line with the changes that are taking place in higher education internationally. Changes in the curriculum and its options are expected to attract more students to study in the country rather than going abroad for studies in directions which are not provided for locally.

6.7.5 Resources needed

This investigation identified the great need for a much more substantial budget for higher education (cf. 5.3.4, 5.4.4.4 & 5.5.3.4). Enormous financial resources need be done sourced if higher education in Zimbabwe was to be rejuvenated. The way the money is distributed to universities should be transparently (cf. 3.19(b)). Transparency in the distribution of funds will gain treasury trust and confidence from the side of the institutions. Universities would know exactly how much they are allocated and would be able to plan accordingly for the most efficient spending of the funds available to serve the institutions' developmental needs and in the end the economy of the country.

The government needs to give universities the freedom to engage in their own efforts to earn more funding on their own. Given the country's economic situation, the government budget was far too small to support all that essential operations. Enough money would help the institutions of higher learning to function at levels acceptable internationally especially in regards to research. In Chapter 2 (cf. 2.4.4.1) the researcher discussed the example of Asia where the governments continue to have a big influence on the mobility of students. The government of Zimbabwe can continue to play important roles in shaping the decisions in education which includes student migration through funding higher education more adequately.

The government, through its relevant ministry, should investigate and measures to retain lecturers in higher education through paying them well and creating the conditions for them to keep abreast of changing times and demands in higher education.. Findings showed that Zimbabwean higher education needed more human resources, especially academic personnel with relevant qualifications and on the level of senior professors (cf. 5.5.3.3(e)). Participants indicated that the lecturers were leaving for other countries, therefore, there was need to attract those qualified experts back to Zimbabwe (cf. 5.6.2.2, 5.6.2.19(g), 5.6.2.2(e), 5.6.2.4(a)). Again, the government needs to improve the country's economy if it is to make enough money to fund decent salaries for their lecturers. As indicated already, boosting the economy and creating stable circumstances for a learning culture would possibly attract lecturers back to the country and also other international experts who could

benefit the higher education system. Thus, transformation of the changes in the economy could only have positive outcomes for the country in general but also higher education in particular. Students who might have migrated would stay to study and later work in Zimbabwe after graduation. Student migration would be reduced (cf. 3.19(d)).

6.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Effort was made to ensure that the study remained objective and empirically justified. However, there might have been some factors which posed limitation to it. The researcher identified some of these limitations which were:

- The field of study was vast because it included 40 universities, that is, 25 South African and 15 Zimbabwean universities. The researcher finally worked with 5 South African and 4 Zimbabwean universities. Although the researcher attempted to identify information-rich institutions for the purpose of the studying, a larger number of universities should be utilized in future to reflect an even wider representative on the effect of student migration to South Africa on higher education in Zimbabwe.

- The study focussed on state universities yet Zimbabwean Students migrate to private institutions of higher learning as well. Thus, other institutions of higher learning should be included to make the study even more representative.

6.9 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The basic concern in this study was to establish the effects of student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 1.4.1). In order to reach this aim, a sub-aim which required that the general factors contributing to the migration of students to foreign universities, was identified (cf. 1.4.2). The participants gave their views of these general factors (cf. 5.5.3.2 & 2.3.2). The analysis of the data that were produced by the participants contributed to answering

the questions emanating from the research aims adequately and convincingly. Thus, all the aims of the study were achieved by means of the research methods employed. The research presented the data on student migration and its effects on higher education in Zimbabwe. The first sub-aim also required the establishment of the local factors pushing the students to migration. The participants extensively contributed to the second sub-aim, i.e. why students were migrating to South Africa (cf. 5.3.3.1, 5.4.3, 5.5.3.1 & 5.6.2.1**).** If there had been more time, the research could have been expanded to include the contribution of the following: representatives of the relevant sections of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education; the authorities of the schools and other centres that facilitated the writing of 'A' Level Cambridge examinations (cf. 1.1); the teachers who assisted the students with the 'A' Level CSC syllabus in preparation for migration following the writing of Cambridge examinations (cf. 1.1); and the offices of the Permanent Secretary of Higher and Tertiary Education for their opinion on student migration to South Africa. Such an extension of the research would come up with an even wider scrutiny of the effects of student migration on the higher education of Zimbabwe.

If the time allowed, the study could have included all the universities in Zimbabwe for their views on student migration. The exercise would best be done by a team of researchers, instead of an individual. The team could then make a concerted effort in the establishment of the effect of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe and highlight critical issues to be addressed in order to improve the system of higher education. It would be expected, though, that the findings by the team would further support the main aim of the study in respect of policymaking in terms of higher education in Zimbabwe (cf. 1.4.1).

As regards the main aim of the study (cf. 1.4.1), this research focussed more on the students who had migrated to South African universities for higher education (cf. 5.3). The study, though, also referred to the students studying at universities in Zimbabwe but who also wished to migrate if they had the chance (5.6.2.1(i), 5.6.2.2(e)). It would be worth the effort to find out what these students had to say, and their stance on how student migration impacted on the higher education of the country. In this way the study would encompass a wider panorama of students in

higher education, in order to come up with embracive recommendations for the planning for student migration that befits the individual and the country.

The universities in South Africa played a major part in this research. The reason is because the study focussed on how Zimbabwean students studying in South Africa felt about the experience (cf. 1.4.1). The students indicated how they felt about migrating to South Africa in order to pursue their studies (cf. 5.3.2.1). It would also be important to ascertain the performance of Zimbabwean students from the administrators and the lecturers at South African universities. This would help to clarify the view raised by some of the participants that South African institutions of higher learning accepts even the not so bright students from Zimbabwe (cf. 5.5.3.6, 5.4.8 & 5.6.2.1(a)).

The participants pointed out how Zimbabwe benefited from student migration to South Africa by the fact that the students become empowered (cf. 5.6.2.3(c)). Contrary, the findings indicated more disadvantages in respect of the effects of student migration for higher education and the country. Thus, research could in future also go into the positive outcomes of going to South Africa for higher education, and to establish how this migration process can be promoted to the benefit of the country. Such a view is likely to bring to light the other side in respect of the motivations which have driven students to migration for the sake of higher education.

Student migration is an on-going process. It is the researcher's desire that this research enlighten not only policy makers, but also any other role-player who may have a say in respect of student mobility and the development of higher education. The researcher intends to open a website and Facebook page for the sharing of ideas on the subject of student migration in Zimbabwe, and elsewhere. It is hoped that this initiative would make the current work not only a production but an inspiration to look beyond the existing experiences of the students and all the others.

6.10 FINAL CONCLUSION

The researcher acknowledges and commends the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe for the effort to accommodate as many Form 6 graduates as possible into higher education. The Ministry has done this through the expansion of Zimbabwe's higher education opportunities from one state university at Independence in 1980 to the current 9, including the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU). In addition to the above institutions six other universities (five of which are church universities) have been instituted. Thus, the current size of higher education is made up of 15 universities.

The increase in the number of students enrolled at each of the institutions, has been another attempt to accommodate the rising numbers from high schools, although the present study suggests this student growth has impaired the system by straining its resources. However, additional universities are helpful groundwork for the accommodation of students in higher education.

The idea of the Presidential Scholarship Fund through which those students who cannot afford the registration fees may be assisted is another commendable intervention. However, if the above scholarship fund is not laid in a way that makes higher education in Zimbabwe acceptable for all the stakeholders, student migration would continue to impact the nation negatively.

The Cadetship student funding could be improved, constituting a foundation for the 'shared' payment of fees between the students who could not otherwise afford to pay them and the government as motivator. However, full grants ought to be available for students who cannot afford to pay for themselves and who would like to study at home.

This research pointed out that most of the challenges driving Zimbabwean students to South Africa for higher education emanate from the state of the country's economy. This is a possible sign of positive change ahead. The government's economic policies might improve, lifting the economic outlook. An improved economic climate would in turn improve the nation's higher-education standards, reducing incentives for out-migration for educational purposes.

The present study has developed data, heretofore unavailable, on the effect of student migration on Zimbabwean higher education.

The interview method proved helpful in the sense that participants had a chance to air their views on a subject that affected their lives. The participants exhibited relief at the opportunity to open up. The fact that the researcher recorded most of the interviews herself likely was conducive to the accuracy of the participants' expressions.

This research points to an opportunity for the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe to realize the impact of its underperformance in the delivery of services in higher education, an underperformance that in turn induces migration. The Ministry ought to think in terms of policies that will slow migration down, rather than seeing the process as a way of getting rid of the problem. The researcher believes that there is hope in student migration especially for the economy of the country. This belief is supported by one of the students studying in South Africa, who noted that Zimbabwe consisted of 'rich untapped ground awaiting exploration' (cf. 5.3.2.1 & 5.3.3.1(e)).

Zimbabwe's higher education is still respected in many ways. This is evident in the presence of many of its academics in influential posts in the Diaspora. There have also been attempts to expand higher education as well as efforts to address the question of state-supported student migration to South Africa. The researcher has, it is hoped, satisfactorily addressed the question of how the private enterprise of student migration to South Africa for university education affects higher education, including the process's bearing on the nation's economy. Thus, the researcher considers that the aim of the study has been achieved. On the other hand, the researcher suggests that more opportunities should be made available for all the students in Zimbabwe to access higher education where they wish, and where they can afford it.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

A. Gubba [47740698]

for D Ed study entitled

The effects of student migration to South African universities on higher education in Zimbabwe

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two years from the date of issue.

Prof CS le Roux 17 September 2013

CEDU REC (Chairperson)

lrouxcs@unisa.ac.za

Reference number: 2013 September/47740698/CSLR

LETTER AND CONSENT FORM: STUDENT PARTICIPANTS AS WELL AS UNIVERSITY LECTURERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Dear Participant

My name is Angela Gubba and I am currently a UNISA student. I am a Zimbabwean and I have been a high school teacher in our country for twenty years. During my teaching time I noticed that a good number of students wrote, and each year they are still registering for the Cambridge Examination, with the aim of studying outside Zimbabwe. Parents pay the expensive examination fees for the Cambridge School Certificate (CSC) and teachers help with extra lessons. Most of the Zimbabwean students seem to be coming to South Africa for university education. Others go abroad for the same purpose.

It became necessary to conduct a study on what the effects are on higher education of Zimbabwe as a result of this migration of students. It is also hoped that the study may help in planning for student migration in higher education of Zimbabwe, with the hope of making it beneficial to the country. The study is done in requirement of my Doctorate degree entitled *THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT MIGRATION TO SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE.* Your participation in this project will provide useful information on this topic.

The participation will be in the form of an informal interview, done outside work time. You will be free to choose the time and the venue convenient for you.

I guarantee that the following conditions will be met:

> Your name and the name of your university will remain anonymous. This information will not be used at any point of the information collection process or in the final writing up of the data.

> Only I, the researcher, will have access to the notes and the completed transcript, which will be highly confidential.

Please note that involvement is voluntary. Should you decide to withdraw from participation at any point of the project you will be free to do so and you won't be blamed for withdrawing.

If requested by you, a copy of the final transcription of the interview with you will be provided before the report is submitted so that you have the opportunity to suggest changes if it is necessary.

Researcher: Angela Gubba, [8 Hendon Lane, Gallo Manor, 2052] (073 795 4182)

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

CONSENT FORM

I acknowledge the above information and provide consent by signing this form.

Participant signature:………........................Date………………………

Researcher: Angela Gubba.

Signature:…......................Date...

APPENDIX C

LETTER AND CONSENT FORM: PARENT PARTICIPANTS

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Angela Gubba and I am a UNISA student. I am a Zimbabwean and have taught in some of the country's renowned high schools for a marked time. During my teaching time I noticed that many students registered and wrote the Cambridge examination. I also observed that you as parents sacrificed the expensive fees required for these examinations. As a teacher, I participated in the examination preparation through the administration of extra lessons to those who wished. The majority of the students who were assisted left the country for university education. A large number of them seem to be studying in South African Universities while others have opted for other destinations. From this observation, it became necessary to carry out a study on the effect of this student movement to foreign universities on higher education in Zimbabwe. It is also hoped that the study may help in the planning for student migration in higher education of Zimbabwe, with the hope of making it beneficial to the country. The study is done as fulfilment of the requirement for the Doctorate degree entitled *THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT MIGRATION TO SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE.* It is hoped that the study would help in the planning for student migration in Zimbabwe where migration would benefit the country.

Your participation in this study will provide useful information on the topic. Should you agree, please sign the consent section at the bottom of this letter.

I guarantee that the following conditions will be met:

> Your name and the name of the university where your child studies will remain anonymous. This information will not be used at any point of the information collection process or in the final writing up of the data.

> Only I, the researcher, will have access to the notes and the completed transcript, which will be highly confidential.

> Please note that involvement is voluntary. Should you decide to withdraw from participation at any point of the project you will be free to do so and you won't be blamed for withdrawing.

> If requested, a copy of the final transcription of the interview with you will be provided to you so that you have the opportunity to suggest changes if it is necessary.

Your co-operation will be highly appreciated.

Researcher: Angela Gubba, [8 Hendon Lane, Gallo Manor, 2052] (073 795 4182)

…………………………………………………………………………….........................

....

CONSENT FORM

I acknowledge the above information and provide consent by signing this form.

Participant signature:………………………Date……………………….

Researcher: Angela Gubba. Signed:……………… Date………………

APPENDIX D

LETTER ASKING PERMISSION OF INSTITUTIONS FOR PARTICIPATION OF STUDENTS AND STAFF MEMBERS IN THE RESEARCH

The Registrar

University of...

P O BOX.....

....

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STUDY IN YOUR UNIVERSITY

My name is Angela Gubba and I am a registered UNISA student under the supervision of Professor S. G. Pretorius. Professor Pretorius can be contacted at pretosg@unisa.ac.za. I am researching for a Doctoral Thesis entitled *THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT MIGRATION TO SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE.*

I am therefore asking for permission to involve some of the administrators and lecturers in your university.

I have already completed the first three chapters of the research thesis and I would like to start interviews with the participants as soon as possible. I intend to use approximately 40 minutes interview period for each of the participants who would have agreed to partake in my research. The interviews will take place outside work times convenient to both the interviewer and the interviewee.

Participation is voluntary and participants can withdraw from the exercise at any time should they wish to do so. The university can also withdraw should the Registrar decides to no longer let his/her staff participate.

The names of the participants and the name of the institution will remain confidential and anonymous.

I will gladly provide any information that may be required.

Regard

Angela Gubba (Ms)

UNISA Student No. 47740698

APPENDIX E

EXAMPLE OF LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH

(copied out without exposing address and name of writer for ethics reasons)

28 November 2013

Ms Angela Gubba

P.O Box 1681

PAULSHOF

2056

Dear Ms Gubba

Re: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH AT WUA

Reference is made to your request for permission to carry out research on the following topic: *THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT MIGRATION TO SOUTH AFRICA UNIVERSITIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE"* in fulfilment of a Doctoral degree which you are undertaking with UNISA.

After due diligence of your research proposal, you are hereby granted permission to carry out your research. However, the findings of your study should be confined to your original intentions only i.e. research. Any breaching of this understanding can constitute an act of misconduct.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours Sincerely

REGISTAR

APPENDIX F

ASKING FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN

UNIVERSITIES IN ZIMBABWE

P. O. BOX 1681

PAULSHOF

2056

21-09-2013

The Secretary

Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education

Bag CY 7732

Causeway

HARARE

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STUDY IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

My name is Angela Gubba and I am a registered UNISA student under the supervision of Professor S. G. Pretorius. Professor Pretorius can be contacted at pretosg@unisa.ac.za. I am researching for a Doctoral Thesis entitled *THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT MIGRATION TO SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE.*

I am a Zimbabwean and I have been a high school teacher in our country for twenty years. During my teaching time I noticed that a good number of students wrote, and each year they are still registering for Cambridge Examinations, with the aim of studying outside Zimbabwe. Parents pay the expensive examination fees for the Cambridge School Certificate (CSC) and teachers help with extra lessons. Most of these students seem to be going to South Africa for university education. Others go abroad for the same purpose.

It became necessary to conduct a study on what the effects are on higher education of Zimbabwe as a result of this migration of students. It is also hoped that the study may help in planning for student migration in higher education of Zimbabwe, with the hope of making it beneficial to the country. I am therefore asking for permission to carry out research in the universities of Zimbabwe.

I have already completed the first four chapters of the research dissertation and I would like to start interviews as soon as possible. I intend to use approximately 40 minutes interview period for each of

the participants who would have agreed to partake in my research. The interviews would be outside work times convenient to both the interviewer and the interviewee.

Participation is voluntary and participants can withdraw at any time from the exercise should they wish to do so. The names of the participants and the institutions will remain confidential and anonymous.

I will gladly provide any information that may be required. I am also asking for your response in hard copy form. The written letter will help me to get access into the colleges.

Your help will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

Angela Gubba (Ms) UNISA Student No. 47740698

ZIMBABWE

12 December 2013

Ms. Angela Gubba
P.O. Box 1681
PAULSHOF
2056

Dear Ms. Angela Gubba

RE: REQUEST TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STTUDY IN   PUBLIC
       UNIVERSITIES

Reference is made to your letter, in which you request for permission to carry out a research study in public universities on *The Effects of Student Migration to South African Universities. Accordingly, be advised that the Head on higher education in Zimbabwe.*

Accordingly, be advised that the Head of Ministry has granted permission for you to carry out the study in Public Universities as part of the study.

It is hoped that once completed your research will benefit the Ministry. Accordingly, it would be appreciated if you could supply the Office of the Permanent Secretary with a final copy of your study, as the findings would be relevant to the Ministry's strategic planning process.

D. CHAURUKA
for: **PERMANENT SECRETARY**

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APPENDIX H

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR UNIVERSITY LECTURERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

The following guide will be used only to ensure that important issues are not left out in the discussion. The interview will be informal. Therefore, participants would be free to raise issues that are of concern to them.

Why students migrate?

This study is about the migration of students for higher education in South Africa. Do you have any idea of the extent of this phenomenon?

Why do students generally want to study in a foreign country?

Why do so many students prefer South Africa as a destination for studies?

Are there any benefits in studying at a foreign university?

Are there any challenges in higher education in Zimbabwe making students explore other options?

Are there any problems in the system creating enrolment barriers to students?

Do students get ample financial support for higher education studies?

Are the standards of qualifications of foreign based institutions higher than in Zimbabwean higher education?

Any other systemic problems and driving forces influencing students' decisions to study elsewhere?

Does student migration have effect on Higher Education in the country?

Generally, which students migrate? / Is student migration related to social group?

What relationship is there between the quality of students and migration?

Does the quality of students who migrate affect the quality of higher education?

What are the effects of the migration on higher education in Zimbabwe?

How is the effect of student migration felt on the universities?

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Research says the *best and the brightest go,* would you say that this is also the experience of Zimbabwe?

Does student migration have effect on the economy of the country?

Would you equate student migration to brain drain?

Do students having completed their studies elsewhere have better employment opportunities when they come back?

Do these students who have studied outside the country get employed in the fields they were trained for?

Could you say student migration is loss of potential manpower?

What are the effects of migration on the economy at large?

Does Zimbabwe and the economy benefit from the migration process?

Would you say there is relationship between inflation and student migration?

Research says the *best and the brightest go.* Does that have effect on the economy of the country?

Would you say Zimbabwean brains are wasted out there?

Would you say student migration creates social inequalities?

What must change in student migration?

Should migration be regulated?

Do you feel Zimbabwean higher education is marginalised in the process?

What plans should there be for the impact of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe?

What policy implications are there due to the migration process?

Do you foresee any changes to be effected to higher education in future?

APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PARENTS WITH CHILDREN STUDYING IN SOUTH

AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

Why students migrate?

Why do you send your child away for higher education?

How did you come up with the idea of South Africa as a study destination for your child?

Any notable differences between Zimbabwe and South Africa with regard to higher education?

What has gone wrong in higher education in Zimbabwe or do you just feel it will be better studying in a foreign country?

Your opinion of the current higher education system in Zimbabwe? Has anything gone wrong then wit HE in Zimbabwe?

Are there any challenges in Zimbabwean higher education that are driving students into foreign based-universities?

Does the enrolment system provide any barriers to studying in Zimbabwe?

Would you wish your child to come back home and work in Zimbabwe after studying out?

Does student migration have effect on Higher Education in the country?

Would you say student migration has some bearing on the higher education in Zimbabwe?

Does the quality of students who migrate affect the quality of higher education?

Is the effect of student migration felt on the universities? How?

Research says the *best and the brightest go,* would you say Zimbabwe is also losing its best?

Does student migration have effect on the economy of the country?

Does student migration into South Africa have impact on the economy of the country?

If the best and brightest go, is Zimbabwe losing potential manpower?

Is Zimbabwe benefiting from the students who migrate?

Would you say that there is a link between student migration and inflation?

What must change in student migration?

Do you think there is a need of improvement in Zimbabwe's higher education system?

What must be done for higher education that would help the economy of the country?

Should student migration be regulated?

Should student migration promoted even more?

What plans should there be for the impact of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe?

Do you foresee any changes to be effected to higher education in future?

APPENDIX J

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STUDENTS STUDYING IN SOUTH AFRICAN

UNIVERSITIES

Why students migrate?

How do you feel about studying in South Africa?

Whose choice is it for you to be here?

Is higher education organised and structured differently in South Africa than in Zimbabwe?

Is the standard of qualifications at South African institutions higher than in your country?

Would you have preferred to study in Zimbabwe? Why? and Why are you not studying in Zimbabwe?

Now you are studying here. What was your other alternative(s), and why did you not explore such alternative(s)?

What is generally driving students into South Africa/other countries for higher education?

What is your opinion on the current higher education system in Zimbabwe?

Do you think you would have better opportunities in life when obtaining a qualification outside Zimbabwe?

Are the foreign (South African) qualifications more acclaimed among employment sectors than the local qualifications?

Does student migration imply that things are not okay in your country's higher education system?

How are you accepted by students and others at the South African institutions?

What support do students receive for higher education from the government?

Will you go back to Zimbabwe when your studies have been completed?

Does student migration have effect on Higher Education in the country?

Do you think studying in South Africa is worth all the money spent for that purpose? Why?

What types of bursaries are available for studies at higher education institutions in Zimbabwe?

What types of bursaries are available for studies at higher education institutions in South Africa or any other country? (Do they get bursaries?)

Does student migration have effect on the economy of the country?

What should be done and by whom in Zimbabwean higher education to improve things?

Could you say student migration is loss of potential manpower

Does Zimbabwe and the economy benefit from the migration process?

What must change in student migration?

Do you think there is a need of improvement in Zimbabwe's higher education system?

What must be done for higher education that would help the economy of the country?

Should student migration be regulated?

Should student migration promoted even more?

What plans should there be for the impact of student migration on higher education in Zimbabwe?