

NEPALESE STUDENT MIGRATION TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES FOR HIGHER
EDUCATION IN THE GLOBALIZED CONTEXT

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis has not been submitted for candidature for any other degree.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memories of my grandparents and parents who reached heaven.

ABSTRACT

Thousands of Nepalese students annually aspire to go abroad in search of higher education. This research is a study of Nepalese student migration to foreign countries for higher education in the globalized context. The purpose of this study is to identify the trends and causes of Nepalese student migration and to explore their expectations and aspirations from the standpoint of push-pull factors. The main research question is addressed to explore the determinants of student migration. Hypotheses such as push-pull, social network, age, parental income and student migration were developed.

Based on the post-positivism and interpretivism paradigm, this study uses mixed methodologies. After a pilot survey, data were collected from 407 respondents selected by using stratified random sampling. Similarly, data were collected from the current student enrolment at different universities and colleges of the USA, the UK and Australia. Likewise, qualitative data were generated mainly from key participants. Regarding the secondary data, the main sources were MoE, other government agencies, and national and international organizations. The correlation, K-W, and t-tests were employed to interpret and analyse data with the help of SPSS-16. Similarly, interpretative paradigm was used to analyse qualitative data to present them in a thematic sequence with respect to each research question.

The main push factors include very limited employment opportunities, low quality education, limited career opportunities, unavailability of choice of subject, lack of modern lab, library and research facilities, political instability, and Bandh/Hartal. Education and earning opportunities, earning opportunities, quality education (recognized

degree), availability of choice of subject, reputed university; lab and research facilities; career opportunities; support from relatives and friends, independence and quality of life were pull factors. Personal factors and students' expectations and aspirations also influenced student mobility. The number of students-both Nepalese and international-pursuing higher education abroad has been increasing nationally and globally. It was found that one dominant cause of migration was low earning opportunities so students were highly motivated for earning while they get learning opportunities at the destination. There was no significant difference in the perceptions of students towards push-pull and age factors. High parental income was not a determinant factor of migration. The study reveals that social capital also influences migration. It was found that migration tendency differed with age. The t-test indicated that current and potential students had similar responses. Although, Nepalese students' choice of destination countries was found to be more than 50 countries, the preferred three destinations for aspiring students were cited as the UK (48.30 percent), USA (25.62 percent) and Australia (11.82 percent). Qualitative data revealed that high expectations, aspirations and motivation prompted students to go abroad. Hence, data fully supported the push-pull theory and social network theory.

The study concludes that student migration is inevitable in this globalized world. It was found that the main motive for student migration was to obtain a recognized degree in order to get higher rate of return from that degree. However, Nepalese students were also motivated by work and study at the destination. Nowadays, the brain drain debate has been converted into brain gain in the globalized context. Finally, higher education policy, human resources planning, and policy to attract international students to Nepal are recommended.

Key words: Student migration, student mobility, higher education, globalization.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	i
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS.....	xv
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Migration in General	1
Student / Educational Migration	4
Problem Statement	5
Purpose Statement	7
Research Question.....	8
Research Sub-Questions	8
Hypotheses	8
Rationale of the Study	10
Theoretical Framework.....	11
Limitations	12
Delimitations.....	12
Assumptions.....	13
Operational Definition of Terminology Used.....	13
Organizations of Thesis	21
CHAPTER II.....	23
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	23
Concept and Definition of Migration	25
Educational/ Student Migration	29
Relevant Theories / Models	32
Push-Pull Theory	33
Social Network Theory.....	38

Possible Self Theory	42
The Search for Cultural Capital.....	43
Other Related Theories/ Models	43
The Todaro Model.....	44
Gravity Model	45
Human Capital Theory.....	47
History of Student Migration	54
Research on Student Migration.....	56
Reasons for Migration (Push-Pull Factors)	59
Social Ties.....	64
Relationship between Income and Migration	67
Centre-Periphery Phenomenon	70
Brain Drain.....	71
Returnee Students.....	77
College to Work Migration	78
Human Capital.....	80
Age.....	81
Gender.....	81
Field of Study	82
Permanent Residence (PR).....	82
Quality Education/Globally Accepted Degree	82
Students' Academic level	83
Channels of Migration	84
International Education as a Side Door	84
Students' Expectations and Aspirations	85
Related Researches on Educational Migration	88
Student Migration in the Nepalese Perspective	109
Student Migration and Higher Education	111
Higher Education in the Global Perspective	115
Trade in Higher Education Services (Commodification of Higher Education	126
General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)	126

Higher Education and Quality Education	134
Related Research on Higher Education:	138
Higher Education in Nepal.....	145
Student Migration and Globalization	148
Concept and Definition of Globalization.....	149
Globalization as a Process:	157
Era of Globalization.....	163
Educational Globalization.....	164
Related Research on Globalization	169
Chapter Summary.....	172
Conceptual Framework.....	179
CHAPTER III	186
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	186
Philosophical Assumptions.....	186
Sources of Data	193
Primary Sources	193
Questionnaires Survey Research.....	194
Data Collection through E-Mail.....	195
Data Generation in Qualitative Method.....	195
Interviews.....	197
Case Studies	199
Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)	200
Observation	202
Photographs.....	203
Secondary Sources	203
Sampling	204
Population	205
Sampling Frame	205
Sampling Unit	206
Sample Design.....	206
Selection of ECs	207

Survey at the Educational Consultancies (ECs)	209
Survey at the Ministry of Education	211
Survey of Visa Holder Students (FI)	211
Survey in the Destination Countries	212
Sample Size	214
Sample for Qualitative Research	216
Sample Places	217
Reliability and Validity of the Research Tools	218
Pilot Survey	219
Findings of the Pilot Survey	220
Data Analysis and Interpretation for Quantitative Studies	221
Data Analysis in Qualitative Studies	224
Credibility of Research Findings	225
CHAPTER IV	228
TRENDS OF STUDENT MIGRATION	228
Overview of Global Student Migration	228
Global Scenerio in Trade in Higher Education Services	233
Destination Countries	236
Trends of the Nepalese Students Going Abroad	243
Where Do Nepalese Students Go to?	244
Geography of Student Migration (Three Major Destination Countries)	251
United States of America (USA)	251
United Kingdom (UK)	255
Australia	257
Area of Study	259
Chapter Summary	261
CHAPTER V	264
CAUSES OF NEPALESE STUDENT MIGRATION ABROAD	264
Descriptive Statistical Analysis	265
Demographic and Socio-Economic Status of Students	265
Academic Performances	272

School Types and Students' Intention to Go Abroad	274
Potential Students' Field of Studies.....	275
Push Factors (Causes of Student Migration.....	276
Low Employment Opportunities	278
Personal Factors	280
Political Instability.....	281
Low Quality Education.....	281
No Career Opportunity	281
Causes of Student Migration (Pull Factors).....	282
Education and Earning as Main Cause of Student Migration	284
Quality of Education.....	285
Career Opportunity	286
Earning (Job) Opportunity	287
Choices of Subject Available	287
Independent life	288
Social Network Factor	289
Preferred Destinations	292
Purpose of Migrating Abroad	294
Comparative Analysis between Origin and Destination.....	296
Relationship between Push and Pull Factors of Migration.....	297
Test of Significance	300
t test (Independent Sample Test)	308
Education-Related Push Factors between Potential and Current Students.....	309
Economic-Related Push Factors between Current and Potential Students.....	310
Political, Cultural and Social Network Factor of Migration.....	312
Education-Related Pull Factors of Migration	313
Economic-Related Pull Factors of Migration	315
Chapter Summary.....	318
CHAPTER VI.....	320
EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS, ASPIRATIONS AND PERCEPTION OF	320
POTENTIAL, CURRENT AND RETURNEE STUDENTS.....	320

Educational Aspirations and Expectations of Potential Students	324
Aspiration for Higher Education (Quality Education.....)	328
Aspiration for Earning and learning	329
Aspiration for Career Opportunities	330
Aspiration for Social Capital.....	330
Aspiration for Economic Motive.....	331
Educational Expectations of Potential Students.....	331
Aspirations and Expectations of Current Students.....	333
Returnee Students' Aspirations and Expectations	338
Perception of Potential, Current and Returnee Students	341
Perception of Potential Students.....	341
Causes of Student Migration.....	341
Low Employment Opportunities	343
Political Instability:.....	344
Politicized Educational System.....	344
Psychological Concern of the Parents	345
Low Quality Education.....	345
Educational Costs	346
Work and Study Opportunity	347
Case study: one	349
Highly motivated to go abroad.....	349
Practical Education/Quality Education.....	351
Social Ties.....	351
Case study-two	352
Low family earning leads to migration.....	352
Studying Abroad in the Eyes of Potential Students.....	353
Current Students' View	354
Land of Opportunities.....	354
Case study three	356
Unavailability of an interested subject forced Radha to migrate	356
Case study four.....	357

Success story of a migrant student	357
Returnee Students' Views.....	358
Demand for Higher Education	358
Social Attachment	360
Coin Rakers Students.....	361
Paradigm Shift	362
Mero Bhabisya (My Future).....	363
Brain Trade.....	364
Employment Opportunities	365
Quality Education	366
Brain Drain.....	367
Employment Status of Returnee Students.....	368
International Education Hub	369
Case study-five.....	370
Success story of a returnee student.....	370
Returnee Student from Parental Perspectives	370
Returnee Students from Others' Perspective:	372
Study Abroad in the BBC“Saajha Sabaal”	373
Chapter Summary.....	375
CHAPTER VII.....	378
OTHERS' PERCEPTION ON STUDENT MIGRATION	378
Perceptions of Policy Makers/ Educationists.....	378
Opportunities as Main Reason for Migration.....	378
Quality Education	379
Employment Opportunities	381
Earning and Learning	383
Hidden Agenda of Students	384
Brain Drain.....	385
Migration as a Global Phenomenon	389
Commercialization of Higher Education	390
Higher Education Policy	391

Human Resources Planning	394
Parents' Perception.....	395
Security and Threat.....	395
Unemployment	396
Bidesh Jaane Lahar (Tendency of Going Abroad	397
Globalization	398
Psychological Cost	399
Quality Education/Globally Accepted Degree	400
Brain Drain.....	401
Case study six.....	402
Cheerful Parents	402
Consequential of student migration.....	402
Perception of Managing Directors of Educational Consultancies (ECs)	404
Case study seven	408
Who is to blame?.....	408
Lack of Higher Education Policy/ Guidelines for ECs.....	409
Parentals' Role from MDs' Perspective	410
Return Migration	411
Knowledge Economy.....	412
Quality Education/Globally Accepted Degree.....	413
Causes of Student Migration from MDs' Perspective	414
Chapter Summary.....	415
CHAPTER VIII.....	417
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS.....	417
Major Findings of the Research	417
(a) Findings of Research Question One.....	417
Discussions	419
Trends of Global Student Migration.....	419
Trends of Nepalese Student Migration	423
(b) Findings of Research Question Two.....	427
Discussions	434

(c) Findings of Research Question Three	446
Discussions	448
(d) Findings of Research Question Four.....	452
Discussions	453
Application of the Theory.....	457
CHAPTER IX.....	459
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS.....	459
Summary.....	459
Conclusion	463
Implications.....	466
Implications for Government	467
Implications for Parents	471
Implications for Students	471
Implications for Educational Consultancies	472
Implication for Society and Culture	473
Future Research.....	474
REFERENCES.....	476
ANNEXES.....	503

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Summary Matrix of Major Migration Theories	52
Table 2. Number and Types of participants for Qualitative Interview	197
Table 3.No of Respondents in the Focus Group Discussions	202
Table 4. Total numbers of sampled educational consultancies (District wise)	208
Table 5. Number of respondents in the destination countries.....	212
Table 6. Sampling process, sample design and sample size in Nepal and abroad.....	218
Table 7. An illustration of coding system.....	224
Table 8. Summary of Relation Table	226
Table 9. Incoming and Outgoing Students in OECD Countries in 2001	234
Table 10. Numbers of Foreign Students in Main Host Countries in 2004	237
Table 11. Trends of International Student Mobility 1997-2006 in Major Destination Countries	238
Table 12. Number of Students in Major Source Countries in 2007	239
Table 13. Number of Hosted Students in Destination Countries in 2007	241
Table 14. Number of Nepalese students and their destinations from 1999/2000 to 2010/11	245
Table 15. Gender-wise students' mobility to foreign countries from 2008-09 to 2010-11	247
Table 16. Number of students aspiring to go abroad (by district and gender)	249
Table 17. Number of students aspiring to go abroad (by district and gender) 2009-10..	250
Table 18. Status of student migration to the educational market of the the USA.....	253
Table 19. Number of the Nepalese students who were issued NOC to go to the USA ..	254
Table 20. Non Immigrant Visa issued to Nepali students from 1997 to 2008-09 in the USA.....	254
Table 21. Number of Aspiring Students to go to the UK (based on NOC).....	256
Table 22. Number of students applying for visa to the UK for higher education.....	256
Table 23. Number of aspiring students to go to Australia (based on NOC).....	258
Table 24. Australian visa issued to the Nepalese students in Higher Education	258

Table 25. Subjectwise NOC issued (2008 July to 2009 May) at the percentage	260
Table 26. Demographic information of potential migrant Students of Nepal (n=406)...	266
Table 27. Socio-economic status of students (n=405)	268
Table 28. Parents' qualification of migratory Nepali students (n=407).....	270
Table 29. School types and students' intention to migrate to study (n=405)	274
Table 30. Area of studies:	275
Table 31. Push factors and preferred destinations (n=406)	277
Table 32. Pull factors and preferred destinations.....	283
Table 33. Social network factors and status of returnee students	290
Table 34. Preferred Destination by outgoing students in 2009-10 (n=406)	292
Table 35. Purpose of migrating abroad	295
Table 36. Comparative analysis of major reasons for migration (percentage).....	296
Table 37. Relationship between push and pull factors (n=407).....	298
Table 38. Association with other factors of migration.....	299
Table 39. Push factors of migration.	301
Table 40. Pull factors of migration.....	302
Table 41. Social network factor and migration.....	303
Table 42. Relationship between parental income and migration. (n=406).....	305
Table. 43. Difference between age and migration	306
Table 44. Causes of student migration on the basis of age factor.....	307
Table. 45. Comparative analysis of education-related push factors.....	309
Table 46. Comparative analysis of economic related push factors	311
Table 47. Political, cultural and social network factors	312
Table 48. Education-related pull factors of migration	314
Table 49. Economic-related pull factors of migration	316
Table 50. Other pull factors of migration.	317
Table 51. Expectations and aspirations of potential students	322
Table 52. Expectations and Aspirations of potential, current and returnee students	340

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Origin, destination, and intervening obstacle in migration.....	35
Figure 2. Origin, Constraints and Destination of Migration.....	37
Figure 3. Aspiration to Migrate.....	87
Figure 4. Relationship between Student Migration, Higher Education and Globalization	113
Figure 5. Relationship between the WTO/GATS, education services and students’ migration.....	128
Figure 6. Mode of Supply	131
Figure 7. Conceptual Framework.....	184
Figure 8: Mixed Methods Designs	192
Figure 9. Foreign Students in the OECD Countries in 2001	236
Figure 10. Major Source Countries	240
Figure 11. Major Destination Countries	242
Figure 12. Year-wise NOC Trends	248
Figure 13. Area of Study	261
Figure 14. Academic performance of potential migrant students (n=407)	273
Figure 15. Motivation of the Nepalese students to go abroad (in percent)	294
Figure 16. Status of students.....	321

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ATM	Automated Teller Machine
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CNN	Cable News Network
CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
ERASMUS	European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Student
ECs	Educational Consultancies
ECAN	Educational Consultancies Association of Nepal
EU	European Union
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GPA	Grade Point Average
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HRD	Human Resource Development
HDR	Human Development Report
HSEB	Higher Secondary Education Board
HE	Higher Education
IT	Information Technology
ICT	Information and Communications Technology

IELTS	International English Language Testing System
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KU	Kathmandu University
MD	Managing Directors
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoCS	Ministry of Commerce and Supplies
MNCs	Multi-National Corporations
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NECA	Nepal Educational Consultancies Association
NAAER	Nepalese Association of Australian Educational Representative
NRB	Nepal Rastra Bank
NRN	Non-Resident Nepalese
NOC	No Objection Certificate
NPC.	National Planning Commission
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation & Devt.
PR	Permanent Residence
PBS	Point Based System
SLC	School Leaving Certificate
SSRP	School Sector Reform Plan
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
SAT	Scholastic Aptitude Test (US)
TU	Tribhuvan University
TQM	Total Quality Management

TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TC	Tribhuvan Chandra College
TNCs	Trans National Corporations
UGC	University Grant Commission
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WB	World Bank
WDR	World Development Report
WTO	World Trade Organization

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Migration in General

Human migration started when early civilization began and developed. It is said that sea travel and trade helped in the movements of mankind. With the development of transport and communication, migration occurred across continents in search of better places to live in. Furthermore, industrialization promoted migration. The mass exodus from Europe in the eighteenth century and growth of international migration after the Second World War and particularly since the mid-1980s' has touched almost every country of the world. The migration of skilled people from Europe (especially the UK) to the USA in the 1960s gave birth to a new terminology "*brain drain*". The term has gained wide currency thereafter and now a days it is used when educated and skilled people migrate from developing countries to developed countries for higher income and permanent residence. There can be few people in either industrial or less developed countries today who do not have personal experience of migration and its effects; this universal experience has become a hallmark of the age of migration (Castles & Miller, 2003, p. 5).

Since migration has become a global phenomenon, it is also a great concern for policy makers. Vertovec (2009) views this field as intrinsically multi-disciplinary with contributions stemming from economics, demography, human geography, law, sociology, political science, and anthropology. Brettell and Hollifield (2008, p. vii) have also expressed similar views. Migrations are not an isolated phenomenon: movements of

commodities and capital almost always give rise to movements of people (Castles & Miller, 2003, p.4). It is a multifaceted and complex global issue, which today touches every country in the world (Shen, n.d.). Generally, differences between origin and destination result in migration. Human beings migrate for better opportunities. Migration is always rationalized by “lack of suitable opportunities” in one’s own country (Patnaik, 1997, and Brooks & Waters, 2011, pp.84-85). According to Saravia and Miranda (2004), “opportunity is the driving force of migration”.

Lee (1965, p. 49) has defined migration broadly as a permanent or semi permanent change of residence. He does not mention about the movement of people across political boundary or specific distance such as mileage. The Baccalaureate and Beyond B & B, 2000/2001 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p. 43) study defined migration as a move of more than 50 miles. This definition uses a specific distance rather than a political boundary to define migration. She clarifies that the migrant while crossing the relevant boundary may remain in the same labour market and thus the move is more like a residential move than migration. Numerous studies reviewed for this project used distance rather than a political boundary to define migration. Black (1983) used 100 miles; Gutheil and Copa (1981) used 51 miles; Detang-Dessendre and Molho (1999, 2000) used 100 km (62 miles) to define migration (Heuer, 2004, p. 43). Migration in general refers to geographical or spatial mobility between “one geographical unit and another”. It involves a change of usual place of residence from the “place of origin” to the “place of destination” (Central Bureau of Statistics [CBS], 2011).

Migration is directly related to development, movements of workers, wages, income, employment, remittances, economic growth, trade and other economic opportunities. People think of migration as moving away from home for better earnings. Employment and education

are generally considered to be the main factors that motivate people to migrate to cities (internal) or abroad. Although, international migration has become a global phenomenon in modern times confronting both the developed and developing nations (Rahman 1996; Pattanaik 1997; Bose 1999; Potnuru 2003; and Rashid 2004), it differs from case to case (Pattanaik, 1997). It was only in the early 20th century that the system of nation states, passports, and visas developed to regulate the movement of people across national boundaries (Rashid, 2004, p.6). International migration is both a short-term phenomenon and permanent in nature. Recently, sociology has discussed migration as a core element of globalization (Ritzer, 2007). Castles and Miller (2003, pp.1, 4) also are of the view that international population movements constitute a key dynamic within globalization. They further put their views that it is not an invention of late twentieth century, nor even of modernity in its twin guises of capitalism and colonialism. Migrations have been part of human history from the earliest times.

It is clear from the above discussions that human migration is a result of globalization and touches generally every discipline and particularly economics, sociology and geography. However, Brooks and Waters (2011, pp.10-11) view that although student mobility, migration and the internationalization of higher education has a strong empirical focus and seeks to explore the experiences of students as they move across the globe in pursuit of a higher education, a number of important theoretical debates emanate from the disciplines of education, sociology and geography and help to maintain a strong inter-disciplinary focus. In the words of Baryla and Dotterweich (2001), economists generally view two explanations for human migration namely investment reasons and consumption reasons. They further state that these two reasons are also at the heart of student migration. Although, student migration is associated with both reasons, this study mainly focuses on investment reasons.

Student / Educational Migration

The majority of movement is the migration of labour. However, another significant movement is that of student migration (Nepal Migration Year Book, 2008, p. 16). Migration of students from one country to another for educational purpose is known as student migration (Dalili, 1986; Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 9). In the words of Dean, Hunt, and Smith (2006, p.9), “the flow of residents between states for the purpose of attending college, is known as student migration”. A college student migrant is defined as a student living and enrolled in a college outside of their native state (Smith, 2006). International student mobility refers to students studying in a foreign country (Guruz, 2008, p. 16). Gibson and McKenzie (2009, p. 20) define migration that includes both migration for work abroad, and migrating to undertake tertiary education abroad.

The movement of students is now a global phenomenon King, 2003 (as cited in Comcard, 2009). One of the major migration growth industries in recent years has been that of international students whose numbers are on the rise as a result of internationalization of higher education systems and changing nature of labour markets in sending and receiving countries Sat,2005(as cited in Comcard, 2009). According to CBS (2011), the reason of migration for education and training slightly increased from three to five percent. Educational migration occurs from rural to urban nationally and from one country to another country internationally. Student migration in search of higher education has been increasing day by day especially after the 1990’s when nations were in the globalization process. Similarly, international migration for educational purpose –school migration- is rising (Human Development Report [HDR], 2009, P. 57).

The chance to obtain an education in another country is one of the main motives for youth migration. The rapidly increasing demand for higher education in foreign countries has resulted in the migratory trend of Nepalese students as a result of which thousands of students go

abroad every year in search of higher education in spite of educational opportunities in Nepal. The dream of sending youths to foreign countries for higher studies has become common among parents whether they can afford it or not (Wagley, 2006).

Problem Statement

Why are aspiring students motivated to migrate to foreign countries for higher learning despite educational opportunities available in Nepal?

Students migrate to North America, Europe, Australia, Newzealand, China and Japan for higher education. New emerging countries like Malaysia and Singapore also host international students. Thousands of Nepalese students annually go to foreign countries to pursue higher education. For example, a total number of 24,824; 26,485 and 11,912 Nepalese students took No Objection Certificate (NOC) in order to migrate to study abroad in the Fiscal Year 2008-09; 2009-10 and 2010-11 respectively (Ministry of Education, Scholarship section, 2009; 2010 and 2011) whereas in the same years, 1 043, 1183 and 1303 foreign students were issued visa to study and research at different Universities and educational institutions in Nepal (Higher and Technical education section at Ministry of Education, 2011). The data show that very few foreign students come to Nepal to study higher education as a result of which outflow of foreign currencies to fund higher education abroad has resulted in an unfavourable trade in higher education services. In a simple way, we export more students than we import.

State spends billions of rupees for those who seek abroad study. Students carry with them precious foreign currencies for tuition fees and other living expenses. For example, in the Fiscal Year 2008-09, Nepali students, who went to study abroad, took a total of Rs 12126 million whereas total foreign currencies that they carried was estimated to be 12342.6 and 7166.7 million in the Fiscal Year 2009-10 and 2010-11 respectively (Nepal Rastra Bank, 2011). The growing

trend of Nepali students going abroad for higher education has resulted in an increase of travel expenses during the review period by 58.1 percent (Economic Survey, 2008-2009).

Since there are no official records of returnee students, majority of the students mostly talented and the bright do not return to Nepal, leading to brain drain. It is estimated that only about half of foreign students return home at the conclusion of their studies (Goldin & Reinert, 2007, p. 167). When a college student migrates, he is less likely to return to his native state upon his graduation. Even if a college student migrant does return to his native state following college graduation, he is more likely to migrate again (Smith, 2006). An economist or a demographer might argue that international migration places a strain on resources. It can cause a hemorrhage of scarce human capital- a brain drain- from the sending society, if the brightest and most talented people leave their home countries, Bhagwati, 1976 (as cited in Hollifield, 2008, p. 186). According to Khania (2007), even in Nepal, every year, there is an increase of about 25 percent in the number of students going abroad for higher education so the country needs to bring back the students who go to US, Australia, UK and other countries for education and stay there. They are less likely to return to their native country. Although, they are employed, they get very low salary in Nepal (Kantipur, Sep 06, 2008). Employment opportunities are very limited in Nepal. This is the main reason why student migration has been increasing continuously. Furthermore, political instability has aggravated the situation followed by outflows of students.

Human resource (HR) planning has not been materialized yet. Because of lack of an effective implementation of HR planning, it has become difficult to ascertain what types of skilled people the nation needs. So, intelligent and talented students have gone abroad in search of better opportunities and low skilled people remain in Nepal. Moreover, higher education policy is in a scattered form. So, Nepal lacks HE policy and HR plan.

Although, Government's plan documents always address quality education in Nepal, low quality education has become the main issue from all sectors. One of the main causes of student migration was found to be low quality education in Nepal. Sometimes, there arise socio cultural implications and non-economic or psychological costs (such as leaving friends, families, familiar surrounding) to the parents as well as students. Parents live alone when their children go to foreign countries and in their absence parents and students experience psychological and emotional problems sometimes leading to negative implications.

Educational Consultancies (ECs) provide services to outgoing students. The services include counseling, English language classes and ECs work as a facilitator between students and educational institutions abroad. Students need proper guidance which is missing from ECs side. They are not properly regulated and monitored by the government. The case of UK in 2009-10 is an example (see case study7). The UK Boarder Agency suspended registration of 200 bogus colleges (where Nepalese students were enrolled) in England leaving thousands of Nepalese students stranded. The suspension of below standard colleges has resulted in the loss of millions of foreign currency of Nepalese students.

Finally, Nepalese students' outflow to foreign countries remains an under-researched area. I have not come across any research in Nepal that has explored the motivations and intentions of students who go abroad for higher studies. So, there is a gap in the literature on student mobility in the Nepalese perspectives.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of the study was to analyze and describe Nepalese student migration to foreign country for higher education in a globalized context. More specifically, the study attempted to

identify the trends and causes of student migration and explore students' expectations and aspirations from the standpoint of push-pull factors of student migration.

Research Question

What are the determinants of student migration to go abroad for higher education in a globalized context and how is it perceived by students, policymakers, parents, and Managing Directors of educational consultancies? In order to address the main research question, the following sub-questions were developed.

Research Sub-Questions

R.Q.1. What are the trends/ situation of the global and Nepalese student migration to foreign countries for higher education?

R.Q.2. What are the causes of student migration to foreign countries for higher education and how these causes can be explained from the perspectives of push-pull factors?

R.Q.3. How do potential, current and returnee students perceive their educational aspirations, expectations and perception of going abroad for higher education? and

R.Q.4. How do policy makers, parents, and Managing Directors of the educational consultancies observe student migration in the Nepalese context?

Hypotheses

To address the research question two, the following hypotheses have been developed in this research.

Hypothesis 1:

Ho: There is no significant difference between male and female students in their perceptions towards push factors of migration.

H1: There is a significant difference between male and female students in their perceptions towards push factors of migration.

Hypothesis 2:

H₀: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of ethnic students towards pull factors of migration.

H1: There is a significant difference in the perceptions of ethnic students towards pull factors of migration.

Hypothesis 3:

H₀: Social network factors have no influence on the migration process.

H1: Social network factors have influence on the migration process.

Hypothesis: 4.

H₀: There is no significant relation between income and migration

H1: There is a significant relation between income and migration

Hypothesis 5:

H₀: There is no significant difference between age and migration behaviour.

H1: There is a significant difference between age and migration behavior.

Hypothesis: 6.

H₀: There is no significant difference in the perception of students' age towards causes of migration.

H1: There is a significant difference in the perception of students' age towards causes of migration.

Rationale of the Study

First of all, the main reason for selecting this topic is the interest of the researcher. I had written a dissertation on migration at the Master's level. This study will raise awareness about international student migration which should be a concern to the country. Migration to foreign countries for higher education has received almost no attention at policy level. It has become an urgency for every state to closely monitor student migration and view it as an integral part of the plan in developing human capital.

Migration to foreign countries for higher education has become a common phenomenon in the Nepalese society and a number of students going abroad is on the rise. Nepalese families have sent their sons/daughters to foreign countries for further education. For instance, Nepal has become the eleventh students- sending country to the USA for higher studies in 2008-09 (Institute of International Education, New York, and The Kathmandu Post, Nov 18, 2009). There are innumerable researches simply on general migrations. However, student migration lacks research in Nepal. I have not come across research on student migration in Nepal except a research on causes of educational migration in Nepal internally (Sharma, 2009) and migration for works and studies carried out by Bohra-Mishra (2010). Bohra-Mishra's (2010) research primarily focuses on migration for works (economic migration) and she has slightly touched on migration of studies in Chitwan.

Student migration is a new and unexplored area of study not only in Nepal but also in other countries. In this connection, Brooks and Waters (2011, p. 9) view that it is a relatively neglected group, and youth movement is still largely uncharted. Student migration is one of the major chunks of human migration. For example, at the beginning of the twenty-first century, the immigrant population stood at 36 million, representing 12.5 percent of the total population

(Brettell & Hollifield, 2008, p.1) where as 3.3 million of international students, OECD, 2009, (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011) stand at 9.16 percent of the global immigrant population.

Therefore, I selected this new area in order to explore the causes of student migration.

In conclusion, information and findings of this research are expected to be useful to policy makers, researchers, planners, students, educational consultancies and other concerned organizations for the formulation of policies and for further research in this area. Moreover, the primary data collected in this study lead to foundation for research. The researchers and policy makers would apply the information while doing researches and formulating policies and programmes relating to student mobility. Finally, this research is expected to pave the way for further research on educational migration in Nepal.

Theoretical Framework

Theories of international migration have been propounded primarily by economists and sociologists. Economists have sought to explain population movements in terms of basic push-pull logic whereas sociologists have stressed the importance of transnationalism and social network (Hollifield, 2008, p. 194-195). It is important to consider what theoretical frameworks have previously been used to understand student migration. There are many theories /models typically related to student migration. They are push-pull model, social network theory, human capital theory, and gravity equation model. Anthias (2008, P. 7) linked brain drain with student migration as a theoretical framework in her research on student migration from Bangladesh to the UK.

Historians talk about the push and pull factors that influence migration. Push refers to the reasons why people leave one place to go to another place. Pull looks at why they go to a particular place rather than other possible destinations. Theories that are closely associated with

this research are push-pull theory, social network theory, possible selves' theory and cultural capital. The causes of migration (one of the research questions) are linked with the push-pull theory. This study examined that push and pull factors influence student migration. Student mobilities are influenced not only by push-pull factors but also by social network factor.

Social capital is also one of the factors that helps process in the migration of aspiring students. Families/ friends (social ties) at destination facilitated in the migration of potential students. Push pull factors are external forces that stimulate students to migrate to study but personal characteristics (internal) such as motivation, aspiration also stimulate them to move out of country. In this connection, expectations and aspirations of the Nepalese youths in the course of going abroad were linked with the possible selves' framework. Theories/models related to student migration are discussed in the review of literature.

Limitations

This study involved following limitation.

1 .Due to the lack of resources (time, money) and up to date lists of the Nepalese students (sampling frame) who were enrolled at most of the universities across the USA, it was not possible to survey on a large scale. Therefore, it was decided to conduct a survey in the course of visiting some US universities.

Delimitations

This study involved following delimitations.

1. The study was limited to only those potential students in the origin who have completed Plus 2/ Proficiency/A level or more in any disciplines.

2. Primary data were collected in the USA, UK and Australia in order to have reflexion of the Nepalese students. However, the data collection in the USA, UK and Australia did not represent all the Nepalese students studying in respective countries.
3. The study mainly focused on destinations like the USA, the UK and Australia. However, other destinations were also taken into account. India was excluded from the research area because of lack of authentic data and free flow of movement across border without any restriction.
4. Only the students who go abroad through ECs were included in the research.
5. In connection with time dimension for migration, minimum one year was taken for granted as a migrant student. This research has followed the UN definition which says “The United Nations (as cited in Koser, 2007) defines as an international migrant a person who stays outside his usual country of residence for at least one year (Rashid, 2004, p. 6).
6. Internal student migration (from village to district head quarters to capital) was excluded from this research.

Assumptions

The following are the assumptions in this study.

1. This study assumes that the students enrolled at educational consultancies would complete English language courses like TOEFL, GMAT, SAT, IELTS successfully and get visa.
2. It is assumed that all aspiring students go abroad for further higher education.

Operational Definition of Terminology Used

The followings are the definitions of the terms and concepts used in this study.

Academic Migration: Migration of researchers, scientists and highly qualified people. For the purpose of this research, it is defined as migration for higher education and used in this research synonymously with student migration.

Aspiration: Aspirations are strong objective, desire to achieve something in the future such as success. It is also called aim, goal, hope and ambition. For the purpose of this study, aspirations are students' understanding of having something (hopes) in the future.

Brain Drain: A brain drain or human capital flight is a large emigration of students with technical skills or knowledge normally due to lack of opportunity in the origin. It involves economic costs to origin countries because the state has invested in the students' education and the state loses. This phenomenon is known as '*Brain Drain*'.

Brain drain is closely related to college student migration. For this study, brain drain is the loss of Nepalese students who go abroad for higher studies and do not return to Nepal.

Brain Migration: The causes of brain migration can be explained by the micro theory through the push-pull forces. For this research, brain migration is used interchangeably with student migration.

Brain Gain: The destination country receives human capital as a gift. It has made "brain gain" whereas the country of origin has suffered "brain drain" (Kelo & Wachter, 2004). For the purpose of this study, it has been shown how brain gain benefits both the sending and the receiving countries through student migration.

Brain Trade: It is commercialization of higher education. For the purpose of this study, it has been explained how higher education has become a means of earning money. For

example, the difference between the number of Nepalese students who go abroad and the number of foreign students who come to Nepal has been presented through data.

Brain Circulation: Emigration cannot be said to be permanent. It is called brain circulation or brain mobility. Migrants act as a bridge which contributes to a transfer of technology and knowledge back to their country of origin. In other words, brains do not merely migrate but in fact circulate in the process of global high-tech production.

Therefore, mobility of highly qualified persons can be described as brain circulation.

Current Student: Nepalese students who have been studying in foreign countries and will stay at the destination.

Cultural Capital: For the purpose of this research, cultural capital is known as sending children overseas for acquiring international degrees (credential).

Consumption Abroad: For the GATS, education as an export item refers to a situation where teachers, students, programmes, institutions, or course material cross national border (Martens & Starke, 2008). Under the GATS, consumption abroad refers to a situation where a consumer (in this research student) moves into another territory to obtain a service. In the WTO/GATS parlance, it is called Mode-2. In the case of Nepal, students go abroad to consume education services. So, it has been linked with the student migration.

Demand Side Factor: Demand side factors motivate Nepalese students to seek higher education in countries outside their home countries. The demand for foreign education is migration-related. For example, Nepalese students go to foreign countries for studying because of their demand for further education. Demand occurs at origin.

Diaspora: It is often imprecisely defined as group of people living outside their respective homelands (Brettell & Hollifield 2008, p. 121). For this research, it is the movement of students who move away from their homeland and settle at the destination.

Exodus: The general meaning is mass departure or migration/emigration. It is also defined as the flow of Nepalese students' emigration to different countries particularly during the summer season for the purpose of enrolling within the dead line time prescribed by the educational institution at the destination.

Exporter of Education Services: USA, UK, Germany, Australia are net exporters of higher education services since they maintain a positive balance between number of foreign students and native students who go abroad. They import international students. The US Department of Commerce recognizes education and training as the fifth largest export and formally classifies it as an industry (Shenoy, n.d.). The Nepalese students migrate to those countries for higher education as an importer of education services.

Educational Migration: A student who migrates to foreign country for educational purpose is defined as educational migration. In this research, educational migration and student migration are used interchangeably.

Expectation: Expectations are belief in the future. It is a prospect, hope, probability, especially success. For the purpose of this study, expectations are students' understanding of what is likely to happen and, expectation from higher education abroad. Aspirations and expectations are interchangeably used in this study.

Emigration: Leaving one country to move to another country is known as emigration. For example, Nepalese students emigrated to the UK for higher education or the flow of students out of Nepal. An emigrant is a migrant viewed from the perspective of the origin

country (HDR, 2009). For the purpose of this study, a Nepalese student leaves Nepal for foreign country for higher studies.

Globalization: According to Goldin and Reines (2007), key aspects of globalization are trade, finance, aid, ideas, and migration. Migration of students is a central element of globalization. Educational services, particularly expansion of international trade in higher education services under the WTO/GATS such as an increasing number of student migrating to obtain tertiary education abroad (Mode 2/consumption abroad) is the result of globalization. Education service providers (suppliers) such as foreign Universities/Colleges are also part of globalization. For this research, globalization has been defined as a student crossing the national boundary to seek higher education (globalization of higher education) abroad.

Globalization process: The world becomes more and more connected and events in one country can have a impact on another country. For the purpose of this study, student migration is a continuous process and not yet complete in this globalized world.

Higher Education: Education after Proficiency/ Plus 2/ A level is known as higher education. The term higher education is defined as a student going to foreign countries and enrolling at the university for further studies (undergraduate level). Higher education and tertiary education are synonymously used. Nepalese students migrate to foreign countries with a view to purchasing higher education services. For the purpose of this research, if a student goes abroad to seek further education after Plus Two or Certificate level, it means she/he is going to obtain higher education degree in foreign countries.

Human Capital: According to Brimley, Garfield and Garfield (2007), education is an investment in human capital. Education and training are regarded as key investment with regard to human capital formation. Migration and education are also considered to be the

forms of investment in human capital from the perspective of human capital approach.

For the purpose of this study, students go abroad for an investment in human capital.

Immigration: Moving into a new country, for example, students immigrated to the USA for higher studies. An immigrant is a migrant viewed from the perspective of the destination country (HDR, 2009). In the USA, a Nepalese student is an immigrant.

International Student: International student and student migration are synonymously used. An international student is defined as a student who is a citizen or permanent resident of a country other than that in which s/he intends to study, has a legal residence outside the country that s/he intends to study, and lives solely in host country for educational purposes on a temporary student visa (Shenoy, n.d.). For this research, international student and foreign student are used interchangeably.

International Migrant: An individual, who has changed her/his place of residence by crossing an international border. The United Nations (as cited in Koser, 2007) defines as an international migrant a person who stays outside his usual country of residence for at least one year (Rashid, 2004, p. 6). A student, who stays abroad for minimum twelve months, is regarded as an international migrant in this research.

Importer of Education Services: Nepal is also one of the importers of higher education services. Nepalese students mostly go to the USA to pursue higher education. So, Nepal is the importer of education services and the USA is the exporter of education services. Hence, she maintains a negative balance between the number of Nepalese students who go abroad and number of foreign students who come to Nepal for further studies.

Labour Migration/Economic Migration: It is defined as movement of people abroad for employment purpose. Hence, economic migration is used as a synonym of labour migration.

Migration: Migration is the movement of student (cross-border) abroad for higher education.

Potential Student: Those students who have passed Plus 2/A level/Proficiency level or more and are motivated to migrate to foreign countries for higher education through educational consultancies.

Push Factor/ Origin: The area, from where a student moves out, is his origin. It is also called negative side or push factor of migration. Nepal is the origin country if a Nepalese student migrates to a foreign country for further studies. Reasons for emigrating are the push factor. For example, lack of quality education in Nepal is the reason (push) for migration.

Pull Factor/ Destination: The place, where a student lives for higher studies, is the area of destination. It is also called positive side or pull factor of migration. Reasons for immigrating are the pull factor. In other words, pull factors attract students. For example, students are attracted to the destination due to quality education/ opportunities.

Destinations, for example, are the USA, UK, and Australia.

Returnee Student: Those students who have returned to their home country (country of citizenship) upon completion of their studies abroad.

Student: Not all students are included in this research. Only those students, who are motivated or who aspire to go abroad for higher studies after completing Intermediate/Plus 2 /A level or more, those who have been studying abroad, and those who have returned to Nepal are the target students.

Student Migration: Migration of students from one country to another for educational purpose is known as student migration (Dalili, 1986). A Nepali student eager to go to foreign countries for educational purpose is known as student migration or educational migration.

Student Mobility: It is also a specific form of international migration. Student migration and student mobility are intertwined in a certain way. But some researchers use it interchangeably. Student mobility points at relatively short exchanges in study whereas student migration is highly regulated by states and is subject to strict policies. Brooks and Waters (2011) have used it interchangeably. This study uses it interchangeably.

Study to Work Migration: The general meaning is learning and earning in foreign countries. A student, who is enrolled at a foreign University/College and works (for example, 20 hrs a week) in accordance with the prescribed rules of destination countries. Most of the Nepalese students study as well as work abroad. In other words, it is called study to work migration.

Source Country: It is also called country of origin. The country from where students emigrate to study abroad is known as source country. For example, Nepal is a source country if a Nepalese student goes to foreign country.

Social Capital: For the purpose of this study, social capital, which can be converted into economic capital (Bourdieu, 1986), is the connection between families/relatives/friends/peers. Social capital and social network are used interchangeably.

Social Network: For the purpose of this study, social network is known as connection, facilitations, help and information provided by earlier migrants (current student) to the potential migrant during the mobility process. Social capital and social network are used interchangeably.

Social cost: It is difficult to measure in terms of money. Parents, whose youngsters live abroad, feel loneliness. They are detached from their sons and daughters so nobody

would look after them, which results in social costs. It also includes psychological costs to their sons/daughters.

Supply Side Factor: Supply side factors motivate host countries to invite international students to study at their universities/colleges for higher education. They are education service providers to the students/consumers. Services are provided at the destination. For example, Nepalese students are attracted by foreign Universities/college and they provide education services to the aspirant students.

Transient Migrant: A student who lives abroad temporarily is known as transient migrant. For example, Nepalese students live and study in foreign countries temporarily so they are called transient migrants.

Youth Migration: For the purpose of this study, youth migration and student migration are used interchangeably. It includes both male and female students.

In this thesis, student migration, educational migration, migration for higher education, student mobility, international student, foreign student, student's outflow, out-migration, youth migration, study abroad, study to work migration, migration for studies and academic migration have been used interchangeably.

Organization of Thesis

This thesis has been divided into nine chapters. The first deals with introduction and second chapter reviews the literature. The third chapter describes the research methodology and fourth discusses about the analysis of trends of student migration and fifth part discusses about the causes of student migration. The sixth part deals with the aspirations and expectations of the potential, current and returnee students, seventh part discusses about the views of others' on student migration, the eighth chapter discusses

findings and discussions and the last part presents the summary, conclusion and implications followed by reference and annexes. The next chapter discusses the review of related literature.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter highlights some of the key literatures and researches on human migration in general, and student migration, higher education, and globalization in particular. These are incredibly broad research areas due to globalization and its links with student migration and higher education.

Globalization has influenced internationalization of higher education so the number of student migration from South to North and East to West has increased tremendously as a result of which the number of students going abroad is on the rise. Students' mobility is not limited to a single country but covers many countries. That is why this research has linked with globalization. Therefore, there seems triangular relationship between student migration, higher education and globalization. In other words, globalization process has paved the way for aspiring students to migrate to foreign countries in search of further education. Economic globalization processes have influenced on foreign education (higher education) as well as migration for human development or to achieve human capabilities. According to Velde (2005, p. 12), migration is one of the three economic features of globalization. The other features are trade in goods and services and private cross-border investment.

What are the determinants and consequences of population movement are questions raised by everybody? In more precise terms, they ask who migrates, when do they migrate, why do they migrate, why does migration occur? Anthropologists, demographers, economists, sociologists and geographers have developed different models/frameworks on migration. Brettell

and Hollifield (2008, p. 5) mentioned that sociologists share a common theoretical framework with anthropologists. Both are grounded in the classic works of social theory and each tends to emphasize on social relations. However, sociologists have worked primarily in the receiving society with a few notable exceptions while anthropologists have often worked at the sending, receiving or at both ends. (Brettell & Hollifield, 2008, pp. 5-6).

Economists, geographers, social demographers, sociologists, anthropologists, historians and political scientists have contributed to migration Chiswick, (as cited in Brettell & Hollifield, 2008). From the above discussion, it can be concluded that different disciplines have theorized on migration. However, the dominant discipline has been economics because many researches have been conducted within this discipline.

Many literatures related to student migration, higher education and globalization were reviewed. Most of the literature review was carried out in the libraries of the KU, TU, the British Council, the American, the Kaiser and the Reference Centre of the World Bank in Nepal, Harvard University Massachusetts, Princeton and Rutgers Universities New Jersey (two times), Teachers' College Columbia University, New York, and University of Dallas, Texas, USA and Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), New Delhi. For the purpose of the literature reviews, I visited the USA from 18 April to 17 May, 2008 and India from 28 January to 2nd February 2009. Similarly, after completing my pre-defend viva on 11 April 2012, I re-visited the Firestone library of Princeton University 5- 6 June, 2012; the Widener (college library) and Gutman (Graduate School of Education) libraries of the Harvard University 11-14 June, 2012 and Alexander library of the Rutgers' University on 28 June, 2012.

The review of literature has been arranged and presented in the following thematic sequence such as (a) concept and definition of migration (b) student migration (c) brain drain (d)

relevant theoretical models (e) push-pull and social networks factors (f) summary matrix of theories (g) history of student migration (h) researches on student migration (h) related research on educational migration (i) student migration in the Nepalese perspective (j) Student migration and higher education (K) student migration and globalization and (l) chapter summary

Concept and Definition of Migration

The word “Migration” derives from the Latin verb “Migrare” meaning to move from one place to another. Human migration is the movement of people from one place in the world to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semi-permanent residence, usually across a political boundary (Human Migration Guide, 6-8 2005; Prosser, Raw, Bishop & Miller 2000; Peet 1978; Britannica on line Encyclopedia). In this definition, migration is defined as the movement of people internationally. However, Guinness and Nogle (1999) define it as movement of people across a specified boundary, national or international to establish a new permanent place of residence. In this definition, the author viewed migration both internal and international movement.

The term ‘migration’ is used to refer to change of usual residence between places Encyclopedia of Sociology, 1992, Vol 2,p 984 ,(as cited in Rashid, 2004). According to Stamm (2006, p.5), migration refers to all movements individuals make in their lives. Hines and Tweeten (n.d.) define migration a flow, not only of people, but also of capital through education embodied in migrants. The writers have linked migration with education. According to CBS (2009), “migrants” are defined as any household member who was not born in their current place of residence but who moved to their current residence from another village development committee or municipality or from another country (“life time migration”).

The well-known definition is given by Lee (1965, p.49) who has defined migration broadly as a permanent or semi permanent change of residence. The author further states that no restriction is placed upon the distance of the move or upon the voluntary or involuntary nature of the act, and no distinction is made between external and internal migration. However, not all kinds of spatial mobility are included in this definition. Excluded, for example, are the continual movements of nomads and migratory workers, for whom there is no long-term residence and temporary moves like those to the mountains for the summer (Lee 1965, p. 49). An individual will migrate from location A to location B if he believes that his economic position will improve. Migration is likely to occur when the countries of origin cannot match the benefits offered by the countries of destination. Differences in money income from work in the migrants' native country and country of destination are an important determinant of migration (Antoine, 1982, pp.18-19). The author has emphasized on economic migration. Official definitions of migrants are normally based on moving to a new place for at least one year.

According to Dewal, Mahamood, and Sharma (n.d.), migration involves a sustained or permanent sojourn in the place of destination from their place of origin. But it will be difficult to assess whether it was a permanent change or not. So, keeping these difficulties in mind, definition of migration based on place of birth and place of last residence has been developed in many countries including India (Dewal, et al. n.d.).

Human migration is the movement of people from one place to another place in order to get better living conditions or educational opportunities. Here, migration is linked with education. It is clear that migration takes place for educational purpose as well. Hence, migration has been defined by taking into account internally or externally. Some authors have emphasized

on internal and others external migration. Nonetheless, the definition given by Lee (1965) is generally acceptable to all.

There are two types of human migration namely internal and international. A change of usual place of residence within a nation state is referred to as internal migration and it is contrasted with international migration, which refers to movement of people across national boundaries Encyclopedia of Sociology, vol 2, 1992, p. 984 (as cited in Rashid, 2004, pp. 6-7). The population of any country is altered by three factors namely fertility (birth), mortality (death) and migration. The third factor (migration) is the most difficult to measure as it is a fluid, continuous, non-discrete and poorly defined measure (Rashid, 2004, p.5).

From the demographic point of view, it is a generic term used to refer both to immigration (in-migration) and to emigration (out-migration). Singh (1991) argues that rural-urban migration, rural-rural migration, urban-rural migration and urban to urban migration is very common in most of the developing countries. It is also called internal migration. Like trade and capital flows, international labour flows offer great potential for both the home and the host country. Migrants are often productive, reduce labor costs in the host country and they send remittances to relatives back home; boosting income in the home (WDR, 1995, pp. 64-68).

In statistics on international migration, a migrant is commonly someone who declares an intention to stay in the receiving country at least a year whereas on internal migration, or movement within a country, international comparisons are difficult because nations tend to differ in their definitions of migration (Encyclopedia Americana, 2003-2004). The United Nations (as cited in Koser, 2007) defines as an international migrant a person who stays outside their usual country of residence for at least one year (Rashid, 2004, p. 6). According to Wade (2004, p. 17),

migration is a function of inequality, since the fastest way for a poor person to get richer is to move from a poor country to a rich country.

Migration is influenced by economic and non-economic factors. Among non-economic factors, educational opportunities in the urban areas are listed as the most important cause of rural-urban migration. There are two broad categories of migrants: those who decided to migrate to another country, for primarily economic reasons and those who moved primarily for non-economic reasons Martin & Widgren, 2002, p.3 (as cited in Rashid, 2004, p.7).

Giddens (2001, pp. 258-65) has talked about migration which, he opines, is a process of global integration. It is a reflection of economic, political and cultural ties between countries. It links countries of origin and countries of destination. Scholars have identified four models of migration to describe the main global population movements since 1945 such as the classic model (Canada, USA, and Australia.), the colonial model (France and UK), the guest workers model (Germany, Switzerland and Belgium) and Illegal model. For example, the UK and France have favored their former colonies like India and Algeria respectively. So, many students from India and Algeria have migrated to the UK and France for higher education respectively. According to Labini (2001), to some extent, immigration of people from underdeveloped countries to advanced countries can be the substitute for the emigration of firms from advanced countries to underdeveloped countries. From the literature, it seems clear that there are generally three types of migrants namely labour migrants (economic migration), skilled/ educated migrants (for higher income/ brain drain), and student migrants (for higher education/ brain drain if they did not return upon completion of their studies).

Educational/ Student Migration

Although the issue of students studying abroad and not returning to their homeland has been with us since the days of ancient Greece Coutsoumaris 1968, pp.166-67, (as cited in Wobbekind & Graves, 1989), the first models of this student migration were developed in the 1960s. The pioneering works of Agarwal (1977) and Winkler and Agarwal (1981) view the demand for higher education on an international level as a form of migration. Migration, hence international demand for education, has been found to be selective of individuals according to age, income (ambiguously) and education (Wobbekind & Graves, 1989, pp. 274-275).

Dolby and Rizvi, 2008 (as cited in Brooks and Waters, 2011, p.13) have discussed “the growing category of youth movement which is still largely uncharted “- young people who move for educational purposes and, in doing so, create new networks and circuits of identity. Sharma (2009,p.2) is of view that the students seeking for higher education opportunity have to leave their place of origin and move to the city areas resulting in the educational migration. According to Clark and Neave (1992), international student mobility is the movement of tertiary-level students from one country to another in quest of education or training. Students also deserve to be considered as specific actors of international migration. Although this lacuna has been identified a long time ago, international student mobility is still under theorized (Piguet, 2009, p. 3). Wobbekind and Graves (1989) also view that the area of international migration for educational purpose is still in its infancy. The views of different authors on student mobility indicate that it is an unexplored and new area.

International students are seen as migrants only if they are in the country of education for a longer period of time since it would involve a change in their life course or increase in their language abilities and likely to be employed upon their graduation (Comcard, 2009). Kelo and

Wachter (2004, p. 15) are of view that a foreign student, originally clearly a temporary migrant, can be offered and accept employment after graduation, thus turning into a permanent migrant. There are many motives to migrate to foreign countries. Most of the migration theorists have generally cited employment (skilled i.e. brain drain, unskilled migration) and educational opportunities (student migration) as the main motivation to migrate abroad.

There are three ways of theorizing international student mobility such as international students are seen as a subset of highly skilled migration, as a product of globalization, placing international student mobility within research (Comcard, 2009). According to Goldin and Reinert (2007, pp. 24-25), migration takes place when persons move between countries either temporarily or permanently, to seek education and employment or to escape adverse political environments. They further view that students are also categorized into migrants.

Employment opportunities have been main motives for internal as well as international migration whereas migration also occurs to get better educational opportunities. Education and employment are generally considered to be the main factors that motivate people to move to the city (Cooke & Belonger, 2006; Ong, 1991; Clark & Neave, 1992). As much of the research shows, while people migrate for employment, a large number also migrate for further education, and it would be interesting to explore the experiences of both groups; often combined issues of both migration and education are priorities for policy makers in both the developed and developing countries. (Workshop, Norwich, 2007, p.3). Worldwide, there is also a significant international movement of students too, and they often are also included in the category of highly skilled migrants (Koser, 2007).

There are two main study abroad models for Europeans going to the US. Students who study for a European degree and spend a period of study at a university in the US are usually on

a reciprocal, fee waiver exchange between their home and host university. This model is based on the swap principle and functions best when roughly equal numbers of students are sent and received by each partner. The principle of balanced, one –for- one exchange has been implemented on a multilateral basis through the International Student Exchange Programme (ISEP). The second model for Europeans in the US is that of students going abroad once they have completed a first degree in Europe and enrolling as regular, fee- paying students at an American university (Haug, 1996, p.184). This research is based on second model in which students go abroad for higher studies generally after completing the Certificate level in Nepal either with fee-paying or scholarship.

Educational migration started globally during the 1960's. Highly educated and skilled persons like doctors, engineers of the developing countries migrated to developed countries with a view to earning money and increasing further education. This is called brain drain. So, international migration for higher education speeded up with the process of globalization. Some household families migrate to work for payment for education. There are innumerable numbers of poor students/children who work as domestic workers in the cities with a view to attending schools. In such case, poverty is the main cause of migration.

According to Hashim (2005), there are basically five education- related migrations. Firstly, educated people are more likely to migrate than uneducated people (brain drain). Secondly, students migrate for educational opportunities either internally or externally. Thirdly, father/young people/elder brother/girls migrate to support their' siblings' education or parental migration can also broaden the opportunities for educating the children remaining at home. Fourthly, students/ children migrate for an income to continue their education, for example, in Ghana. Finally, some children migrate because they are disappointed that their parents will not

send them to school (Hashim, 2005). According to the Human Development Report (2009, p. 2), most migrants, internal or international, reap gains in the form of higher incomes, better access to education and health, and improved prospects for their children. Educational migration attaches importance these days. For instance, in the 1990's, 21% of the out-migrants were students (Singh, 1991). The linkages between migration and education are significant and occupy second position after work/poverty migration (Hashim, 2005). Hence, educational opportunities are the motivational factor of migration.

Tertiary study abroad is a large and growing industry. It often serves as one of the only legal ways for youth from developing countries to enter developed countries-and provides opportunities to turn migration for education into that for work (employment). Similarly, opportunities to migrate to obtain a tertiary or higher education are very important for individuals in countries with limited domestic tertiary education systems (WDR, 2007).

Relevant Theories / Models

According to Shrestha (2001), although Karl Marx did not promulgate any specific theory of migration, his works included an elaborate conceptualization of the displacement of labour to cities. In sum, Marx examined migration in terms of its production roles. In contrast, Ravenstein (1885, 1889) discussed migration from a behavioural perspective as an individual decision making process. Migration was viewed as a free choice intended to maximize utility out of "scarce resources". He focused on providing an economic behavioural explanation of why people moved (Shrestha, 2001, pp.44-46). The author further elaborates that increasing tides of cityward migration and growing urban unemployment and underemployment led to a new generation of studies in the 1960's notably the works of S. Jaastad (1962), Lee (1965), Todaro (1969) and Harris & Todaro (1970). He states that from the present theoretical discourse, three

major issues of migration and development can be discerned. The first issue concerns the question of *who* migrates. This question relate to migrants' class position and background rather than their age and sex distinctions or educational attainments. The second issue concerns *why* migration occurs rather than why individual migrants move. But, root cause of migration remains basically the same. The process of migration cannot be analyzed and explained in isolation. The third issue is directly related to the question of *how* migration affects migrants as well as development (Shrestha, 2001, pp. 64-65). This research is directly or indirectly linked to all issues.

The venerable push-pull theory has been premise for this research. Students also deserve to be considered as specific actors of international migration. Although this lacuna has been identified a long time ago, international student mobility is still under theorized (Remaking Migration Theory, conference 13-14 May, 2009, Brighton). The relevant theoretical models that link directly or indirectly to the student migration are discussed below.

Push-Pull Theory

Students move for a variety of reasons. The main reasons are push and pull factors. Many researchers such as Sirowy and Inkles (1985), Cummings (1984), Lee and Tan (1984), Agarwal and Winkler (1985), Niece and Braun (1977), and Chen (2007) have applied the push-pull model in student migration. As Hollifield (2008, p. 184) states that push-pull and cost benefit analysis are closely associated with neoclassical economics (Castles & Miller, 2003, p.22) whereas networks and transnationalism are analytical concepts derived primarily from world system theory and most often studied in sociology and anthropology. Although, this theory is generally associated with economics, it applies equally to student migration as well. Educational migration

appears as an investment. Students decide to migrate based on cost-benefit calculation. To obtain better education, students invest in the cost of migration. Castles and Miller (2003) also view that human capital is the central concept of push-pull model. People decide to invest in migration in the same way as they might invest in education or vocational training because it raises their human capital and brings potential future gains in earnings. The main reason for applying push-pull model is that it is the premise for migration in general.

This theory was developed by geographer E.G.Revenstein who formulated “laws of migration” (1889). It was reformulated by Everette Lee (1965). According to this theory, people move for a variety of reasons. They consider advantages and disadvantages of staying versus moving such as push-pull factors including environmental, political, economic and cultural factors. Decisions to migrate are made by rational individuals seeking to maximize their utility, in full recognition of both benefits and costs. Benefits and costs are determined by supply and demand differentials across national labour markets that produce differences in both employment prospects and earnings (Brettell & Hollifield, 2008). Push-pull model has also been labeled as brain migration. Student migration has also been often viewed as a category of skilled migration which constitutes a loss of human capital for developing countries (Anthias, 2008, p 07).

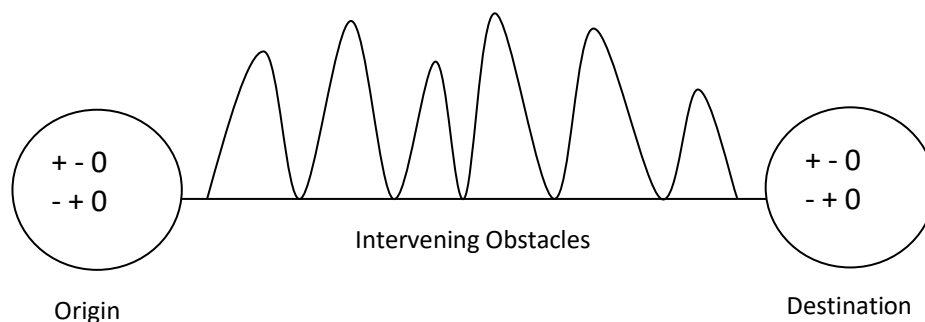
A push factor is a forceful factor and is generally a problem (negative), whereas a pull factor is a positive and attracts college students. A rational person calculates the benefits and costs in push-pull model before migrating. Students are pushed and pulled by different reasons. The push-pull model has attracted the interests of many theorists, educationists, and development economists towards its applicability in the educational migration as a result of which many pundits of economists have applied this model not only in economic migration but also in student migration. The major causes of migration are economic.

Push pull model can be explained in understanding student migration. Students may like to move or migrate (push factors) because of dissatisfaction with different factors like low quality education and career opportunities, unemployment, and political instability. Similarly, he/she may be attracted to foreign countries (pull factors) due to prestige and currency of foreign degree (globally accepted degree), quality education, opportunities provided by globalization, employment and career opportunities.

Lee (1965) pointed out that the migration process is selective because differential such as age, gender, and social class affect how persons respond to push-pull factors. Furthermore, personal factors such as a person's education, knowledge of destination, family ties, can facilitate or retard migration. From Lee's theory, it can be concluded that the causes of migration are push (origin) factors, pull (destination) factors, intervening obstacles and personal factors.

Much of the early work on migration was influenced by modernization theory and neo-classical economic models that emphasized both the 'push' factors of out-migration and 'pull' factors of in-migration. Therefore, "push-pull" model and "laws of migration" are foundations for migration. These two have provided stimulus for research and writing on migration. Figure 1 shows origin, intervening obstacle and destination of migration.

Figure 1. Origin, destination, and intervening obstacle in migration



Source: Lee's Theory of Migration (1965, p. 50) edited by Robin Cohen (1996) in theories of migration

Figure 1 shows origin (push), destination (pull) and intervening obstacles. The decision to migrate and process of migration are summarized under four headings namely factors associated with the area of origin, factors associated with the area of destination, intervening obstacles and personal factors (Lee, 1965, pp. 49-50). The first three of these factors are presented in figure 1. The sign (+) (-) and (0) indicates pull factor, push factor and indifferent respectively. At the origin, the sign (+) discourages migration and the sign (-) encourages migration. Similarly, at the destination, (+) indicates encouragement for migration and (-) sign discourages migration. According to Lee (1965), pull and push factors affect different people differently (Singh, 1991). The set of (+) and (-) at origin and destination is differently defined for every migrant or prospective migrant. Between every two points, there stands a set of intervening obstacles. The most studied of these obstacle is distance. The author has given the example of the Berlin Wall or immigration laws that may restrict the movement (Lee, 1965).

Age, sex, race, distance, education and labour force are important variables for push-pull model. According to Lee (1965, p. 48), true, there have been studies of age and migration, sex and migration, race and migration, distance and migration, education and migration, the labour force and migration, and so forth, but most studies which focused upon the characteristics of migrants have been conducted with little reference to the volume of migration, and few studies have considered the reason for migration or the assimilation of the migrant at destination. Referring to earlier studies on migration including researched by Ravenstein (1885, 1889) who first propounded the 'Laws of migration', he talks about the education and migration on the one hand and indirectly about brain drain on the other hand. For example, highly educated persons who are already comfortably situated frequently migrate because they receive better offers

elsewhere. Professionals and managerial people are also highly mobile, and often because migration means advancement (Lee, 1965, p 56).

Hence, Lee (1965) in his theory of migration had spoken of definition, factors (origin, destination, intervening obstacle and personal) which enter into the decision to migrate, volume and rate of migration, and characteristics of migrants. To some degree, migration is a part of the rites de passage. Prosser, Raw, Bishop, and Miller (2000) have referred to Lee's origin-constraints-destination model which is shown below. They further state that the potential migrant weighs the advantages (+) and the disadvantages (-) of the origin against the perceived advantages (+) and disadvantages (-) of the destination. In figure 2, origin, constraints and destination are clearly presented.

Figure 2. Origin, Constraints and Destination of Migration

Origin	Constraints Filter	Destination
Evaluation of:		Evaluation of:
-Positive (+) factors	-Poverty	-Positive (+) factors
-Negative(-) factors	-Cultural barriers	-Negative(-) factors
	-Language differences	
	-Illiteracy	
	-Government policy	
	-Poor information	
	-Distance	

Source: Prosser et al. (2000) Land Mark As Geography (2nd edi, P.185).

In figure 2, positive and negative factors at origin and destination and some barriers are shown. People decide to migrate because of negative factors like unemployment at the origin and positive factors like employment opportunities at destination. Nevertheless, migration is hindered by barriers like illiteracy, distance or lack of money.

This model has also been criticized on the ground that aspirations of people, return migration, impacts of migration and internal factors are not discussed. Push pull are generally mirrored in each other and it is ahistorical (Haas, 2007). Furthermore, the push-pull model cannot explain why a certain group of migrants goes to one country rather than another for example, why most Algerians have migrated to France and not Germany, while opposite applies to Turks (Castles & Miller, 2003, p. 24). In spite of criticism, this model is a milestone in the theory of migration. It clearly states that push-pull factors are main reason for migration.

Social Network Theory

The flow of information is very important for migration. Nelson, 1959 (as cited in Gallup, 1997) pointed out that family and friends who have previously migrated provide important information about their destination to subsequent migrants. Relatives and friends often provide food and lodging to the new migrant until he/she can find a job and they can make the social transition easier. He further states that there are increasing returns to scale in migration to a particular destination because of personal contacts. Empirically, past migration of family and friends is found to influence current migration (Gallup, 1997, pp. 5-6). Personal relationships (families, friends, relatives) represent push and pull factors (Kelo & Wachter, 2004, p. 23). For example, if student's relative/family/ friend live in another country, the link acts as a pull factor.

A pioneer in this regard is Douglas Massey, who was one of the first sociologists to point out the importance of social networks in linking sending and receiving societies (Hollifield, 2008, p.194). The network theory of migration, building upon social network theory stresses the importance of direct and indirect relationships in the migration decision Boyd, 1989 (as cited in Davis, Stecklov, & Winters, 2002). Current and past migrants that form one's network can be

viewed as a form of social capital, Massey, Goldring & Durand 1994 (as cited in Davis et al. 2002).

According to this theory, early migrants provide potential migrants with different information. Job opportunities, accommodation, food and other assistance are provided by relatives or friends who are already in the destination. Therefore, strong social ties facilitate to the process of migration leading to the reduction in transport costs and other expenses, Taylor, 1986 (as cited in Davis et al. 2002). Using data from two Mexican villages, he examines the role of networks on the decision to migrate within Mexico or to the US. Anthropologists have examined the role of networks based largely on ties of kinship and friendship in the process of chain migration or what Wilson, 1994 (as cited in Brettell, 2008) has recently labeled “network mediated migration”. Wilson (1994, p.124) prefers this network approach to a market theory approach.

Every new migrant reduces the costs of subsequent migration for a set of friends and relatives, and some of these people are thereby induced to migrate, which further expands the set of people with ties abroad(Brettell,2008). Migration networks are a broad concept, and include factors that enable people to learn about opportunities abroad as well as the migration infrastructure that enables migrants to cross national borders and remain abroad Massey, et al, 1998 (as cited in Martin, 2004).

According to Moretti (1999), earlier migrants have on the probability that relatives and friends follow them. The cost of moving to a region is lower when there is an established network of previous migrants. Firstly, the previous migrants provide information to prospective migrants. Secondly, previous migrants can provide later migrants the money to cover transportation costs also temporary housing and food in the period. Finally, relatives or friends

who are already living overseas can provide indispensable help in the early stages of settlement (Moretti, 1999, p. 649).

Moretti (1999) has provided evidence that there is a negative relation between emigration flows and wage differentials or no correlation at all. The Todaro- Hatton neoclassical model predicts that higher wage gaps between home and destination countries should increase the migration rate. However, the researcher disproved the model in the case of Italian Diasporas. An Italian worker at the end of the nineteenth century trying to decide where to migrate is more likely to choose the US, Argentina or Brazil, where an uncle, a friend or somebody else from his own village is more likely to be living, rather than Canada, where he would earn a higher wages. The path-dependent model of migration suggests that the probability of migrating to a specific destination depends primarily on an already established network of relatives and friends. (Moretti, 1999, pp. 650-51).

According to Davis, Stecklov, and winters (2002), quantitative studies of Mexican migration show that individual migration decisions are greatly influenced by both current and past migration experiences of members of their migrant network. The authors further explain that networks influence migration because potential migrants use their network connections to obtain information that alter the returns to migration and, if the decision to migrate is taken, use these networks for direct assistance in the migration process thus lowering the cost of migration. Studies have shown that both strong and weak network ties may play a role in migration with the former referring to ties to kin and close friends and the latter between acquaintances Boyd, 1989, Wilson, 1998 (as cited in Davis et al. 2002). The authors argue that networks are assumed to provide information and assistance to potential migrants that increase the probability of

migration. Hence, information and assistance provided by network migrants influence the migration decisions.

This network theory has been closely associated with the student migration as well. Hugo (2005, p.14) in his research paper on Chinese academic migration to Australia has mentioned that networks are an important influence on the decision to migrate and the decision of where to migrate to. He asserted that some 40 percent of respondents said all of their family lived in Australia. The network factor is also strongly evident in the interactions which respondents have in Australia. Dreher and Poutvaara (2006, p. 11) have mentioned that students may tell others about their experiences and have networks that other migrants may use. Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) view that social and cultural factors such as family ties, social networks, and socialization processes may have a strong impact too. Todaro and Smith (2006, p. 343) have stated that earlier migrants create a positive externality for later potential migrants by lowering their costs of moving, and lowering their probability of unemployment and by providing them with jobs or information about available jobs. It means that those who have already gone abroad provide information and other facilities which are termed as social network. Anthias (2008, p. 8) in her research on student migration has talked about the importance of social networks.

Brooks and Waters (2010) on “social networks and educational mobility: the experiences of UK students” have focused more on social networks and state socially-embedded nature of educational mobility and importance of various kinds of social networks in explaining how and why young adults in the UK decide to move abroad for their tertiary education. The research is qualitative with eighty five participants. The authors have given kinship networks, friendship networks, and partner and other romantic relationships.

Students make their plan to go to foreign countries provided they get support from their relatives and friends who have been living abroad. Therefore, social ties also play an important role in the migratory behavior of the potential students. For example, if a student's close relatives are in a particular country, he/she is likely to migrate to study in that country. This theory is one of the main determinants of migration. Like push-pull theory, social network theory influences student migration. Although, many researchers have applied this theory in economic migration, it can also be applied to student/academic migration.

Possible Self Theory

Regarding expectations and aspirations of the people, researchers have described a number of theories like Social Comparison Theory, Status Attainment Theory and Possible Self Theory. Markus and Nurius (1986) have explained possible selves which are linked to self-concept (motivation). According to them, possible future selves are not just any set of imagined roles or states of being. Instead, they represent specific, individually significant hopes, fears, and fantasies. These possible selves are individualized or personalized, but they are also distinctly social. They further state that individuals have ideas, beliefs, and images about their potential and about their goals, hopes, and fears. Students' expectations and aspirations are also influenced by social change, gender, historical events and parental status. Therefore, these possible selves relate to aspiration, motivation, desires, goals, hopes, fears and threats. The writers have quantitatively analyzed the possible self in six categories like personality, life-style, physical, general abilities, other's feelings and occupation. They also analyzed positive and negative selves. It is about the future behavior of the migrant students. What would the potential, current and returnee students like to be in the future? In other words, their motivations, feelings, hopes, desires, fears relate to this theoretical approach.

The Search for Cultural Capital

Students go abroad to acquire knowledge. They are attracted by foreign credentials. Ong, 1999 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011) contends that an overseas education should be conceptualized in terms of the accumulation of cultural, social and ultimately economic capital. According to Bourdieu, 1986 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, pp.60-61), cultural capital, which is convertible, on certain conditions, into economic capital may be institutionalized in the form of educational qualification. For example, for middle class families from East Asia, the accumulation of cultural capital frequently includes the practice of sending children overseas for education (Brooks & Waters, 2011 p. 61). Cultural capital is the product of education which Bourdieu also often referred to as an “academic market”, and exists in three distinct forms: personified or connected to individual like a habitus- accent, dispositions, earning; objectified – books, qualification and institutionalized – places of learning, universities, libraries and credentials Michael & David, 1998, pp.20-24; Grenfell & James; Reay & Robins, 1998 (as cited in Parajuli, 2002, p.30). Hence, Bourdieu’s (1986) cultural capital can be conceptualized in understanding student mobilities. Academic credential reflects the significance of accumulating cultural capital for aspiring East Asian elites (Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.60). Nepalese students’ motive for overseas education can be conceptualized in understanding the social status as well as economic capital thereby leading to job opportunities in the future.

Other Related Theories/ Models

Push-pull theory, social network theory, possible self theory, and cultural capital were reviewed in understanding student migration. There are also other related models and theory which are discussed below.

The Todaro Model

According to Bose (1999, p. 10), there are three models under the neo-classical approach - the Lewis Model, the Ranis and Fie model and the Todaro model. According to Lewis, 1954 (as cited in Bose, 1999), migration occurs from the subsistence sector to the capitalist sector primarily because of the wage gap of around 30 percent that exists between the two sectors. It means migration occurs because of wage differential between the origin and destination as long as there exists surplus labour at the origin. According to Ranis and Fie (as cited in Bose, 1999), migration would occur in response to a wage differential, even in absence of surplus labour at the origin. Both theories explain from the 'supply side' of labour and do not consider the demand side (Bose, 1999, p.10).

The Todaro (1969) model is purely an economic model through the interaction of forces of supply and demand. This theory is called the Todaro migration model or the Harris –Todaro model. Although this model was developed in 1969, it has established the premise for student migration as well. For example, the Todaro model, therefore, provides an economic rationale for the observed fact in most LDCs that rural inhabitants with more education are more likely to migrate than those with less (Todaro & Smith, 2006, p. 344). It indicates that people with education are highly likely to migrate to city. Therefore, education is one of the main factors that affect migration decision in the Todarion framework.

The author further explains that indiscriminate educational expansion will lead to further migration, unemployment (Todaro & Smith, 2006). In addition to education (human capital), this theory discusses about international migration, costs and benefits of migration, educated migrants, private demand for education, potential migrants, income differential, market opportunities and migrants' expectations which are directly or indirectly associated with student migration as well.

In other words, Todaro has presented education as one of the factors affecting migration. The main prediction of the Todaro-Hatton neo-classical model is that, everything else constant, higher wages gap between home and destination countries should increase the migration rate.

Todaro (1969) postulates that migration occurs in response to increased expected income at the destination rather than actual wage differential. The demand side is incorporated through the consideration of ‘probability’ of getting a job at the destination. The supply side is incorporated into the Todaro model through the term r (rural wage). Lower the wage rate in rural areas or at the origin, greater is the push for migration (Bose, 1999, pp. 11-12). Therefore, the Todaro model has put forward the income differential factor as the determinant of the decision to migrate. Similarly, migration is stimulated by benefits and costs.

Demand side is very effective since Nepalese students demand for higher education and plan to go to study in foreign country. Similarly, employment (earnings) opportunity in the destination is also one of the major determinant factors for them. Since Heuer (2004) has used human investment theory. She also has talked about the Todaro’s formulation of cost-benefit model because of its foundation of migration theory.

Gravity Model

“Gravitation is here, as everywhere, in direct ratio of the mass and inverse one of distance” (Gallup, 1997). The well-known gravity model of migration flows provides a means of studying the relationship between two places. This model specifies the flow of movement between two points (origin and destination). Gravity models have been used numerous times to study various population movements most frequently in the study of interurban migration (Guest & Cluett, 1976). Thissen and Ederveen (2006) have used a gravity equation to estimate the determinants of student mobility.

Since Tinbergen (1962) and Linneman (1966) argued the gravity equation used in physics could also be applied in economics to explain trade flows or migration flows, many studies have used this equation to do so. In the gravity equation, trade or migration flows are expected to depend negatively on distance and positively on the size of the economy measured by GDP, or in case of people flows, measured by population. The authors further claim that a higher population in either the country of citizenship or the host country is expected to have a positive effect on student mobility. For example, if a country has more students, it can be expected that the absolute number of students going abroad is large as well. A higher tuition in the host country compared to tuition in the country of citizenship is expected to decrease student flow to host country. GDP and unemployment are the familiar economic variables in any migration equation. A higher unemployment rate in the country of citizenship is expected to have a positive effect on student migration. A larger physical distance is expected to reduce enrollment abroad (Thissen & Ederveen 2006).

When student migration is a precursor to labour migration, student flows are expected to go from low-income to high-income countries. Furthermore, there may be a positive relationship between GDP per capita and educational quality in a country. A higher GDP per capita in the host country could also influence student migration to that country positively since students are simply more willing to be in a country with a high GDP per capita level. Likewise, a higher GDP per capita in the country of citizenship may affect student migration negatively (Thissen & Ederveen 2006).

Previous research suggests that higher status workers and blacks travel farther to work than other workers, while women travel a lesser distance to work. The gravity model approach may be expanded to include push and pull factors of the community of origin and the community

of destination (Guest & Cluett, 1976, p. 401). Agasisti and Bianco (2007) have investigated the determinants of college student migration in Italy by using a gravity model. It was found that the distance from the area of residence to the destination (university location) plays a deterrent role. Finchum (1992) used gravity model based on migration distance.

This model also draws some criticism. For example, with the development of transport and in the globalized context, migrant crosses the international border and travels more distance to study and work; even a higher tuition fees in the destination attract international students for quality education; a student from a higher percapita GDP country (origin) goes to another high GDP country (destination) for higher education (student from the UK goes to the USA for learning). It means that female migrant, a larger physical distance and high tuition fees in host country do not play a deterrent role in migration. Despite criticism levelled against this model, many researchers have applied this model in student migration.

Human Capital Theory

Human capital theory is the dominant theoretical explanation of the relation between earnings and economics, Monk-Turner, 1998 p.15 (as cited in Smith, 2006). This theory was developed by Nobel laureate, Gary Becker (1964). S. Jaastad-Becker hypothesize that higher human capital individuals are more geographically mobile. In accordance with the human capital theory, a better return on investment is realized in the migration of younger people (Aidis, Krupickaite & Blinstrubaite, 2005). This theory calculates the cost and benefits of migration based on the human capital. Hence, educated people (student) move to different countries in order to study and earn there.

Education and training greatly raise personal income even after subtracting the direct and indirect costs of education. The main thesis of this theory is that individuals will weigh

their benefits as well as costs of migration based on the human capital. According to Gallup (1997), migration decision is a human capital investment problem in which the potential migrant assesses the costs and returns of moving. A migrant moves when there is a net positive return. Although it is very difficult to calculate the costs of migration, economists have successfully calculated it. There are two types of costs of migration namely money and non-money costs. The former involves expenses of migration and later encompasses foregone earnings while travelling, searching for and learning a new job (opportunity costs), and psychic costs (family, friends, and familiar surroundings).

Education and migration both represent investments in human capital in the sense that both entail costs borne in anticipation of enjoying returns in the future. Economic migrants have earnings as the primary motive for migrating (Psacharopoulos, 1987, pp. 197,199).

Migration and education are complementary; investing in one enhances the returns to investment in other. Education is no longer treated as a consumer good but rather as a productive asset. As private investments in human capital through education have shown to be positive, so have public investment in human capital. Human capital theory asserts that individuals consciously choose to invest in themselves through various activities (through education and training but can also be done through migration). Costs of migration are a form of human investment (Smith, 2006). Sabut (as cited in Psacharopoulos, 1987. p. 198) has, therefore, concluded that educated reap higher returns from migration. In other words, higher rates of migration among the educated are due to higher economic returns and lower costs.

Marshall (1930) emphasized the importance of education as a national investment and in his view, the most valuable of all capital is that invested in human beings (Harbison &

Myers, 1964). Human beings invest in themselves by means of education, training which raises their future income (Y) by increasing their lifetime earnings. Investment produces income in the future whereas consumption does not create income. The traditional economists view that investment and capital tend to concentrate on physical capital (machinery, equipment, and building) not on human capital but Adam Smith (1937, reissue) spoke about the education that helped to increase productive capacity of labour like machinery so an analogy was drawn between investment in physical capital and human capital.

In the early 1960's, American economist - T. Schultz (1961) analyzed educational expenditure as a form of investment. Since that time, the concept of human capital has dominated the economics of education and powerful influence on labor market, wage determination, analysis of economic growth, expenditure on health care, and study of migration. Other investment in human capital includes on the job training, work experience, process of job search, and information, Journal of political economic 1961, Schultz & Gary Becker (as cited in Psacharopoulos, 1987 Eds.).

According to Taylor and Martin (n.d.), human capital migration theory produces a number of testable hypotheses. Firstly, because this is a dynamic model, the young people should be more mobile than the old, in as much as they stand to reap returns from migration over a longer period of time. Secondly, migration between locales should be negatively related to migration costs (negative association between migration flows and distance). Thirdly, Rosenzweig 1988, (as cited in Taylor & Martin, n.d.) points out neutral productivity growth in an economy (equal rates of growth in the rural and urban sectors) will increase migration from low-income (rural) to high income (urban) sectors or areas. Finally, specific

human capital variables that yield a higher return in region A than in region B should be positively associated with migration from B to A. Human capital theory implies that income differentials between rural and urban areas are eliminated by migration over time.

Sjaastad's, 1962 (as cited in Heurer, 2004) human investment theory views the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving the individual's expected costs and returns over time. He breaks costs into monetary (increase in expenditure for food, lodging, transportation over what one would spend if one did not move) and non-monetary (psychological costs of leaving familiar surroundings, family and friends). Returns also include both monetary (increased earnings) and non-monetary (psychological benefits due to locational preference such as climate and proximity to family or friends) benefits. This assumes that migrants are motivated by rational economic considerations.

Age selectivity is consistent with human capital model, where the young have a relatively long time to reap the returns with migration (Becker, 1964, Gallup, 1997). Age is a very strong determining factor. A classical explanation of this fact from the human capital theory is that younger persons receive higher returns on their migration investment, since the amortization period for the investment is longer (Kelo & Wachter, 2004, p. 24). There is a strong relationship between age and student migration. For example, if old person migrates, returns from migration will be low unlike younger people who would get higher returns from migration. Similarly, potential students assess the costs and benefits and migrate abroad if later exceeds former. Tuckman (1970) used the human capital approach to explain college student migration, hypothesizing that students migrate to increase the expected benefits resulting from their education. He proposed that students will migrate when their expected returns exceed costs.

According to Brimley, Garfield and Garfield (2007), education is an investment in human capital. Migration is also an investment of human capital. According to Sjaastad, 1962 (as cited in Singh, 1991), migration is a resource allocation activity. It involves costs as well as benefits. Migration is an investment increasing the productivity of human resources. It takes place only if benefits weigh more than private costs of migration. Education is at the centre of human capital theory. Adam Smith was the pioneer in the development of human capital theory. Importance of well trained workforce is necessary for economic development. The Todaro model has also pointed to the costs and benefits of migration. The Nobel laureate Sen (2000) has also given the importance of the literature of 'human capital' and 'human capability' and their relation between them is expression of freedom. According to human capital theory, people move to find employment and remuneration more appropriate to their formal education (Iredale, 2001).

While linking human capital theory with student migration, it can be concluded that this theory is directly connected to student mobility. For example, many researchers like Tuckman (1970), Heuer (2004), and Smith (2006) have applied this model to college student migration. So, educational migration in the Nepalese context can be considered to be an investment in a positive way if they return to Nepal after completion of their studies or they may serve the country from destination with the help of brain circulation and remittance. Student migration in Nepal generally occurs between 18 to 24 years of age in order to reap the benefits and returns of investments in migration.

In spite of criticisms, the migration theories / models discussed above have been popular in understanding migration in general and student migration in particular. To summarise, the push-pull model tells us about the factors that influence migration. The social

network theory builds up social capital that facilitates migration process. The possible self theory is linked with expectations and aspirations and cultural capital relates to obtain academic qualification that can be converted into economic capital. Human capital theory calculates costs and benefits of migration and migration like education is also an investment in human capital. The gravity model may be explained to include push-pull factors of origin and destination. Finally, the Todaro model discusses about demand and supply factors of migration and main thesis of this model is income/ wages differential factor as the determinant of the decision to migrate. The Todarian model also has touched education as one of the factors that affects migration decision. Table 1 presents the summary of migration theories/ models.

Table 1. Summary Matrix of Major Migration Theories

Theories/ Models	Related Disciplines	Major Contributors	Main Themes
Gravity Model	Physics Economics	H.C.Carey(1858) Tinbergen(1962) Linneman (1966)	1.Migration flows depend negatively on distance and positively on population 2. Relationship between origin and destination 3. Positive relationship between GDP p/c and edu.quality 4. Students flow from low to high income economies 5. Higher tuition fees in host country decrease migration 6. Unemployment in origin leads to positive migration
Human Capital Theory	Economics Economics of Education	Marshall(1930,) Adam smith(1937) T. Schultz (1961) L.A.Sjaastad (1962) Gary Becker (1964) Harbison & Myers (1964) Sen (2000)	1.Human capital individuals more geographically mobile 2. Individuals weigh benefits as well as costs of migration 3. Education- centre of human capital theory 4. Decision to migrate as an investment decision 5. Younger persons receive higher returns 6. Discusses monetary and non-monetary costs and benefits 7. Migration decreases with age and individuals with higher education often exhibit a higher migration propensity

Push-Pull model	Economics Sociology	E. G. Ravenstein (1885, 1889) Everett S. Lee(1965) Sirowy and Inkeles (1985) Mei Li &Mark Bray (2007)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.Lee revised Ravenstein’s laws of migration (Seven laws) 2. Push –Pull factors influence migration (origin, destination, intervening obstacles and personal factors) 3.Personal factors influence the decision to migrate 4. Migration is selective and rational individual 5. Potential migrants compare the expected income at the destination with the expected income at the origin 6. Largely analogous to neo-classical micro model (Hollifield 2008,p184, Haas,2007, p. 9) 7. Major causes of migration are economic 8. Migration arises due to dissatisfaction with the present situation 9. Many research articles based on Lee’s theory including student migration(Haas, 2007).
Todarian Model	Economic	Michael P.Todaro (1969) Harris and Todaro (1970)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Purely an economic model (neo-classical approach) 2. Compared expected incomes at the destination(city) with rural income earned and migrate if former exceeds later 3.Income differential main determinant of decision to migrate 4.Higher probability of getting a job will induce migration 5.Potential migrants weigh up costs,benefits of moving 6.Migration is a selective and is influenced by economic and and non-economic factors however, influenced more by rational economic consideration 7.Focus on rural-urban migration however, applied to international migration 8. Education influences migration 9. Higher wages gap between home and destination increases migration 10. Takes both demand and supply

Social Network Theory	Sociology Anthropology (associated with World System Theory, Hollifield 2008, p.184)	Douglas Massey (1987, 1993,1998) Mark S.Granovetter (1973) Tamar Diana Wilson (1994)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Linking sending and receiving societies 2. Networks reduce the risk and lower the costs of further migration 3. Ties of kinship and friendship in origin and destination 4. Early migrants provide potential migrants with information including food, accommodation, job opportunity 5. The cost is lower when there is network of previous migrants 6. Social capital
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Source: Researcher's creation

In table 1, migration theories/models, their related disciplines, major contributors and main themes are summarized. It is clear from the themes that all models are associated with the origin and destination, costs and benefits, opportunities and economic motives.

History of Student Migration

Educational migration first began around the 4th century B.C. in Athens. Many scholars came to study science and philosophy under the auspices of Plato at the academy and Aristotle at the Lyceum, Rao, 1979 (as cited in Cardinale, 2000). In the 8th and 9th centuries, the Abbasid Dynasty, which was the centre of the Muslim world located in Bagdad, attracted brilliant Jewish, Syrian, Persian, and Hindu scholars by offering “generous” stipends to pay their expenses, Kjeilin, Abubakr, & Negahban, 1999 (as cited in Cardinale, 2000). By the 12th century, thousands were freely migrating across Europe for study at popular locations such as Paris and Bologna (Cardinale, 2000, p. 10). Bologna University, considered first university in the world, traces its origin to 1088. The university in its origin was a demand-driven institution structured by market forces (Guruz, 2008). According to Mohanty (1986), in the 12th century, majority of students at

Bologna University were foreigners. Most of those students came from European countries. At that time, students were free to go anywhere for higher studies. Some of those students settled down abroad where they went for the studies and some returned to their home countries (Mohanty 1986, pp.9-10).

The first analyses of college student migration were conducted by Lewis Kalbach in 1893-94 and 1896-97 in the USA. As the economic premium of a college degree began to rise significantly in the 1970's, states began to look more closely at college student migration. Since the rise of human capital (a subfield of economics) in the 1960's 1970's culminated, many researchers began to go beyond descriptive statistics and to examine the impact of college student migration on society. Just as individuals choose to invest in education because they expect a positive return, government also chooses to invest in human capital through education for two reasons. The migration of college students from one defined region to another can be viewed as the framework of demand for education subject to supply considerations. On the demand side, a college student migrant must weigh economic and non-economic costs (Smith, 2006).

Although, Nepalese students started going abroad for higher education from the very beginning, the number was minimal during that time. For the first time, eight students from Nepal went to Japan in 1902 for further studies (Fourth NRN Global Conference 2009, p. 141). Hence, student migration started from the very beginning and it is not a new phenomenon. I have reviewed the following research articles and related dissertations in line with this research covering student migration, higher education and globalization.

Research on Student Migration

Student migration is often argued to be the precursor of highly skilled migration, Skeldon, 1992 (as cited in Shen, n.d; Castles & Miller, 2003). According to OECD (2000), student migration has been considered as one of the dominating sources for skilled migration between OECD countries. On the one hand, advanced level students working at research level often engage in lab work and academic projects as skilled labour and on the other hand, high costs of studying abroad have led them to seek part-time job. Due to the nature of their work and low pay, they could be considered as a form of the low skilled migrant labour (Shen, n.d.).

According to Brettell (2008), international migration can be seen as a function of economic forces (demand-pull and supply-push) and networks. In the economic migration, demand becomes effective in the destination (host countries) such as demand for high-skilled people, demand for labour (for example in the Gulf countries, Malaysia, Japan for Nepalese unskilled labourers). In other words, Nepalese workers are supplied (push) on the basis of the demand of host countries (pull). Shen (n.d.) is of view that the economic theories cannot be used to explain student migration in general as in fact many student migrations are North-North migration rather than South-North migration. In addition to economic migration, networks also play an important role in migration. Many relatives and friends (social ties), for instance, working in the foreign countries have helped support the migratory movements of Nepalese labourers. They have supported food, lodging, and employment. The educational migration, on the other hand, can be seen as a function of demand side factors and networks (see conceptual framework). It depends upon the demands of the students who plan,/ aspire to go abroad for further studies.

In the words of Tuckman (1970), it is an investment demand. The policies (independent variable) of the host countries (supply side factor) also influence student mobility (dependent variable). For example, the UK Government eased the visa policies under Tier-4 as a result of which thousands of students applied for visa (demand increased). But in the beginning of 2010, the rules to enter into the UK were made stringent so the demand of students to go to the UK decreased drastically. However, from the literatural perspective, both demand and supply factors are discussed in this dissertation.

Researchers generally accept that student migration follows the same pattern as economic migration. European student mobility can be considered as a particular form of international migration, which is less motivated by economic goals, but rather by a mix of education/leisure/travel/ experience goals, King, 2002 (as cited in Christof, 2009). Student migration is sometimes mentioned in studies on highly skilled migration but--except for some research (King & Gelices, 2003)--has never been studied in depth and is rarely founded empirically. According to Findlay et al.2006 (as cited in Christof, 2009), student mobility can be conceptualized theoretically in three ways; (1) as a part of highly skilled migration (Mahroum, 2000; Tremblay, 2002); (2) as a product of globalization (Altbach & Teichler, 2001); and (3) as a part of youth mobility, cultures and consumption geographies.

In the academic literature, it has been assumed that there is a direct causal relationship between studying abroad and further migration behavior but empirical evidence on this relation remains limited, Parey & Waldinger,2008(as cited in Christof, 2009). Migration studies have tended to focus on permanent migration, but a lot of migration flows are temporary, for example, a large number of students do part of their studies abroad (Dreher & Poutvaara, 2006, p. 1).

There are many population groups that have not been adequately included in traditional migration theory. Students also deserve to be considered as specific actors of international migration. Although this lacuna has been identified a long time ago, international student mobility is still under theorized (Remaking Migration Theory, conference 13-14 May, 2009, Brighton).

The standard academic literature on migration pays virtually no attention to student as migrants, an ironic situation given that most migration scholars encounter students on a daily basis. It seems, therefore, that population geographers and migration sociologists have practically ignored students as worthy of attention in their studies of migration. Despite the lack of attention paid to international student migration (ISM), geographers and other social scientists have begun to at least recognize its importance and to frame it in various ways. King sees student migration as an important component of the ‘new map of European migration’ and places ISM within the broader set of youth migrations motivated less by traditional economic factors and more by a mixture of educational/ leisure/travel/ experiential goals. Student migrants represent an elite group of more privileged students. Students from low income families make substantially less use of the opportunities for studying abroad than do those from families with higher income, King & Gelices, 2003 (as cited in *International Journal of Population Geography*).

The motives for migration are manifold. It is mainly stimulated by economic and education as main causes. However, this research is guided by the thrust that higher education abroad is a motive for migration. The theoretical models discussed above have helped in understanding as to which theories/ models can be applied to student migration.

Researchers are of the view that student migration is still under theorized. However, students are also one of the actors of international migration. According to Singh (1991, p.104), more than one fifth (21.05 percent) of the out-migrants from rural to urban in Punjab were identified as students. He further states that although among non-economic factors, educational opportunities in the urban areas are listed as the most important cause of rural-urban migration (Singh, 1991, p. 36). So, general migration theories have been linked to educational migration as well by the researchers namely push-pull model, gravity model, social network theory and human capital theory.

Similarly, the Todaro model is a premise for educational migration. For instance; it has outlined the role of education in the framework for migration decision (Todaro & Smith, 2006, p. 340). Although, the Harris-Todaro model was initially developed for internal migration, it can, with some modification, also be applied to international migration (Haas, 2007). The mobility transition model links development with migration. In the early stage of development, migration increases. An increase in people's income leads to more migration. When the country offers more opportunities at home, migration begins to decrease. Students mostly from developing countries like ours have been migrated to different developed countries. However, students from developed countries (for instance, South Korea) also migrate to study abroad.

Reasons for Migration (Push-Pull Factors)

There are different reasons for migration. In other words, the venerable push-pull model has been very popular to understanding migration. This model, originally developed for general migration, has been applied to student migration by many researchers. Iranfar

(1983) stated that certain push factors were more influential than others in promoting emigration of international students from their countries.

Sirowy and Inkeles, 1985 (as cited in Clark & Neave, 1992) discuss about push factors, pull factors and intervening obstacle imposed by home and host countries. Push factors include limited openings in home country universities or discrimination against students, inadequate training facilities in particular fields of study and hope that foreign training will better equip one in competition for prestigious positions or for successful emigration. Pull factors in general are the obverse of push factors, but there are also specific pull factors that lead to student choices among potential host countries. These pull factors include cultural and linguistic similarity between home and host country, the relative cost of obtaining training in different countries, and extent of compatibility between the home and host country's educational systems. As for intervening obstacles, they include the policies of host country and home country. The latter include restriction on issuing passports, and the type of training that may be obtained abroad (Clark & Neave, 1992, p. 1022). Rahman (1996) and Patnaik (1997) have mentioned about the push-pull factors of economic migration which is "demand determined" and "supply determined" (Patnaik, 1997).

Boyd (2002) found that the 'push' of economic dislocation was a more significant factor in the migration than was the "pull" of the expected payoff to the movement and the rate of migration was greatest in places where the search for work by the unemployed was most intense. Net-migration to farms was highest in the north, the region with the highest rate of unemployment and the highest rate of long-term unemployment. So, it seemed positive association between net migration and rate of unemployment. Based on

the push-pull model, the jobless will move to find work. He further found that in the south, low rate of both unemployment and long-term unemployment resulted in lower net migration to farms and weaker relationship between this migration and unemployment. So, the push-pull model seems most applicable to the north where both unemployment and farm wages are highest.

Juhasz, Peto, Sanden, and Waaldijk (2003) conducted a qualitative research on educational migration in European countries. Educational migration for women took the form of attending expensive boarding schools far away from home for aristocratic girls. The authors have found motives for migration such as greater access to academic resources, wish to learn a language, to improve career opportunities, to take a course that is not available in the student's home country, to gain a specific qualification, to expand their horizons, find new contacts, comparative study and contact, and experiences of going abroad.

According to Rieger et al. 1973 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, pp. 21-22), roughly one half (36 percent male and 63 percent female) cited lack of occupational training and career opportunities as the main reason for migrating. They found that, approximately, one-fifth (25 percent of males and 18 percent of females) expressed the desire to further their education as the primary reason. Other reasons include various lifestyles factors with 17 percent of males and 6 percent of females such as want more to do, meet more people, see more of country, marriage, getting away from family. In a later interview with the same cohort, 34 said employment, 31 percent to further their education. Long, 1988 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p. 22) reported that employment was the reason cited most frequently (46 percent) for migration of young adults less than 25 years of age who moved out of state, followed by schooling (15

percent), military (7 percent), and proximity to relative (4 percent) and the remainder 27 percent fell into the miscellaneous category. Movers tend to be computer science, or engineering majors, planning to get a doctorate degree, attend a private college, migrated to attend post-secondary school, whose parents have higher levels of educational attainment. Recent college graduates migrate for job-related reasons (Heuer, 2004).

Altbach, 1998, p.240 (as cited in Li and Bray 2007) presented what he called the push-pull model for international student mobility. He pointed out that some students were pushed by unfavorable conditions in their home countries, while others were pulled by scholarship and other opportunities in host countries. The pull factors of the host countries have included advanced research facilities, congenial socio-economic and political environments, and prospect of multinational class-mates. Both push and pull factors are external forces which impact on actor's behaviours and choices, but much depends on the personal characteristics of the actors. These characteristics include socio-economic status, academic ability, gender, age, motivation, and aspiration.

Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) observed that the existing push-pull model mainly focused on the educational, economic and political dimensions of the sending and host countries, and that it underplayed social and cultural factors. The researchers have also studied on the reverse push-pull factors i.e. the positive forces at home and negative forces abroad. Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) found that the factors which shaped student's intentions to study abroad could be ranked as economic factors 29 percent, educational factors 27 percent, student's personal factors 15 percent, social factors 13 percent, cultural factors 9 percent, and political factors 7 percent. He found that economic, educational and personal factors

were the most important determinants of student's intentions to study abroad. In other words, push, pull and personal factors were main reasons behind student mobility.

In the words of Mansoor (2007), international migration is often explained by a basic push and pull model. Economic conditions, demographic pressures, and unemployment are push factors in the sending countries. Higher wages, demand for labour and family re-unification are pull factors in the receiving countries.

Chen (2007) in her research article has discussed about the push-pull model that was originally used in the theory of migration to explain the factors influencing the movement of people. Applying the combination of qualitative (interview) and quantitative (mailed survey questionnaires) i.e. triangulation, there are three stages in the process of choosing overseas study – the decision to study abroad, the choice of a host country, and the selection of a host institution. The decisions are influenced by three domains of factors- students characteristics, external push- pull factors and significant others. She contended that student characteristics include socio-economic background, personal characteristics and preferences, academic ability, social capital, and creative capital. External influences- push-pull factors- include positive and negative forces from the home and host countries, personal driving forces due to external influences, and institutional characteristics. Significant others include encouragement from family/ spouse, relatives, professors, sponsors, or employers. The model has been used to understand international student's flows, the decision or motivation to study abroad and the international student's choice of a country.

The researcher further argues that the decision, motivations, and flow of international students are a function of the combined 'pull factors' and 'push factors' as influenced by intervening obstacles and explained that the push factors had strength in the initial reasons

for studying abroad. Applying mixed methods, research findings show that institutional characteristics (both academic and administrative) have the strongest influence on international students when choosing a Canadian graduate school, followed by characteristics of Canada (Chen, 2007).

Hines and Tweeten (n.d.) have examined the push-pull theories of migration. Those with least-educated are pushed by declining job opportunities from depressed regions to more prosperous regions so they are most likely to be pushed to employment elsewhere. Support for the push theory would be apparent in high migration rates among regions for the least educated. The most educated individuals would be pulled from a slow-growing region to more lucrative jobs elsewhere. The authors have hypothesized that migration rates increase with education: the most educated categories have higher migration rates than the least educated categories within given age bracket. The researchers have found the highest migration rates among individual who are both young and highly educated and data support the pull theory but fail to support the push theory of migration. Similarly, push-pull models and causes of migration have been explained by Boyd (2002); Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri (2006); and Brusle (2008).

Social Ties

Social capital plays an important role in determining student migration. In international migration, it influences the migratory behavior and motivation of students. Munshi, 2001 (as cited in Davis, Stecklov & Winters, 2002) analyses the role of Mexican community networks in helping migrants obtain employment in the US, and finds that employment outcomes are related to migrant network size, with the number of long-term migrants of particular importance.

According to Davis, et.al (2002), quantitative studies of Mexican migration show that individual migration decisions are greatly influenced by both current and past migration experiences of members of their migrant network. The authors further explain that networks influence migration because potential migrants use their network connections to obtain information that alter the returns to migration and, if the decision to migrate is taken, use these networks for direct assistance in the migration process thus lowering the cost of migration. The network theory of migration, building upon social network theory, stresses the importance of direct and indirect relationships in the migration decision. Current and past migrants that form one's network can be viewed as a form of social capital (Davis, et al, 2002, p. 2). Early migrants provide potential migrants with information on modes of migration and job opportunities as well as direct assistance in the form of food and shelter or even finance for migration thus lowering the entry costs, enhancing the benefits, and reducing the uncertainty associated with migration, Massey, Goldring & Durand 1994; Bastida, 2001(as cited in Davis,et.al 2002).

Whether the network is made up of strong ties to family members or of weak ties to members of the same community matters in terms of the value of information and assistance provided to the potential migrant (Davis,et al.2002, p. 3). Using data from two Mexican villages, Taylor, 1986 (as cited in Davis, et al, 2002) examines the role of networks on the decision to migrate within Mexico or to the US. Using a multinomial logit, he finds evidence that supports the hypothesis that networks matter more for international migration since networks are risk reducing and international migration is riskier than domestic.

Studies have shown that both strong and weak network ties may play a role in migration with the former referring to ties to kin and close friends and the latter between acquaintances Boyd,1989; Wilson 1998 (as cited in Davis et al, 2002). The authors argue that networks are

assumed to provide information and assistance to potential migrants that increase the probability of migration. Hence, information and assistance provided by network migrants influence the migration decisions.

However, Moretti (1999, pp. 646-650) disproved the model in the case of Italian Diasporas from 1876 to 1913. An Italian worker at the end of the nineteenth century trying to decide where to migrate is more likely to choose the US, Argentina or Brazil, where an uncle, a friend or somebody else from his own village is more likely to be living, rather than Canada, where he would earn a higher wages. The path-dependent model of migration suggests that the probability of migrating to a specific destination depends primarily on an already established network of relatives and friends. (Moretti,1999, pp. 650-51). The researcher further asserts that Italian emigration is low when wage gaps are large and is greater when wage gaps narrow (p, 646). It seems that there is either a negative relation between emigration flows and wage differential or no correlation. Therefore, there is another economics of migration in addition to the standard neo-classical micro model of migration namely network theory. It is one of the main determinants of migration. In either case, the writer argues that migration responds to economic factors as the standard model suggests. However, Italian emigrants did respond to wage differentials in the long run.

Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) view that social and cultural factors such as family ties, social networks, and socialization processes may have a strong impact too. Dreher and Poutvaara (2006, p.7) have discovered a close link between students flows and migration flows and found that students flows and migration are significantly related since at the ten percent level of significance, migration flows are higher with a higher ratio of years in school and higher stock of immigrants already living in the destination country. The researchers in their cross section

analysis further state that a one percent increase in student flows is associated with about half a percent increase in immigration.

Regarding the relationship between student migration and social network, Anthias,(2008, p.7) has emphasized the role of the social networks on “ student migration from Bangladesh to the UK”. Brooks and Waters (2010) in their qualitative research of 85 (48 men and 37 women) participants, who had moved overseas for their higher education, have analyzed the relationship between educational mobility and social network. The researchers, however, highlight the socially-embedded nature of educational mobility and importance of various kinds of social networks in explaining how and why young adults in the UK decide to move abroad for their tertiary education. According to the researchers, influence of social networks is kinship networks (role of family in facilitating migration), friendship networks, and partners and other romantic relationship (boy friends and girl friends). Therefore, it was found that all three factors played important roles for student mobility. Similarly, Brooks and Waters (2011, p. 54) argue that many international students draw upon significant social capital (friends and families) at different stages in the migration-education – transition to work process.

Relationship between Income and Migration

Tuckman (1970) in his research article on “Determinants of College Student Migration” has stated that interstate migration of college attendees may be explained either by an investment or a consumption theory of demand. In the former case, students may migrate to increase the present value of the expected stream of benefits resulting from their education. A student acting within a benefit-cost framework will presumably migrate when his expected returns from migration exceed his costs. States with lower priced college should experience less out-migration than states with higher priced college. If

out-migration results in higher benefits than costs, then a rise in family income should increase out-migration. The availability of college opportunities within a state should reduce the incentive to migrate.

In connection with consumption theory of demand, the author further argues that students may also attend college to obtain current consumption benefits such as climate, college environment, or location that may yield positive satisfactions outweighing travel and housing costs. The methodology that Tuckman used was quantitative. The researcher's study suggests that some students attend a distant college even when a very similar college exists close to their home. Assuming that college consumption benefits are normal goods, an increase in family income should increase migration. The researcher has given a simple model of college student migration.

$$M' = f(Y, S, P, E).$$

Where M' measures the proportion of students from a state attending college outside the state, Y denotes that state's per capita income, S stands for the average price charged by colleges within the state, P shows the number of public college in the state, and E reflects the average amount of student aid reported by within state colleges.

As predicted by the researcher, it was found that a rise income (Y) increases out-migration while an increase in the number of public colleges (P), serving as a proxy for travel costs and for the attractiveness of state school, reduces out-migration. The average price of the state's college (S) is positively correlated with its out-migration. As the average price charged at colleges within the state increases, the proportion of students migrating out-of-state rises. Student aid (E) appears to be unimportant in determining out-migration. The decision by students to attend college in other states is influenced by prices of both in-state

and out of state colleges. Hence, income, number of public colleges and price at college appear to be important and student aid unimportant in determining out-migration (Tuckman, 1970).

Baryla and Dotterweich (2001) also followed Tuckman's (1970) view on student migration. According to them, migration occurs for investment (take advantage of better employment opportunities at potentially higher income level) reasons and consumption (non-pecuniary, quality of life benefits) reasons. They further contended that investment and consumption are also at the heart of student migration. Utilizing a cross-sectional data, the purpose of the research is to ascertain what factors significantly impact student migration in different geographic regions. It was found that the motivational factors that cause student migration out of state higher education are different variables like percapita income, tuition fees, enrollment, public/private institution, quality and faculty with PhDs. For example, a low unemployment rate may serve as a signal to potential students that there are post-degree career opportunities available. So, they expect a negative correlation between the unemployment rate and nonresident student enrollment. It was found that perceived quality may be a magnet for attracting nonresident students and evidence reveals a significant positive relationship between the percent of Ph.D., qualified faculty and nonresident tuition levels in all regions.

Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) found that a significant number of students, especially from the Indian sub-continent, came from rich families (as they can afford the very high tuition fees in comparison to the Indian institutions) with the aim to get an exposure to the western way of life (both social and work), get the degree and return home to join their families and family business.

Tuckman, 1970 (as cited in Dean, Hunt, & Smith, 2006) found that state with high tuition policy generally have higher out-migration rates. They referred to prior research in which it was found that high family income is a positive predictor of a student's likelihood to migrate out of state. The abovementioned literatures indicate that income and prices of college (tuition fees) are determinant factor of student migration.

Centre-Periphery Phenomenon

Portes (1976) has described about centre- periphery phenomena in student migration. He further explains that there are a series of international differences that are the primary determinants of the process of emigration. In other words, these are pull factors of emigration. They are economic/income differential between developed and developing economies, a logistical support differential(equipment, staff, funds, and general facilities), a prestige differential between the two societies, and a residual differential(political instability, threat of repression, social peace and relative political field, Oteiza, 1967 (as cited in Portes, 1976). The theory '*differentials of preference*' would lead us to expect less emigration from advanced Western countries where differentials are relatively narrow and a much greater flow from less developed regions, where they tend to be much larger. The author is right in the sense that (as stated by dependency theorists) cream, best, finest and talented students from developing economies(periphery) have been migrating to capitalist(centre/ developed) economies. For example, students from Nepal (developing country) go to developed country in order to further their education.

According to Clark and Neave (1992), for the most part, mobile students come from developing nations to developed nations, but there is also considerable mobility

within Western Europe and between the United States and Western Europe. Most countries have both educational and economic motives for admitting foreign students; on the student side, mobility is driven by both the quest for knowledge and desire for cross cultural experiences. It further states that students' mobility enables educational benefits to foreign students and the economic benefits to US institution of higher education.

Similarly, Li and Bray (2007) have done research on cross-border flow of students for higher education. The dominant stream of cross-border student mobility is from less developed and newly- industrialized countries to western, industrialized countries.

Brain Drain

Brain drain and returnee students are associated with each other. In a simple term, brain drain can be understood in two ways: if a student, who has gone to foreign country in order to study, do not return to native country and if a highly educated person leaves the country in search of better opportunities, it is called brain drain. When we talk about student migration, the issue of brain drain arises. Student movements to developed countries may thus be part of the brain drain (Castles & Miller, 2003.p. 171). Agarwal and Winkler, 1984 (as cited in Bose,1999) show , for a period of 1968-1969 , that higher percapita income in the US compared to the home countries has a positive and significant impact on professional immigration to the US as well as on the non-return of professionals, who entered the US as students or temporary workers or exchange visitors.

In the words of Bloom (2002, P. 9), there is also brain drain issue. Highly trained human resources can be bought, and they can be bought more easily now because there is more mobility. For developing countries where students, whose education has been paid

for by a developing –world government, take the skills they have acquired abroad, and thereafter contribute little but remittances to their home country.

According to Todaro and Smith (2006, p. 807), brain drain is the emigration of highly educated and skilled professional and technical manpower from the developing to the developed countries. According to Shen (n.d.), one of the negative effects of the country of origin in migration process is the problem of brain drain. It refers to the loss of human capital, skilled/trained and professional workforce for migrant sending countries. To the contrary, it gives brain gain to the receiving countries. Thus, for a while, (labour) migration was not seen as a development tool for many countries because of the possibility of brain drain. However, recent migration studies have shown many positive sides of (labour) migration especially the remittances which are considered to be very important sources of income and development resources. The author further states that in some cases, students movements to developed countries are still, however, viewed as part of the brain drain because the fact that many students choose to overstay or look for jobs in developed countries after their graduation.

Since its coining in 1963, the term '*Brain Drain*' has been used to refer to the drain of scientists from Europe to the United States (Breinbauer, 2007). In the early 1970s, it was realized that the brain drain from developing countries was much higher than from Europe, and consequently the research focus shifted to the Third World, Watanabe 1969; Visaria 1974; Ward 1975; Zahlan 1977(as cited in Breinbauer, 2007). Brain drain mostly is considered as a permanent emigration from poor countries to rich countries, with positive economic effects for the receiving and negative effects for the sending country, Appleyard 1989; Hamada & Bhagwati 1976, and Bhagwati & Wilson 1989 (as cited in Breinbauer, 2007).

Brain drain or human capital flight is a large emigration of individuals with technical skills or knowledge, normally due to conflict, lack of opportunity, political instability, or health risk. Brain drain is usually regarded as an economic cost, since emigrants usually take with them the fraction of value of their training sponsored by the government. The term was coined by the Royal Society to describe the emigration of scientists and technologists to North America from post war Europe. The converse phenomenon is brain gain which occurs when there is a large-scale immigration of technically qualified person (Mohanty 1986, p. 134; Potnuru, 2003; [http:// www. brain drain.com](http://www.brain drain.com)).

In the words of Baruch, Budhwar, and Khatri (2006), brain drain is a phenomenon in which people of a high level of skills, qualifications, and competence, leave their countries and emigrate. Knowledge and skills also constitute a form of capital. Since people constitute capital, this capital leaves the country when they emigrate to another. It is lost for the country of origin, and gained by the destination country. They further contend that western societies cream off the best student from the developing countries and when they stay, they add human capital to their host countries. The destination country receives the human capital as a gift. It has made a “brain gain” whereas the country of origin has suffered a “brain drain” (Kelo & Wachter, 2004, p. 17).

One major cause of the brain drain happens when students from developing countries studying in the developed countries decide not to return home after their studies. The similar view has been expressed by Brandi (2001) as brain drain was used to refer to the burgeoning phenomenon of students from poorer countries opting to stay on in the developed countries where they had studied. This scenario is generally applicable to all developing countries including Nepal from where thousands of students have gone abroad in the name of higher education but they settle in the host countries permanently.

According to Marginson and Burnie (2003, pp. 15-16), arguably much of the cross-border demand for American education, and to a lesser extent British and Australian education, is migration-related. This contributes to a 'brain exchange' often experienced as 'brain drain' in the Asia-Pacific. The overall impact of 'brain mobility' appears negative for China. For example, of the 1990-91 American doctoral recipients from China, 88 percent were still working in the USA in 1995. Of overseas Chinese students over the 1978-1999 period, going to all countries, 75 percent failed to return, including 86 percent who studied in the USA, 62.6 percent in Japan, 55.1 percent in Australia, 53.2 percent in the UK and 52.4 percent in France, Iguchi, 2001, p.49(as cited in Marginson & Burnie 2003, pp. 15-16).

So, the issues of 'brain drain', 'brain circulation', 'brain gain' and 'brain trade' arise frequently. Brooks and Waters (2011, p. 14) are of view that "the biggest single area of research on skilled migrants has focused on concerns about a "brain drain" – the movement of talent from developing countries to developed nations. However, the concept has been largely undermined over recent years, as alternative terms such as "brain gain" and "brain circulation" have gained currency. Former Prime Minister of India late Rajiv Gandhi termed India's brain drain as "brain bank" abroad and opined they would be useful to India at the appropriate time when needed (Potnuru,2003, p. 5). For example, Indian students going abroad for their higher studies costs India a foreign exchange outflow of \$10 billion annually ([www. brain drain.com](http://www.brain drain.com)). America educates one third of all foreign students and roughly half of them with PhDs are still in the USA after five years of their education has ended, Lawel, 2002 (as cited in Potnuru, 2003 p.2). It is a loss to the sending countries for example; doctors, engineers, and educationist migrate to advanced countries in search of better opportunities. If they come back home, they can bring with them valuable experience, for instance, Indian returnees from Silicon Valley of the USA,

who have strongly contributed to the growth of the software industry in India. So, migration can be advantageous for both the sending and the receiving countries, if adequately managed.

Most of the brain drain at a national level occurs when immigrants move from developing countries to developed countries, most notably from Asia to North America and Europe. The brain drain may make developing countries less competitive than developed countries by increasing the human capital of developed countries at the expense of developing countries (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2006). When educated people emigrate, they leave with skills and experience crucial to solving their countries critical problems. The migration of doctors leaves poor countries subject to the ravages of highly communicable diseases (Rajbhandari, 2009, p.23). According to NPC (2010-2013), it is estimated that 16 percent of the total doctors in Nepal leave the country and minimum 1315 nurses annually go abroad.

There is always problem of brain drain (migration of skilled workers). In 1990, the OECD listed 13 million skilled migrants from developing countries. High unemployment among graduates in developing countries leads to increased migration. The quality of education in developed economies and the presence of a transnational community in the host country contribute to the weight of brain outflow (Roisin, 2004).

Ziguras and Siew-Fang Law (2006) have termed international students as skilled migrants. According to them, there are four factors that make international students attractive migrants. Firstly, they increase the recruiting country's pool of highly trained workers. Secondly, most developed societies have low birth rates and aging population and recruiting them helps to sustain the number of working age adults needed to support the growing pool of retired elderly. Thirdly, graduates of the recruiting country's own tertiary institutions are more readily employed than foreign graduates. Lastly, the

prospect of migration gives some countries a marketing advantage in recruiting fee-paying international students in countries in which education is a major export industry.

The authors are of the view that these four rationales shape skilled migration and education policies in Australia and Malaysia. Both countries experience outflow and inflow of skilled migrants, referred to as 'brain drain' and 'brain gain' respectively. Similarly, both countries have export-oriented international education policies.

Anthias (2008) in her research works on "student migration from Bangladesh to the UK" discussed about the description of student migration process like finding information on UK study, applying for study and a student visa. The author explored motivations for Bangladeshi students to study in the UK and trends and patterns of student migration. Referring to the "brain drain" as a theoretical framework, she views that it generally refers to migration of skilled professionals. She stated that student migration has also been often viewed as a category of skilled migration which constitutes a loss of human capital for developing countries. It is now generally recognized that student migration, for instance, does not necessarily constitute a loss for the sending country due to large number of skilled returnees (Anthias, 2008, p.7).

Linking migration with brain drain as well as brain gain, the World Bank's report (2008) states that migration is generally easier for university graduate than for the less educated, the argument, as Adiseshiah (1972) puts it, is that for many countries, "*education is not the road to development but the road to migration*". However, some authors like Mountford(1997) and Stark et al.(1998) argue that the emigration of highly educated may lead to "brain gain" if the return to education is higher overseas than at home, thus leading to

higher returns to human capital and thus enhancing further investment in human capital (WB 2008, p. 266).

Returnee Students

Rao (1979) found that although the origin of the countries is different, the social background, attitudes, experiences and future career plans of overseas students in different developed countries are very similar. He gave the example that 98 percent of the sponsored students return upon completion of their studies to their home countries.

Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) have examined the attitudes and perceptions of foreign students who come to study in the UK and the USA and analyze factors that affect foreign students' inclination not to return to their home countries. The researchers found that a significant number of students, especially from the Indian sub-continent came from the rich families with the aim to get an exposure to the western way of life, get the degree and return home to join their families and family business. This is also relevant given that the majority of the middle and upper class families to which these foreign students belong to have one or two children, hence, their parents want them back for possible kinds of support(e.g. social and emotional).

The data indicated that Indian students were the least inclined to return home, whereas students from China, Taiwan, Thailand and from countries in Africa, the Arabian peninsula, and Latin America showed greater inclination to return to their home countries. Only 30.5 percent of the foreign students intend to return to their home countries after the completion of their studies (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2006). Strong ties with family members in the home country discourage a foreign student's decision to stay abroad after their studies. The study also found that foreign students in the USA were significantly happier with the process of adjustment. Also,

some students take loans to fund their studies abroad and want to work for some time to earn enough to repay their loan before returning home (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri,2006).

Alberts and Hazen (2005) talk about international students. The scale of movement of international students has increased dramatically in the post-war period, with the USA acting as a major destination owing to a good education system and funding of graduate studies. They have identified three categories of motivational factors by using qualitative (focus group) method: professional, societal, and personal. Professional factors were generally cited as encouraging the students to stay in the United States, while societal and personal factors were more likely to draw them back to their home countries.

Christof and Thompson (2007) in phenomenological interviews describe the structure of the experience of individuals who returned home after studying abroad, became disillusioned with their home country, and returned to their sojourn country. The authors view that those students who returned to their home country after completion of their studies migrated to destination country again. Guruz (2008, p. 232) is of the view that no published information exists, for example, on the numbers of returnees and their contribution to the countries of origin.

College to Work Migration

Gibson and McKenzie (2009, p. 15) found that 83 percent of Tongan top students, 67 percent of New Zealand top students, and 37 percent of Papua New Guinea top students had ever worked or studied abroad. They further stated that work and study are often inter-related- migrants may obtain overseas qualification as a pathway to working abroad; may work abroad for several years after completing their undergraduate education before returning to

undertake graduate study; or may work and study at the same time (Gibson & McKenzie (2009, p. 20).

Bohra-Mishra (2010) conducted a research on migration and remittance motives among Nepalese migrants. The researcher using a quantitative method tries to explore factors that motivate individuals to migrate for work, studies and other reasons. Although, most of her focus has been placed on remittances behavior, a bit of study clarified that occurs for studies. It was found that with respect to the determinants of migration, age has the typical curvilinear effect on migration for both work and studies while females are less likely to migrate for both reasons but more likely to migrate for other reasons. Single individuals are more prone to migration for education but less for work. She also found that migrants for studies typically come from richer households while migrants for work originate in poorer household. Nevertheless, in Chitwan and overall in Nepal, many people who migrate primarily for studies often engage in part-time jobs and are still expected to remit to their household while supporting their education. One could therefore expect positive association between migration for studies and probability of remitting as well. The Hindu upper castes have significantly higher probability of migrating for studies compared to the Terai Tibeto-Burmese (Bohra-Mishra, 2010, p 4).

Baryla and Dotterweich (2001) stated that both economic conditions and university characteristics significantly influence the migration decision. Gottlieb and Joseph (2006) calculate logit models of the college- to-work migration decisions of technology graduates and holders of doctorates within the US. They found that science and technology graduates migrate to better educated places. Mikadze and Wagner (n.d.) found that 70 percent of the Georgian students want to study or work abroad.

Human Capital

Student migration is considered to be an investment in human capital that says young adults want to maximize the return on their investment in education. Dean, Hunt, and Smith (2006) have researched on student migration and retention and argue that there is imbalance of in- and out-migration among college-bound youth in Illinois which exports many of the college students to other states and imports relatively few out-of- state students. Illinois's loss of college students diminishes human capital. The authors viewed that students began to develop plans and aspirations for what they will do after secondary school. The purpose of the study was to reveal the pattern of college student migration. The study relied on sequential mixed methodology, purposeful sampling technique and stepwise multiple regression through the use of SPSS software.

Faggain, Mc Cann and Sheppard (2007) have written a research paper on a model of the sequential migration behaviour of some 760,00 Scottish and Welsh students, from their domicile location to the location of their higher education and their employment location. A lower initial migration propensity associated with entering higher education on the part of the Scottish students may limit their future onward migration behavior. As a result, their human capital returns may be lower, *ceteris paribus*. On the other hand, if Welsh students can be shown to be more migratory at the pre-university stage than Scottish students, their future migration behavior may also be more extensive. This may result in their human capital returns being relatively higher, *ceteris paribus* (p. 2513). The researchers further state that whether an individual student actually chooses to study locally or alternatively to migrate to higher education will also depend on a range of other economic and social variables which may affect the environment at both the domicile and higher educational locations. The results confirm the Da Vanzo hypothesis that

subsequent migration is related to previous migration and also the Sjaastad-Becker hypothesis that higher human capital individuals are more geographically mobile. The researchers have found that students graduating in medicine and science have generally higher on migration propensities, while those in social sciences have lower migration propensities. Hence, the authors have emphasized on human capital return and assert that low propensity to migrate leads to limit the migration behavior as a result of which there will be low human capital return and more migratory behaviour leads to relatively high human capital return.

Age

Age and sex are related to migratory selection. Young adults predominate in the migratory population because their age period represents the stage at which people leave their parental homes for education, marriage, or employment, and then move again as they complete their schooling, have children or change jobs to advance their careers.

Ballweg and Li, 1992 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p. 5) found that older graduates are more likely to migrate out of state than younger graduates. On the other hand, Tornatzky et al, 2001 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p. 5) reported that older graduates are less likely to migrate out-of-state. Mikadze and Wagner (n.d) found that students of age group of 20-30 leave Georgia for education purpose (p.4). Carling (2001, p. 77) found that aspiration to migrate to study abroad declines as age increases.

Gender

Sex is a selective factor in migration, for males predominate among those who move to find jobs (Encyclopedia Americana 2003-2004). Black, 1983 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p.6) found that gender was not statistically significant in predicting migration. Gutheil and Copa, 1981 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p.6) found that half of the migrants in their

sample of vo- tech school graduates were male and half were female but of the nonmigrants, more were female (57 percent) than male (43 percent). Ballweg and Li, 1992 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p.6) found that male college graduates were more likely to be employed in –state than were female graduates.

Field of Study

Subject area is very determinant factor of mobility. The students with high demand in the destination are more likely to migrate than less demand. For example, Tornatzky et al, 2001 (as cited in Heuer, 2004) showed that out-of –state migration is higher for those majoring in engineering, physical science, and computer science. Those in the school of engineering and applied science had higher outmigration rate while those in education had the lowest migration rates, Taylor, 1973 (as cited in Heuer, 2004). Likewise, Chase (1969) found engineering graduates most likely to migrate out-of- state and education graduates least likely to migrate (Heuer, 2004).

Permanent Residence (PR)

International students seek PR at the destination after completing their studies. Baas (2006) has found that the most important reason why the Indian students come to Australia is not because they rank Australian Universities very highly but much more because they are attracted by the option of applying for the PR after graduation.

Quality Education/Globally Accepted Degree

Quality education has been a major determining factor of student mobility. Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) viewed that it is a major factor stimulating students to study in developed countries. Tuckman,1970 (as cited in Dean, Hunt, & Smith, 2006) contended that availability and quality of specific academic programme mattered highly among college students. Institution's

ranking and its reputation were the major factor of quality that was supported by previous research.

Joshi (2007, p.1) viewed that quality issues now have been engulfing the educational arena. She further stated that rapidly changing economic and technological environment, advancement in IT, globalization have been influencing the educational system of almost all countries of the world continuously, no matter whether they are developing or developed ones.

Anthias (2008) states that prospective students regard foreign degree of UK as an access to the international job market and perceived quality of UK education also was an important motivation for Bangladeshis. However, research suggested that for many Bangladeshis, student migration to the UK is seen as a route to short term or long term labour migration either regular or irregular, and either highly skilled or unskilled. Perceived quality, measured by admissions selectivity may be a magnet for attracting nonresident students (Baryla & Dotterweich, 2001).

Bruce (2006) did a research on Somali men and women who migrated to Canada before completing their secondary educations, and who graduated from an Ontario public high school. The study explores how the migration background of Somalis influenced their experiences with curriculum, teachers, and fellow students. The researcher used push-pull factors and exploratory model on migration.

Students' Academic level

Tuckman, 1970 (as cited in Dean, Hunt, & Smith, 2006) found that the best and the brightest students are also the most likely to migrate out of state for college. Gottlieb and Joseph (2006) found that science and technology graduates migrate to better educated places, other things

equal; that PhD graduates pay greater attention to amenity characteristics than other degree holders.

Channels of Migration

Who facilitates migration for study is a major concern to prospective students. In some countries (for instance, Nepal, Bangladesh), students contact the private registered educational consultancies for counseling and other related matters on student mobility. Anthias (2008, P. 27) stated the role of overseas study counseling agencies that can potentially play a useful and important role in facilitating student migration to the UK. For many Bangladeshi students, the overseas study counseling agencies provide the major source of information on UK study. However, many students look for foreign universities through internet with scholarship or without scholarship and go abroad personally. Li and Bray (2007) viewed many students go abroad through their own channels rather than through government or institutional sponsorship.

International Education as a Side Door

Farrer (2007, 2009) discusses about educationally channeled international labour mobility. Brain drain and side door for unskilled labour importation are two distinctive discourses. International education has become a side door for low-wage labour importation. At the same time, it also motivated a large number of non-academically intended people to join in the student migration (Farrer, 2007, 2009, p. 186). Numbered in millions, international students are an important migrant population. The researcher has explored the intention of migrants who went to Japan from China for educational purpose. Using case of student mobility from China to Japan since 1978, the researcher has brought long-neglected migrant group into the spotlight, and examined the issues

involved in this unique mode of labour migration. It shows that international education is a de facto channel of labour migration.

The researcher further views that in the case of Chinese students working as unskilled labourer in Japan merge with student migrants with no real academic intentions, visa overstayers, and self-financed students pursuing further studies in Japanese institutions. The author using mixed method approach has found three groups of Chinese student migrants namely the *non-academically intended 'coin-rakers'* (education as a ticket to enter the borders in low wage labour market and studying was a front while making money was the real motivation and actual practices), *academically intended but limited to finance education* (majority of Chinese students enter Japan with the purpose of pursuing an education and expand their career opportunities, and usually take up the three D (dirty,danger,difficulty) *jobs, and visa overstayers* (over stay students visas and become undocumented immigrant labour).

It is clear from the above research that students are motivated by earning opportunities and many youths prefer to go abroad in the name of education and their hidden agenda is to earn rather than learn. Chances of employment in the destination lead to student migration.

Students' Expectations and Aspirations

Aspirations and expectations are generally related to future hopes, desires, wishes and ambitions. In this research, they are connected to educational aspirations and expectations of potential, current and returnee students. According to Morgan (2006), expectations are sometimes distinguished from aspirations in theory, with the former stipulated to refer to realistic appraisal rather than idealistic goals. Nonetheless, almost all empirical research

has utilized the same straight forward operationalization for both concepts. He clarifies that survey questions elicit future plans which are generally quite optimistic.

In a longitudinal study of 7,248 Australian youth, Majoribanks, 2003 (as cited in Feuer, 2009) found that expectations had the largest association with young adults' educational achievement, measured by years of educational attainment at the approximate age of 20. In line with this research, many college preparatory programmes are based on the idea that raising aspirations and expectations will lead to an increase in outcomes (Feuer, 2009, p.2). Some studies show that ethnic minority students have higher educational aspirations and expectations than other whites despite their relatively lower performance, Farmer, 1985; Wilson, 1992; US department of education, 2007 (as cited in Feuer, 2009).

Quaglia and Cobb (1996) defined aspirations as a student's ability to identify and set goals for the future, while being inspired in the present to work toward those goals. They have discussed about the aspirations, achievement, motivation, and social comparison theory which indicates that within groups there exist inherent pressures toward uniformity. Hence, they measured the level of aspirations.

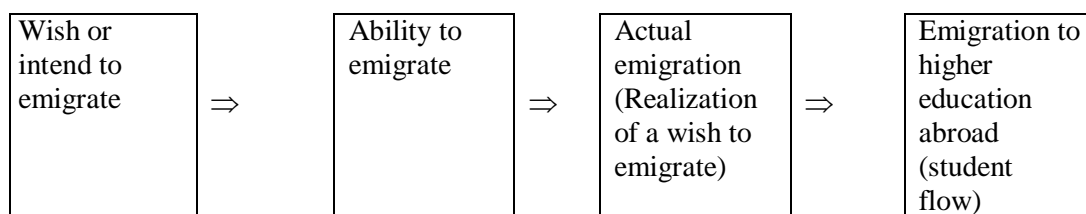
Morgan (1998) claimed that the educational expectations of all students increased between the early 1980s and the early 1990s, but that increases were largest for White females, followed in magnitude by those of white males, Black females, and then Black males. Par and Mok, 1995 (as cited in Rebecca, Zlatko, & Mark, 2008), found that the relationship between aspirations differed by ethnic background and birth place. Students from the Asian background had the highest aspirations, while students of New Zealand background had the lowest. Majoribanks, 2002 (as cited in Rebecca et al. 2008) also

identified similar research. He further stated that more recent research on adolescents' aspirations showed that females had higher aspirations than males.

According to Quaglia and Cobb (1996), aspirations must be contextualized and should address both present and future perspectives. The authors further state that a student with aspirations is one who is involved in various activities for both their inherent value and enjoyment and their connection to future goals. They have defined aspirations as a student's ability to identify and set goals for the future, while being inspired in the present to work toward those goals. This construct of aspiration has two major underpinnings: inspiration and ambitions.

Students expect better future and aspire to go abroad. They wish to migrate expecting career opportunities in the future. Analyzing contemporary emigration from Cape Verde, Carling (2001) describes aspiration/ability model in which migration involves a wish to migrate and realization of this wish. He used this model in order to explain the migration flows. A simple figure below clearly depicts aspiration to migrate.

Figure 3. Aspiration to Migrate



Source: Researcher's own creation (idea adopted from Jorgen Carling, 2001).

The above figure illustrates that a prospective student aspires and wishes/intends to go abroad but ability is necessary to emigrate. If a student has ability to migrate then the wish to emigrate would be realized. However, ability is affected by migration policy, financial costs, role

of family ties (social network), personal factors, age, gender, and educational attainment (Carling, 2001).

Related Researches on Educational Migration

The related researches on student migration are chronologically discussed below.

Peet's (1978) thesis is related to a case study from rural Nepal. The author talks about the migration to education and states that Kathmandu valley is also the destination for many rural migrants in search of jobs or higher education. The researcher further explains that Nepalis continue to out-migrate to India to earn money. The wealthy families in order to maintain their dominant socio-economic position have had to try to send as many of their sons as possible for higher education and employment outside the village, preferably in government service or commerce. Citing the example of elite Thami family, the researcher found that they may invest in advanced education for their sons and send them off to get jobs in the public or private sector in Kathmandu. About the push-pull, the researcher stated 'We do not have to confine ourselves to listing the "Push" and "Pull" factors for migration. Instead, we can study migration in the context of a long-term historical process and as part of a broader field of enquiry'. Although, it is an internal migration, this research has touched an investment in human capital (higher education), employment and social status for sending their sons to higher education in Kathmandu. So, decision to migrate completely rested on parents not students. Abroad study (except scholarship) with fee -paying hardly existed in those days.

Bragg (1980) studied the nature of the relationship between college student inter-state migration and financial aid practices and policies. Cost is considered the major barrier to outmigration. He further states that student financial aid is the major governmental

mechanism designed to overcome cost barriers. The specific model was tested on a sample of 22,000 freshmen. It was found that the differences in the amount of grants and loans offered by out-of-state schools over in-state schools are statistically significantly related to the decision enroll out of state for all groups. The increase in the probability of out-migration is on the order of one to two percent for every \$100 more in financial aid offered by out-of-state schools.

Acharya (1981) carried out a research on internal migration in Nepal by using push-pull model with quantitative methodology. It was found that migration occurred vertically and poverty (push factor) was the main reason for internal migration (64 percent). Around 80 percent got the employment at destination throughout the year as against 28 percent at origin. The research showed that 40 percent migrants sent their children to school at origin as against 86 percent at the destination. Therefore, this research indicated that people were better off (in education, health and economic condition) at destination. It can be concluded that migration showed positive results.

Bel-hag (1982) has attempted to examine some of the attitudinal factors involved in the decision making process as related to migration intention on the part of the young people from a rural area in Libiya. The researcher, however, has not highlighted subjective factors related to migration. Many young people have been stimulated to seek higher education. Therefore, the migration decision is viewed from the individual's point of view. In this research, four variables were examined in predicting and explaining the migration plans of rural adolescent namely educational and occupational aspirations, community satisfactions, family obligations, and community evaluation. Previous researches suggest that these four variables are closely related to migration plans. It was

found that educational and occupational aspirations would be more highly correlated with migration plans than any of the other variables; low community satisfactions and negative evaluation of the community social provision would lead to plan to migrate; and high level of family obligation would lead to plans to remain in the home community.

Antoine (1982) researched on talent migration with two assumptions namely talent migration cannot be accounted for satisfactorily in a strictly economic context but socio-political context of the Third World serves as a major push factor and no accurate picture of the phenomenon of talent migration can be obtained from conclusions. A total of 60 African talent migrants participated in interview designed to determine their reasons for non-return. It was found that about 63 percent of the sample associated their non-return with current political conditions in their home countries; 25 percent cited social reasons as a major factor in their decision to remain in the United States; and 8 percent attributed their stay to economic factors. Palmer, 1968 (as cited in Antoine, 1982, p. 20) surveyed 144 foreign students attending small colleges found that those motivated by economic considerations tend to remain abroad. Dorai, 1964 (as cited in Antoine, 1982. p. 20) viewed that Indian students remain in the USA for economic reasons. Similarly, Kao, 1970, and Lee, 1973(as cited in Antoine, 1982) are of opinion that higher salaries are a major cause of migration. The author using exploratory approach studied economic, social and political aspect of African talent migration.

According to Iranfar (1983), the purpose of his research was to determine the most important reasons that cause international students not to return home after their studies are completed and also to determine whether the international students who desired to return home had higher self-esteem, personal security, personal independence,

personal adequacy, and emotional stability than those who did not desire to return home. The findings showed that certain 'push' factors were more influential than others in promoting emigration of international students from their countries. The most important factors were political reasons, lack of educational facilities, lack of recreational facilities, personal reasons, religious reasons, economic well-being, and health problems. There were many 'pull' factors that contributed to the migration. Among them were political freedom, democratic government, freedom of press, freedom of speech, cultural diversity, abundance of material goods, and job opportunities. It was also found that international students who wanted to return home had higher self-esteem, felt more secure, and had greater emotional stability. On the other hand, those who wanted to stay in the United States had a higher degree of personal independence and adequacy.

The main purpose of Moghtassad's (1986) study was to investigate the types of social variables thought to influence intention of Iranian students to remain in the USA. The behavioural, socio-economic, and political aspects of international migration were examined. Using quantitative method, questionnaires composed of 45 objective questions were completed by 100 Iranian students. The selected findings included : (1) Iranian students between the age of 21 and 25 were more likely to remain in the United States than students from any other age group; (2) females were more likely to remain in the United States than males (3) disagreement with the political system of Iran was the main reason given by females who preferred to remain in the United States: (4) single students were more likely to remain in the USA than married students; (5) undergraduate students were more likely to remain in the USA than Master's and Doctoral students; (6) students enrolled in engineering and science were more likely to stay than those in other fields of

study; (7) the longer a student stayed in the US the more likely he was to remain permanently in the USA. Based on the findings, it was concluded that;(1) a significant relationship existed between adjustment to the US and intention to stay among Iranian students; (2) there was a significant relationship between the political system in the home country and intention to stay in the United States; (3) and there was significant relationship between socio-economic factors (age, sex, marital status, parents' status, educational background, field of study, and years of study in the United States) and intention to stay in the US among Iranian students.

Dalili (1986) examined the tradition of student migration for educational purpose, the changes over time in motivation to study abroad, the reasons behind the increased involvement of American institutions of higher education with student from other countries, the corresponding development at college and universities in the US of special services for international students, and the problems faced by these youth which have created the need for such special services. Since the end of the Second World War, the US has emerged as the major host nation to international students.

Mohanty (1986) studied the aspects of economics of brain migration from less developed countries. Her study is very interesting in a sense that she noticed the students from less developed countries always wish to return to their home country after completion of their studies. Her study indicated that the students from highly developed countries had a less defensive attitude towards their home country. The author states that the causes of brain migration can be explained by the micro theory through the push-pull forces.

Havens (1987) analyzed specific factors motivating interstate migrational flows. Applying quantitative method, state-to-state data were analyzed. It was found that college student migrants are deterred by distance, private tuition, and variability in public tuition, federal financial aid, unemployment, and climatic extremes. They are attracted by variability in private tuition, local financial aid, income, reputability, and peers with similar SAT scores. The researcher concluded with evidence that students migrate to a state with the intention of seeking employment there upon graduation, thus providing substantial social return to the state, and supporting a freer inter-state student migration policy.

Lee (1987) studied factors affecting migration of college student. To investigate major factors associated with student migration, the researcher studied 456 four-year public colleges and universities of the nation in the year 1983. The research findings showed that the out-of state student enrolment was highly associated with out-of state tuition, acceptance rate of the college, dormitory capacity, per capita income of the locale, service industry of the locale, and the population with 16 years of education in the locale. Therefore, it is considered that the out-of state students are more concerned about living environment than academic resources of the college.

Chang (1988) analyzed Taiwan's brain drain: A case study. It was found that over 80 percent of the Taiwanese students who complete their graduate study in the United States do not return but instead stay to become members of American college faculties or to take jobs in research organizations and industries. The researcher discusses about education and migration and pull and push factors of Taiwan's brain drain into the United States. It is concluded that Taiwan needs its high quality personnel and intellectual resources even more,

so its further prosperity depends on reversal of the brain drain and recruiting of highly trained talents abroad.

Chik (1989) assesses the various personal and socio-cultural factors which influence the immigration plans of East and Southeast Asian Students in the United States. A sample of 475 foreign students in the state of Alabama was drawn by using stratified sampling. However, data analysis was based on 200 completed mailed questionnaires. It was found that both sociocultural and personal factors seem to influence the immigration plans of students. Sociocultural factors include the political situation, economic situation, and job opportunities in the home countries. Personal factors include the minority status of students in their country of origin, spouses' attitude toward migration, and strength of family and professional ties.

Hamad (1989) explains an economic analysis of college student migration. The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the factors which make freshman students cross state lines to attend college in another state. The student is assumed to make his migration decision in an investment framework. Therefore, he is expected to migrate if the present value of the discounted expected benefits –monetary and nonmonetary- exceed the present value of the discounted expected cost-monetary and nonmonetary- of attending the college. The year of 1984 was chosen because student migration and other necessary data are available for this year. The researcher used quantitative cross sectional analysis as no time series data were available. It was found that college student migrants are attracted by higher expenditures per student, good job market opportunities, and higher part-time income in the destination state. College student migrants are deterred by

nonresident tuition charges, private tuition charges, extreme weather, and distance.

Hence, the researcher has put forward the push and pull factors of migration.

According to Clowers (1992), Virginia has relatively high out-migration rates. The purpose of his study was to provide Virginia's policy makers with a description of college-going residents who attend out-of-state institutions and determine the extent to which out-migration should be a policy concern. This study involved survey research and followed primarily a quantitative, statistically descriptive approach. Multivariate and qualitative techniques were also used. It means that the researcher used mixed methodologies. The population was defined as out-of-state college seniors who attended four year institutions and who had graduated from a Virginia high school or whose residence was in Virginia at matriculation. The survey instrument was mailed to a sample population of 1000 seniors and the usable response rate was 70 percent.

Quantitative results indicated that out-migrating students were from affluent backgrounds, had high achievement scores, chose highly selective or prestigious institutions, roughly 65 percent of students attended their institution of first choice, over 40 percent of students did not apply to any Virginia institution and roughly one third indicated they would return to Virginia.

Qualitative results indicated that students chose to leave their home state because of a desire to experience the culturally diverse features of a new environment, new culture, or liberal atmosphere afforded by an out-of state institution, and to avoid the homogeneous associations of their high school classmates. It was concluded that minority students, students of limited academic achievement, or students from low income families were largely excluded from the out-migration phenomenon; students wanted to

attend prestigious institution and were admitted because of their high academic ability. The researcher asserted that tuition was not a financial barrier for most students and students were willing to incur greater expenses because of a perceived increase in quality.

Finchum (1992) carried out a research in order to determine if an analytical gravity model for student migration to public institution of higher education in Tennessee was viable. The research also provided descriptive and analytic information regarding migration patterns and trends for in-state undergraduate student to the public institutions of higher education. A gravity model based on migration distance and county population was constructed using a logit model simulation in lieu of the least square regression normally used in building such a model. Student migration is a curvilinear rather than a straight line function. It was found that county representation in college enrolment varies significantly by individual county and region and that various demographic and socio-economic groups displayed unique migration patterns and trends through the study periods (from fall, 1980 through fall, 1990). The researcher found that black students migrated farther than students from other racial groups, that male students migrated farther than female students, and that traditional age students migrated farther than older students. Finally, it was found that no relationships existed between students who migrated farther distances and their likelihood to persist or graduate within the higher education system.

Brzezinski (1993) enquired about a qualitative study on the Chinese student brain drain phenomenon and focused more on the migratory process. The researcher has reviewed consensus, conflict (world system theory), human capital and push-pull theories

as possible theoretical explanations. World System theory is utilized to explain the Chinese student phenomenon. Semi-structure life history interviews were conducted with each respondent. Four key themes relating to study abroad were revealed; getting what one wants, prestige, fairness, and using what one has learned.

Ogawa (1998) studied Japanese ryugakusei (student abroad) in American universities. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether more Japanese female than male ryugakusei are studying at American universities and to compare the differences and similarities between male and female ryugakusei. Mixed methodologies were used with questionnaires to 40 institutions and Japanese ryugakusei and six in-depth interviews of female ryugakusei. A total of 182 responses were received from 38 public and private institutions from across the USA. Comparisons were made in terms of their backgrounds, age ranges, educational backgrounds, fields of study, reasons for choosing ryugakusei(study abroad) instead of studying in Japan, reasons for choosing the US instead of other countries, academic problems encountered, degree of satisfaction with their experiences, their current degrees of transnational competence (TNC), and their future plans. Some of the highlights of the results are that females showed a higher degree of aspiration in obtaining a degree than male students, and they showed a higher degree of satisfaction with their overall experiences than males. All of the females reported very high TNC.

Bose (1999) analyzed some aspects of migration theories and evidences in the determination of international migration. The researcher asserts that people began to move in mass across borders motivated by economic factors. The researcher further explains that the factors that determine international migration of labour can be classified into two broad

categories such as macroeconomic forces (that generates the migratory flow) and micro economic forces (that motivate an individual to decide to migrate). International migration, as an economic phenomenon, has attracted several debates such as determinants and consequences. The researcher has beautifully explained the theoretical side such as demand side story and supply side story followed by the issues of return migration. The researcher concludes that the discussion about the push-pull factors operating on the emigration streams from India to the developed countries reveals that wage differentials and differences in employment opportunities play a significant role in generating migration streams. The neo-classical explanation holds true at this level. All the theories consider the prevalence of wage-gap to be an important factor, influencing the decision to migrate.

Cardinale (2000) researched on an effective student visa arrangement. The purpose of the study was to define effective student visa arrangements for students based on the perceptions of international educators. Findings were examined based on major concepts demonstrated in the “push-pull model” of educational migration. The results indicated that some factors common to all three of the competitor countries were not considered important to educators. A key finding was that educators believed “fostering a positive student experience” should be given the highest priority when designing a student visa, instead of the immigration standard based on national security interest. Factors identified as likely to influence the decision of a prospective student were: institutional reputation increased waiting period for entry visa processing, being from a country with special visa restrictions and work permission benefits. This research, however, is too short and does not deal with research methodologies.

Lo (2000) explored the relationship between migration rate and economic growth. The researcher used the dynamic panel data and found that high level of income instead of high growth rate of income attracts people to move in, and the inflow of migrants also contributes to the economic growth.

Carling (2001) analysed aspiration and ability in international migration. The purpose of his study was to explore two fundamental components of the emigration process in a Cape Verdean context. The aspiration model states the aspiration to migrate, ability to realize this wish and actually emigrate. Multiple methodologies with 264 student survey and semi-structured interviews with 15 respondents were used in the dissertation. The empirical findings have been summarized under four research questions. Regarding the emigration environment, the researcher found that the emigration environment of Sao Vicente and Santo Antao is characterized by strong faith in the emigration project as a means of life-making. It means there is well-defined image of a life that can be reached through emigration which is guided by cultural imagery more than financial considerations as such. In connection with individual aspirations, those who saw drought as Cape Verde's principal problem, those who are young, have little education and lack secure employment are highly likely to wish to emigrate. Similarly, having relatives abroad and receiving remittances clearly affect aspiration to emigrate. Those who have close relatives abroad are more likely to wish to emigrate, and at the same time more likely to succeed.

Migration policy is the principal factor behind the nature of the immigration interface. Under the individual ability, it was found that among those who wish to emigrate, it is quite clear that those who are poor or do not have family or other social networks abroad, will be less likely to succeed. Regarding aspiration and ability, it was found that

migration flows are constrained by the counterbalancing effect of class-related variables as aspiration and ability. Those who are poor more often wish to emigrate, but are less often able to do so, than those who are wealthy. In other words, many poor people are immobile because they lack the ability to migrate, while many wealthy people are immobile because they lack aspiration to migrate. In the theoretical conclusion, the researcher stated that most migrants usually come from the middle socio-economic strata of a society. The wealthiest and the poorest have very different reasons for not migrating.

Potnuru (2003) researched on an analysis of the education and earning profile of Indian immigrants in the United States and the return migrant professionals in Bangalore. The researcher has stated about the education and earning and education and migration. Regarding the education and migration, it is well-established fact that an educated person is more likely to earn more than a less educated or an illiterate person. Education is both the consumption as well as an investment activity and produces both direct and indirect benefits (Potnuru, 2003, p. 10). The researcher further argues both education and migration are the forms of investment in human capital from the perspective of human capital approach. More educated are more mobile because they have greater access to information and greater incentive to make additional investment in search of better opportunities. According to the researcher, income is the most important determinant factor. Therefore, migration is treated as a human capital investment and more likely when the benefits outweigh the costs, Borjas, 1969(as cited in Potnuru, 2003, p. 17).

His main findings were that the Asians earn much higher incomes than the total foreign-born average. Asians earn second to the Europeans in the US with a difference of only \$3000 per annum. Asian- Indians are the dominant groups possessing higher human

capital with significantly higher education attainments, better fluency in English than any other Asian groups in the US. Indian-born was found to be earning much higher income compared to the other foreign-born and native-born. Among the returnee respondent sample, all were having the Bachelor's degree, 53 percent Master's degree and 9 percent possessed PhD degree. Their medium earnings abroad and in India were found at \$55,000 and Rs.0.55 million respectively. It was found that in Bangalore the returnees earned roughly one-fifth of the incomes earned abroad. The selection of Bangalore was that it has the abundant employment opportunities, better infrastructure, and availability of experts, better remuneration, satisfactory health facilities and support for information technology.

Rashid (2004) has done a quantitative research on Gulf migration and its socioeconomic aspect with 300 respondents in Azamgadh district of UP in India. The main destinations were Gulf countries such as the UAE, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Kuwait, Qatar and Bahrain. According to researcher, the determinants of migration can be grouped into three categories namely demand pull, supply push and network factors. Generally, demand pull and supply push factors are strongest at the beginning of a migration flow, and network factors become more important as the migration stream matures (Rashid, 2004, p. 8). The researcher found that push factors are dominant among all migrants from Azamgadh district. This seems to imply that the migrants are expected to return home as soon as their objectives are fulfilled. Thereafter, the push factor may become less compelling (Rashid, 2004, p. 85). It was found that the reasons for migration of the workers to the Gulf countries were mainly poverty, unemployment, and better job opportunities (p. 197). Similarly, the sources of information about jobs were obtained mainly from the friends, relatives, newspapers and local agents. The researcher also

found that remittances were also spent on education (schools, Madarsa). It can be concluded that the motivational factor of migration was economic reason and social capital was also effective for labour migrants.

Dechabert (2004) explores ethnographically the pathways to imagined futures that late adolescent Caribbean- American female students follow; the dimensions along which they make transitions in the process of educational migration. Data were collected in two phases. The first phase took place in Caribbean island of St. Croix focusing on the experiences of 19 female high school juniors and seniors at Beachside High School (BHS) as they prepared to migrate to the US for college. The second phase took place in the USA where 6 graduates of BHS were observed and interviewed. The analysis revealed that BHS promoted a myth of ‘Success’ defined as unlimited future possibilities following from participation in higher education in the US. Despite gaining access to higher education, BHS students faced challenges in the U.S .shaped by their transitions from a private high school to college, from St.Croix to the US and from late adolescence to early adulthood. It was found that three pathways to imagined futures emerged. Two women followed the ‘traditional’ college student pathway finishing undergraduate degrees in eight semesters, two followed an alternative pathway and managed to finish their degree and the remaining two were unable to manage transitional challenges and withdrew from higher education.

According to Heuer (2004), migration is selective (favors certain group of people). The main purpose of her thesis is to study the migration behaviors of recent college graduates, and reasons for that move. This research is completely quantitative (two-stage sampling design using stratified systemic sampling) and applies human

investment theory. In general, recent graduates tend to migrate to metropolitan areas, although certain characteristics (older graduate, those who are married, those who have children, those who grew up in rural area/small town) are associated with migration to nonmetropolitan areas. Similarly, most recent graduates cited employment reasons for migrating, although those in certain high demand fields, those currently enrolled, singles, males, and younger graduates were more likely to cite quality of life reasons.

According to Smith (2006), brain drain is closely related to college student migration for the purpose of attending college. College student migration should be a concern for any country (state) preparing for human capital and economic development. A 1992 study (as cited in Smith, 2006) indicated that New Jersey losses about 1.8 \$ (in billion) annually because of college student migration. High college student migration rates in Illinois are problematic for two reasons; firstly, the returns gained from private investments in human capital are higher from attending an out-of state public college than an in-state public college and quality of public colleges and universities and secondly they are less likely to return upon graduation. It means losing on investment in human capital through higher education. The main purpose of the research is to use human capital theory to define a policy towards college student migration. The technique used in this research is exploratory data analysis. The researcher further states that the economic premium of a college degree has increased significantly in the past twenty years. This means that State and individual can expect monetary and non-monetary returns on investment made in higher education.

The major finding of the research is that in fall 2000, 21,217 college students migrated from Illinois to post-secondary institutions in other states whereas in the same

year, 9,403 residents from other states migrated into Illinois to attend college. This means that Illinois exported more students than it imported. After adjusting for taxes, the social rate of return for Illinois to college student migration was 15.95 percent. By employing human capital theory, the researcher has analyzed college student migration from demand and supply side. Dyer, 1972 (as cited in Smith, 2006) states “the migration of college students from one defined region to another can be viewed as the framework of demand for education subject to supply considerations”. On the demand side, a college student migrant must weigh economic costs (non-resident tuition, travel costs with being far from home) and non-economic costs (home sickness, making new friends). From the supply side, Quigley and Rubinfeld, 1993 (as cited in Smith, 2006) note enrollments are positively related to quality and perceived benefits.

Sahay (2006) has discussed in her dissertation brain drain or gain. The dissertation looks at the topic of brain drain from a new lens. The researcher used Indian migration to the United States as case study. Many source countries now benefit from out-migration of their workers and students. These are usually measured as remittances, investments, savings associated with return, and network approaches that link expatriates with their country of origin. Furthermore, the diaspora members influence economic and political benefits for their home countries (NRNs in the case of Nepal) because of their success in host societies. The researcher in her quantitative approach tested three hypotheses. The first hypothesis positively tested that benefits outweigh the cost of outmigration, with India as highest remittance receiving country in the world with multifaceted connections in the Silicon Valley. The second hypothesis assessed the leverage of the Indo-American community as strong in terms of wealth and education and the third hypothesis also positively tested that a

more active role played by the state in the sending country determines the level of return and non-return benefits. In conclusion, the researcher has put forward positive side of outmigration including students outflow. She also emphasized the importance of social network (capital).

Farrer (2007) investigated into educationally channeled international labour migration which describes the overlapping trends of international student migration and labour mobility in the contemporary world. The researcher states that numbered in the millions, international students are an important migrant population. Using case of student mobility from China to Japan since 1978, researcher brings long-neglected migrant group into the spotlight and examines the issues involved in this unique mode of labour migration.

The dissertation illustrates three tasks. Firstly, it defines educationally channeled labour migration which shows that international education is a de facto channel of labour migration. In the case of Chinese students in Japan, unskilled labourers emerge among student migrants with no real academic intentions, visa overstayers and self-financed students pursuing an education in Japanese school. Secondly, it illustrates the close relationship between the labour market outcomes of international student migrants and economic globalization process. Finally, the study contributes to immigration study in Japan. It is concluded that Farrer's study not only educates Japanese society about the reality of Chinese student migration but also helps policy makers understand the important roles international students have played in Japanese economy, both domestically and globally. The researcher clearly advocated student migration as a positive sign for destination countries.

Perez (2007) examined the study of college choice process of 30 Chicana/os using a social capital theoretical perspective and the concept of chain migration. This

investigation included ten first-time students at a community college and a university, as well as ten first time transfer students at a university with an equal gender balance. The study focused on the influence of family, peer and school networks on the Chicana/o college choice process. It was found that parents were instrumental in instilling college aspirations but were limited in their role in providing college information. However, other relatives and siblings were able to provide college and financial aid information. Chicanas received college and financial aid information slightly earlier than Chinacos. When selecting a college, community college students were more likely to be influenced by a peer to attend a specific college in comparison to university and transfer students. Other findings included the most salient college choice factors for Chicana/o students were good programmes, proximity to home, environment, cost and location. (Perez, 2007).

Ramirez (2007) conducted his research on Hispanic student migration to higher education. He examined factors that influence first generation Hispanic students as they attempt to gain access and participate in higher education as required by the Texas legislature "Closing the Gaps". The Texas higher education coordinating board approved the plan on September 20, 2000 to enhance the quality of higher education and to assure access to all students. The researcher interviewed five first generation Hispanic students who attended Texas University. It was found that the students who participated in study had to overcome similar challenges as they respond to questions concerning their social environment, economic status, and intellectual capacity.

Brown (2007) investigates about the intention of students to return to Jamaica after being educated in the USA. Using ethnographic data garnered from 36 informants,

the study explores the ways in which an intent to return influences informants' self identification and their association with others while abroad; resulting in the selection of social networks that are believed to aid in the maintenance of a continued identification with Jamaica, while at the same time encouraging access to opportunities available in the US. The researcher further viewed that there has been an ongoing debate over whether returned professionals can be considered a solution to the "brain drain" because they return with education and professional experience considered necessary to raise the social and economic conditions of their home country to a global level. Those who refute this claim argue that returned foreign educated elites are more encouraged by their experience abroad to prioritize private economic enterprise over national improvement.

Wang (2008) studied "The determinants of international student mobility". The main purpose of this research was to investigate the determinants behind international student mobility. The secondary purpose was to give suggestions for host country, source country, and also students who want to study abroad. A cross-section time series econometric model has been estimated covering the periods of 14 years from 1993 to 2006. The researcher found that tuition fees, government support and young generation population have significant impacts on international student mobility. Among them, tuition fees, relative living expense and distance has negative effect. He recommended that international student mobility is beneficial to host and source countries, it seems both host and source country should make a policy for fiscal support to students who study abroad.

Sharma (2009) in his research on the causes of educational migration in Nepal used qualitative research methods to explore the causes of educational migration. The main

purpose of his research was to analyse the reasons for educational migration of the students from rural areas to the urban areas. The major findings included lack of educational opportunity and opportunity in origin, unfavourable political situation, influences of peer groups, and network factors (social capital). He discussed push-pull, social capital, human capital and rational choice theory.

Feuer (2009) used a possible selves framework to examine the future aspirations and expectations of Latino youth in the transition from high school. It also explored gaps between expectations and aspirations and gaps between expectations and behavior. She studied quantitative approach with 143 participants and a follow-up qualitative study with 32 of the original participants. So, researcher employed a mixed methods design, specifically, a sequential explanatory design. Her findings supported the hypothesis that there would be a gap between participant' aspirations and expectations such that participants had higher aspirations than expectations during high school, $t(30) = 5.34, p = 0.00$. She found that 56 percent students stated a desire to go to college, 9 percent aspired to go into military, 28 percent to have a career, 22 percent aspired to have a specific career such as teacher, and 6 percent to be a professional. Many students said family as their influential in their aspirations. About 66 percent students' expectations was to go to college and 19 percent stated that they did not expect to go to college, 13 percent students' expectations to have a career, 19 percent to work in a job, 9 percent expected to join the military and three participants did not state an academic, career, or work expectations.

Mohlathe (2011) studied the role of social networks in student migration: the case of Basotho students in South Africa. The study attempted to understand the role social networks play in the cross-border migration of students. Data were collected from twenty participants

of whom fifteen were current students. The findings show social networks of relatives and /or friends as initiating and perpetuating the cross border migration of these Basotho students. Students were provided with the required information and resources needed during the cross-border migration process. Students got information about the place of destination from the social network that also assisted them with accommodation, as well as financial and emotional support.

Adhikari (2012) assessed the factors influencing the migration decision of Nepalese to the US. The main purpose of his study was to explore the major “push” and “pull” factors influencing the migration of Nepalese professional and non-professionals to the US. Using quantitative method, he examined economic, social, political, and personal factors to assess the major pull and push factors. Analyzing many pull factors each showed a positive impact on migration decision. Similarly, every push factor emerged as important indicators discouraging Nepalese living in the US to return back home.

Student Migration in the Nepalese Perspective

Although, there is a very negligible literature on the Nepalese student migration to foreign countries, the trend of going to India for education dates back hundreds of years. Very few have been written about this subject. Nevertheless, Nepalese students’ aspirations to go to India to pursue higher education are not a new phenomenon. Many students go to India mostly in Varanasi for higher studies. “*Saastra haraaye Kaashi jaanu*” (If you lose knowledge / learning, go to Varanashi) is the old Nepalese proverb. Varanasi is the centre of learning in India. Those students, who needed certificate, went to Varanasi to appear at the examination with the recommendation of the teacher (Sharma, 2003, p.8). Later on, Nepalese students started going to India under the Colombo Plan of which Nepal became the member in 1952 (Sharma, 2003). It is

interesting to know that only the Brahmins went to Kashi for higher learning (especially Sanskrit) and other communities generally did not study Sanskrit language.

Jha (1987) has stated that Nepalese students were compelled to go to India for higher education before the establishment of Tribuvan University. Despite educational opportunities in Nepal, many guardians are forced to send their son/daughter to India. Similarly, many students on self-finance have been going to India, Bangladesh and China for medical and engineering courses. Hence, quality education is accessible to elite groups only (Manjushree, 1992, pp. 9-12).

Nalanda University in India was very famous and many students from Asian region including the Buddhists were admitted to the University. The main reason to migrate to India for higher education has been lack of educational institutions in Nepal. The flow of Nepalese students to India for higher education is still prevalent. As many scholars from Nepal go to India for Ph.D., the higher education of India is still somehow influential for shaping up Nepalese higher education. (Khania, 2007, p.119). According to Swar (1980, p. 17), the Nepalese government encouraged the students to go abroad for higher education and provided incentives with monetary benefits. Some elite families in Nepal send their children to foreign countries for technical education. Such students pass pure science (I. Sc) with good performance. Such type of students account for 4-5 percent in Nepal (Sharma, 2000, p.3).

Quality education is provided to the children of rich families. They also secure higher marks and get educational opportunities for higher education abroad (Sharma, 2000, p. 10). Having perceived such type of situation, anxious guardians have started sending their children abroad for quality education (Sharma, 2000, p. 20). The author further pleads that many students go abroad for studies. So, Kathmandu University (KU) was established with a view to stopping

outflow of money from Nepal (Sharma, 2000, p. 29). It is said that KU stops students and money from outflowing.

Khania (2007) discusses about the Nepalese student mobility and views that the number of students going to foreign countries for higher education has increased by 25 percent annually. Similarly, Nepal Migration Year Book (2008) has given a separate chapter on student migration in the Nepalese perspectives. Economic Survey (2008/09, pp.73-74) in its balance of payments topic has touched this subject and states “The growing trend of Nepali students going abroad for higher education has resulted in an increase of travel expenses during the review period by 58.1 percent”. Similarly, the Economic Survey (2009-10, p. 87) also has followed the same pattern. This indicates the importance given to the trends of foreign going students in the Nepalese perspectives. Tourism Policy (2009) in educational tourism states that foreign students will be encouraged in training and study by marketing quality educational institution.

Student Migration and Higher Education

Education after higher secondary is called higher education (HE). It is also called tertiary education. HE is the education provided by universities, vocational universities (community colleges, liberal arts colleges, and technical colleges) and other institutions that award academic degree. It is also called post-secondary or tertiary education, third stage, third level education or higher education, is the non-compulsory educational level following the completion of a school providing a secondary education such as a high school, secondary level (Rajbhandari, 2009, p. 10).

Internationalization of HE in today’s global knowledge economy includes, in addition to increased international content in curricula, movements of students, scholars,

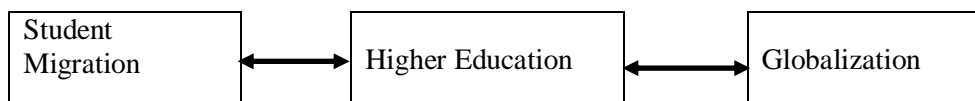
programme and institution across borders. These are collectively referred to as 'transnational' or "cross border" higher education (Guruz, 2008, p. 16).

Higher education is an investment at present and for the future. Like any other investment, it involves sacrificing resources at present in order to reap return in future Gosai, 2003; WB, 1986 (as cited in Acharya, 2009). "Education can unlock all doors for a progress" Swami Vivekananda" (as cited in George, Valan, Agrawal, & Gupta, 2008). "Knowledge is like light. Weightless and intangible, it can easily travel the world, enlightening the lives of people everywhere. Yet, billions of people still live in the darkness of poverty - unnecessarily"(WDR, 1998-1999). The World Bank's quotation clarifies the importance of knowledge and poverty can be eradicated with the help of education. People are poor because they are not educated. People live in poverty because they cannot reach the switch to turn on the light, and that switch is called education. Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009) have put forward some issues on higher education such as impact of globalization, phenomenon of massification, increasing student mobility, teaching, learning and curricula, quality assurance, financing, public good or private good debate, the private revolution, the research environment and information and communication technology.

It has already been mentioned in the beginning that there is relationship between higher education, migration and globalization. Globalization affects higher education and migration. Student migration is the result of globalization process. Student migration occurs for higher education and globalization process has resulted in the changes in higher education. In other words, globalization has brought about internationalization of higher education. Similarly, globalization has brought about opportunities for student

migration. Altbach et al. (2009) view that globalization, a key reality in the 21st century, has already profoundly influenced higher education. The relationship between student migration, higher education and globalization is presented below.

Figure 4. Relationship between Student Migration, Higher Education and Globalization



Source: Researcher's own creation

Figure 4 shows the relationship between student migration, higher education and globalization. Student migration is the result of globalization and globalization has paved way for student mobility in order to acquire higher education.

Bloom (2002) views higher education and globalization interlinked with each other. The process of globalization is making higher education more important than ever before, and neglect of this sector seriously threatens development. Globalization exerts new pressures on higher education, making reform essential. The author further argues that higher education is essential to promoting sustainable human development and economic growth. It is no longer a luxury that only rich countries can afford, but an absolute necessity for all countries, and especially for poor countries (Bloom, 2002).

The combination of globalization and higher education offers huge potential for improving living standards. India, for example, has taken advantage of globalization by building up its software engineering industry. The economies of those parts of India (Banglore and Hyderabad) are flourishing and provide a good example of a country using higher education to take advantage of one of the many promising opportunities offered by globalization (Bloom, 2002).

In the words of Kelo and Wachter (2004, p. 24), a high level of formal education is generally assumed to favour migration. In other words, persons with a tertiary qualification (highly skilled) are generally more mobile than lower skilled persons. The global demand for international higher education is set to grow enormously. Demand is forecast to increase from 1.8 million international students in 2000 to 7.2 million international students in 2025. Asia will dominate the global demand for international higher education. By 2025, Asia will represent some 70 percent of total global demand (Bohm, Davis, Meares & Pearce 2002, p. 3).

Kritz (2006) believed that higher education is changing from teacher instruction and book study to computing, e-learning, communication and global travel. Cross-border higher education flows are growing in the name of study abroad programme. Students are benefitted from reduced higher education cost. Host countries are benefitted from reducing brain drain, increasing domestic human capital, strengthening higher education capacity, attracting foreign students (foreign exchange) and promoting development. Similarly, source countries gain from the expansion of higher education networks, inflows of foreign students, increased export market and foreign exchange, development of new technologies to deliver higher education internationally, enhanced international status and competitive position and domestic students gain international experience (Kritz, 2006).

Cross-border mobility of students is a core component of the internationalization of higher education. Economic globalization and higher education internationalization are part of the macro context of international student mobility. Both globalization and internationalization are dynamic processes rather than fixed situations, and have different effects in different

societies. While in some settings, globalization and internationalization are seen as a threat, in other settings they are seen as opportunities (Li & Bray, 2007, p. 793).

According to Spring, 2009, p.84 (as cited in International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, 2010, p. 6), the global market in educational services is estimated by Merrill Lynch to be worth outside of the USA \$111 billion a year with a potential consumer base of 32 million students. The data of the US Department of Commerce indicate that higher education is the fifth-largest service sector “export” for the US. Of the almost 2.8 million international tertiary students studying worldwide, the USA and the UK host the largest numbers of foreign students, accounting for 21.2 percent and 12 percent of total international students, respectively in 2006. Education services rank as the third largest export category earner for the year 2007-08. Overall, international students, and the associated visitation from friends and family contributed \$12.6 billion in value-added to the Australian economy (International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, 2010, p.6).

Higher Education in the Global Perspective

The World Bank (1994) pleads that developing countries have invested heavily in their universities and other institutions of higher learning. Public subsidies as a proportion of unit costs of higher education often far exceed the subsidies to primary and secondary education because students in higher education tend to come from the higher income groups, a largely public funded higher education system tends to have adverse effects on income distribution. The development of higher education is correlated with economic development. Enrollment ratios in higher education average 51 percent in OECD, 21 percent in middle income countries and 6 percent in low income countries (The World Bank, 1994).

The Bank further clarifies that in all countries, higher education is heavily dependent on government funding. Most of the funding is spent on salaries and other unproductive expenses. However, there is always lack of non- salary expenditure such as textbooks, libraries. So, the quality of teaching and research has been deteriorated. While the rapid growth of enrollments has led to increased access to higher education for less privileged population, including women and students of rural origin, higher education generally remains elitist, with the majority of students coming from wealthier families. Higher education in many developing countries is characterized by low student- staff ratios, underutilized facilities, duplicative programme offerings, high dropout and repetition rates, and a large share of budget devoted to non-educational expenditure such as subsidies on student housing, food and other services (The World Bank, 1994).

The Bank has added that each country needs to weigh carefully the right balance of resources allocation between the three education sub-sectors considering rates of return at each level (primary, secondary and tertiary). Affluent households are most benefited from public higher education because of heavily subsidized. Government in Asia spends less per student on higher education than in other regions. The Bank has, therefore, suggested on resources such as mobilizing greater private financing, cost sharing with students, tuition fees, elimination of subsidies for non- instructional costs, funding from alumni and external aid and lending agencies, income generating activities such as short term course, contract research, consultancy services, financial support to needy students, financial support to academically qualified poor students unable to absorb the direct and indirect (foregone earnings) costs of higher education.

Similarly, the Bank has suggested in re-defining the role of government, the extent of government involvement in higher education, market - oriented instruments, increased management autonomy, coherent policy framework, well - defined legal frame work. Finally,

focusing on quality, responsiveness and equity, it is suggested increased quality of teaching and research, increased responsiveness of higher education to labour market demands and increased equity. Higher education investments have lower social rates of return than investment in primary and secondary education (The World Bank, 1994).

Hence, the World Bank has focused mostly on sources of funding including cost-sharing, rate of returns (investment) at primary, secondary and tertiary level, subsidies and involvement of the Government, quality, access and equity. On the one hand, the trends of public funding in higher education has decreased in many countries, and on the other the elitist groups have been benefitted from the subsidies to higher education. Moreover, the chunk of the expenditure goes to the salary and other non-productive expenses in most developing countries. For example, students' fees, food, lodging and enrollment in higher education under the TU in Nepal were heavily subsidized a few years back.

Carnoy and Rhoten (n.d) view that higher education is a tradable service. It is an important service industry. Higher education is undoubtedly being transformed by globalization. They examine that higher education is an industry that cannot avoid the influence of globalization, particularly in light of the borderless quality and expansiveness of knowledge generation and dissemination. They emphasize that it is undoubtedly a global as well as knowledge industry. Globalization has added a neo-liberal, capitalistic element to higher education as an industry.

According to K. Sibel (HRD Minister of India), "for years, thousands of our students have travelled abroad for higher education. Now, let us build India into a hub of top class higher education to which the world comes"(Sunday Times of India, Sep 13, 2009). It means a number of universities are likely to come to India so that students can get quality as well as a far more

cheaply priced foreign degree from, say, the Harvard or Imperial college. Many foreign universities have shown interest in establishing a campus in India. Similarly, Nepal, having a favorable geographical and climatic condition, should woo the international students for higher studies. For example, some students especially from SAARC countries have started coming to Nepal to pursue higher education in medical sciences and other disciplines especially at Kathmandu University.

According to Peril and Promise (2000), as knowledge becomes more important, so does higher education. Since the 1980's, many national government and international donors have assigned higher education a relatively low priority. Faculty is under qualified, lack motivation. Students are poorly taught. The benefits of higher education continue to rise, the costs are also growing. Higher education is no longer a luxury; it is essential to national, social and economic development. The authors add that human capital in the United States is now estimated to be at least three times more important than physical capital. High quality human capital is developed in high quality education systems, with tertiary education providing the advanced skills. In the 1940's and 1950's, higher education in developing countries was characterized by few students and graduates. Today, however, there has been a dramatic shift from class to mass, with half of world's students of higher education living in developing countries (The World Bank, 2000). The late 20th century saw the growth of a knowledge centered economy, as opposed to a manufacturing centered economy.

Higher education is increasingly seen as a commercial product to be bought and sold like any other commodity. Higher education commercialization has now reached the global market place. The authors view that higher education was seen as a 'public good'

as something that provided a valuable contribution to society and was therefore worthy of support. It is now seen as a 'private good' benefiting those who study or do research. It seems justified that the users should pay for this service as they would for any other service. The main provider of public funds, state, is increasingly unwilling or unable to provide the resources needed for an expanding higher education sector. So, universities and other post secondary institutions are expected to generate more of their funding. They have had to think more like business and less like educational institutions. In this context, a logical development is the privatization of public universities- the selling of knowledge products, partnering with corporations, as well as increases in students' fees (Altbach 2001; Khania 2007, p. 218; Thakur n.d.; Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 31)

The authors further explain that the WTO would help to guarantee that academic institutions or other education providers could set up branches in any country, export degree programmes, award degrees and certificate with minimal restriction, invest in overseas educational institutions, and employ instructors for their foreign ventures, set up educational and training programmes through distance technologies without controls. Educational products of all kinds would be freely exported from one country to another. They conclude that there are some universities working themselves as commercial activities such as New York University and Columbia University in the USA. Many universities establish profit making branches overseas and have gone on- line to sell their courses and degree to customers in all parts of the world (Altbach, 2001). Hence, higher education has been treated as a commercial product that can be bought and sold.

“Higher education is to a knowledge economy as primary education is to an agrarian economy and secondary education is to an industrial economy” (Bloom,2002;

Tandon, 2005). The author adds that there has been rapid growth in students' demand for higher education and in supply of training capacity. The cross –border higher education flows are growing rapidly. There are two new forms of cross-border higher education such as partnership programmes set up by established universities from two or more countries and branch campus or franchise arrangements set up by a foreign university. Students, host countries, source countries, and poor people are benefited from cross border higher education. (Bloom,2002).

According to Varghese (2004), universities in most countries were dependent in the past on public funding for their growth and expansion. The economic crisis as well as SAPs of the 1980's generally reduced the ability of the public sector to provide funding support for expanding higher education sector. Countries have adopted to cope with this situation. He further explains that one of the strategies has been encouragement and promotion of private universities. To-day, the private sector is the fastest growing segment of higher education. The reason is market-friendly reforms. The main source of income is student fees. Students are willing to pay for their education in private institution as many of them offer market-friendly courses which guarantee them a job. The author argues that the role of public sector in higher education began to reduce in size after the 1980's. Public resources were diverted from education to productive sectors, and diverting from higher to lower levels of education resulting in the decline of higher education. The growth of knowledge economy necessitated an expansion of higher education in the 1990's. Varghese (2004) gave the different forms of privatization of higher education resulting in an increase in the number of students and earning profit by selling in the market like any other commodity. So, it is also called commodification of higher education.

Tendency to treat higher education less favorably than primary education is on the grounds that higher education is a non-merit good. Declining share of higher education can be seen in the total education budget. The policy of government is to encourage private initiatives in higher education without giving room for commercialization (Sahani & Shankar, 2005).

It is only after the second half of the twentieth century that a drastic change has taken place regarding the function of higher education worldwide. During the 1960's, higher education focused primarily on the needs of elites as well as the creation of knowledge (UGC, 2007). According to Dias, 1998 (as cited in UGC, 2007), basic tasks of higher education are generation of new knowledge (the research function), training of highly qualified personnel (the education function), supply of services to society, and (ethical function) implying social criticism.

“Higher education should serve entire communities and the nation so that the country can get higher tax revenue, less unemployment, greater productivity, reduced reliance on public assistance, increased consumption, greater civic participation, less crime, better quality of life, civic life, and social cohesion”, Institute for higher education policy, Washington DC, 2007 (as cited in UGC, 2007, p. 1). Similarly the report has put forward that everyone has the right to education, higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit, and state parties shall make higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity.

In the words of Rhoads and Collins (2007), in a knowledge- based economy, higher education is important in a nation's ability to participate in the global economy. This new economy is grounded in the production and management of knowledge. The

authors have defined knowledge capitalism such as knowledge creation, knowledge acquisition, knowledge transmission, and knowledge organization.

According to Patnaik (2007), there are two very different perspectives on higher education which are independent of globalization. The first perspective sees higher education as a transaction between teachers and students. As against this, there is also an alternative conception of higher education. This sees higher education as an activity in which students and teachers are jointly engaged on behalf of the people of a society. The second perspective on higher education, on the other hand, concerns the changing needs of the time through demand and supply situation in the market. The writer also talks about excellence and quality that does not come from aping others. He argues that the higher education system, therefore, must be looked at through the second perspective. Hence, the writer has described about higher education not only interaction between the teacher and student but also about society in which education should be imparted on the basis of the demand of society and people in this globalized world.

In the words of Khania (2007,p. 217),even in Nepal, every year, there is an increase of about 25 percent students to go abroad for higher education so it needs to bring back the students who go to US, Australia, UK and other countries for education and stay there. Khania (2007, p.101) has stated that very notion of higher education has changed from knowledge producing mechanism to human resource development procedure. The author also has talked about quality, relevance, and access. Investment in higher education is made keeping not only the national market but also the international market in perspective. Considering the temperate climate and location between the two countries, China and India and other SAARC countries, Nepal can emerge as a destination for quality education for millions of people of this region if we can provide quality higher education.

George et al. (2008, p. 301) view that higher education can be a vital tool for helping developing countries to benefit from globalization because of technological and scientific inventions in the developed world which the developing countries aspire to catch up so higher education can be a fundamental instrument for speeding that process. Therefore, authors' view can be reworded that higher education helps developing countries garner the benefits of globalization without the laborious and costly process of discovery and also help attract foreign investment.

Rajbhandari (2009, p. 20) has stated that unlike other major factors, fiscal constraints is the major hindrance in expansion of higher education. She further states that in the past 10 to 15 years, expenditure for higher education as a percentage of the total public education budget has declined significantly (from 35 to 19 percent) in several countries including Nepal. The higher education is a fundamental and increasingly major determinant of a nation's position in the world economy. It contributes to labour productivity, entrepreneurial energy, and quality of life; improves social mobility, encourages political participation, strengthens civil society, and promotes democratic governance. It does this by creating new knowledge (Rajbhandari, 2009, p. 166).

Global Education Digest (2009, p. 53) has presented total expenditures (public and private) in tertiary education as a percentage of GDP of 101 countries of the world. Most of the countries of North America, Europe and East Asia have spent (public + private) around 1.5 percentage of GDP in tertiary education. However, USA and Cuba spent more than 3 percentage of their GDP in higher education. South Asia (except India) and Sub Saharan Africa fully depend on public expenditures in tertiary education and they spent less than 1 percentage of GDP

(exception to some countries) in higher education. Higher education has been seen as lucrative markets in many developed countries where students go to study there.

Zakaria, 2009, pp.190-191 (as cited in International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, 2010) argues that higher education is America's best industry. Eight of the top ten universities in the world are in the USA. He further argues that the USA invests 2.6 percent of its GDP in higher education, compared with 1.2 percent in Europe and 1.1 percent in Japan. In 1995, total Korean expenditure on education was 13.3 percent of GDP, 4.4 percent public, 9.9 percent private, perhaps highest of any developed nation, OECD, 2000 (as cited in Marginson & Burnie, 2003, p. 9). Similarly, Malaysia spent 7.5 percent of GDP on the government funding of education (2000), 1.3 percent on tertiary education institutions (1999), higher than much of the OECD, and remarkable 0.7 percent of GDP on subsidies to families for tertiary education purpose OECD, 2002 b (as cited in Marginson & Burnie, 2003, p. 8).

Duderstadt, Taggart and Weber, 2008, p.274 (as cited in International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, 2010, pp.7-8) argue that in a knowledge-driven economy, many governments are increasingly viewing higher education basically as a private benefit to students and other patrons of the University rather than a public good benefitting all of society. A similar view has been stated by Lin, 2004(as cited in Pahari, 2008, p. 35). He asserts that higher education can lead to economic growth through both private and public channels. The private benefits for individual are well-established and include better employment, prospects, higher salaries and great ability to save and invest. These benefits may result in better health and improved quality of life. The researcher reiterates that public benefits are less widely recognized. But, individual gains can also benefit society as a whole. Higher earnings for well-educated individuals raise tax revenue for government and ease demands on state finance. They also

translate into greater consumption, which benefits producers from all educational background Lin, 2004 (as cited in Pahari, 2008, pp.35-36). Similarly, the paradigm on higher education has shifted to building knowledge and skills (Pahari, 2008, p. 36).

Swar and Pandey, 2008 (as cited in International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation,2010) view that India is one of the largest higher education systems in the world facing the crisis of, university of the poor, with continued expansion, deteriorating standard, limited resources, and political involvement. Some of the politicians argue that Indian Universities are already at loss as more than 50,000 students are studying abroad in U.S., Australia and the UK, whereas a very small number of foreign students are seeking admissions in Indian Universities (p.9).

Weber and Duderstadt (2008) assert that due to globalization, the mobility of students and faculty as well as international partnerships among universities have increased massively. However, there are equally challenges and opportunities inherent in the globalization of higher education. They further state that universities have long embraced the world beyond their national horizon. Initially, scholars travelled from country to country in search of a student audience. Now, students in millions are internationally mobile in search of university degrees and cross-cultural experiences. Market forces driven by global competition have reshaped many aspects of higher education as businesses. Enhancement of quality of higher education system is another aspect. Governments around the world seek to expand the sector and enhance quality while simultaneously reducing the burden of resources this requires from public finances (Weber & Duderstadt, 2008).

To conclude, the author favours privatization of higher education due to financial crises and quality deterioration. Higher education is like a private commodity that can be sold and bought in the globalized context. However, there arises a question of social service or public good since higher education has become commercialized.

Trade in Higher Education Services (Commodification of Higher Education)

The World Trade Organization (WTO) was established on 1 January 1995 and it is the embodiment of the Uruguay Round results and the successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) which applied only to trade in merchandise goods. The WTO covers trade in goods (GATT), trade in services (GATS) and trade in ideas or intellectual property (TRIPS). The WTO is the legal and institutional foundation of the multilateral trading system (WTO, 2005, p. 4).

The main principles of the WTO are most favoured nation, national treatment, market access, and predictable and transparent. The WTO is often described as rule-based. Its rules are negotiated agreements. The WTO is not just about liberalizing trade, and in some circumstances its rules support maintaining trade barriers- for example to protect consumers or prevent the spread of disease. It is a negotiating forum (Understanding the WTO, 2005). Nepal joined the multilateral trading organization (WTO) as 147th member on 23 April, 2004. Earlier, Nepal's accession to the Global Trade Organization was ratified and a protocol was signed on September 11, 2003 at the Fifth Ministerial Meetings held at Cancun, Mexico (MOICS, 2006, p. 14).

General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)

The provision of services has become one of the most important determinants of global GDP and trade. So, the GATS is one of the most important agreements in the WTO. It

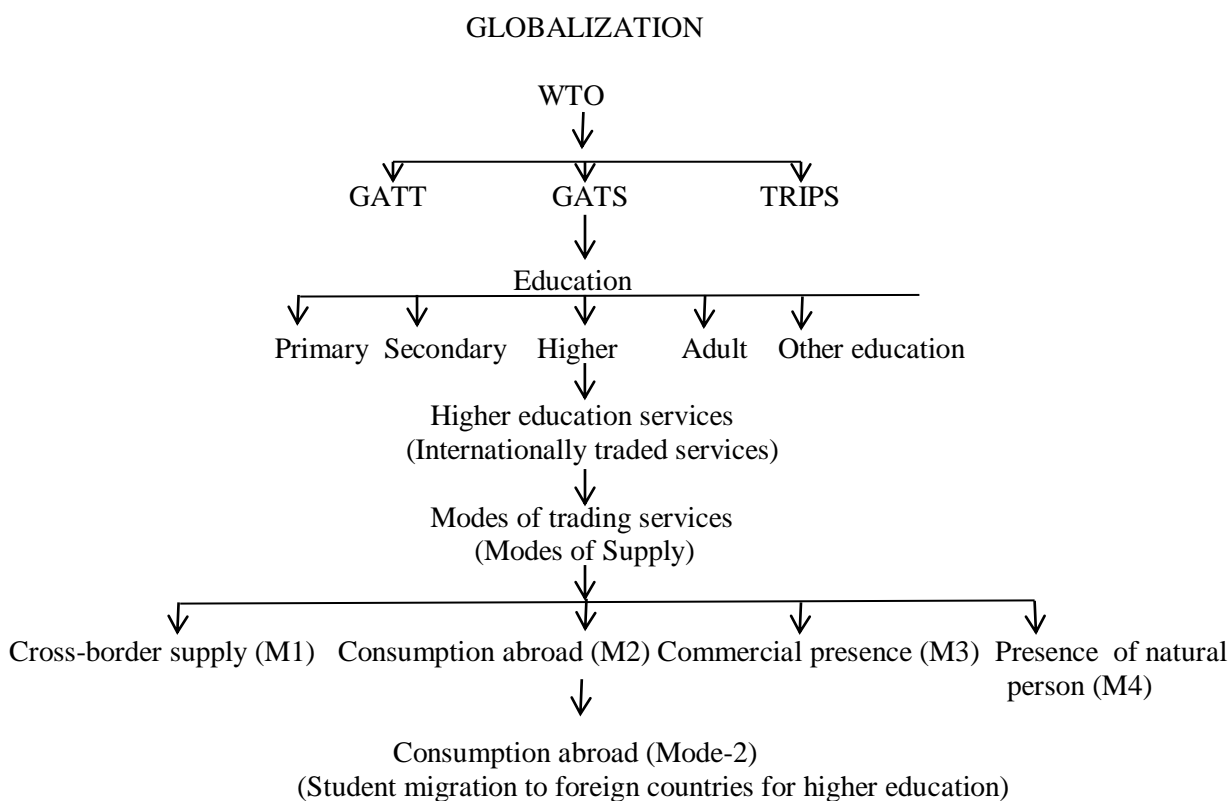
provides a legal framework for trade in services and covers 12 services and 155 sub-services. Nepal has opened about 70 sub services of 11 services sectors from 51 percent to 80 percent of foreign investment. Education service is one of them (UNDP, 2005, p. 255, & MOICS, 2006, p. 15). The WTO service trade (GATS) covers Modes of Supplies which is called Mode 1 (cross border supply), Mode 2 (consumption abroad), Mode 3 (commercial presence) and Mode 4 (movement of natural persons). I have inextricably linked student migration with Mode 2 in the WTO parlance. Therefore, the borderless education (tertiary education) covers all the aforementioned four modes of supply.

Education has been one of the 12 primary sectors negotiated under GATS since 1995 when the WTO came into existence. The Ricardian framework of comparative advantage is used to analyze the inherent advantage nations may have for international trade in educational services (Sahni & Shankar, 2005). Article 1 of GATS defines four modes of supply, which are the four distinct ways of providing any services. Accordingly, they include cross-border supply like distance education, e-learning (Mode 1), consumption abroad like students who go to another country to study (Mode 2), commercial presence like local branch or satellite campus of foreign universities (Mode 3) and presence of natural person like professors, teachers, researcher working abroad (Mode 4). Supply of service includes the production, distribution, marketing, sale and delivery of a service (WTO, 2002, GATS Art. Xxviii).

During Nepal's accession to the WTO, she had committed to partially or fully open higher education services, adult education services and other kinds of education based on mode of supplies. For example, under the mode 1 and 2, there is no limitations of market access and limitations on national treatment. However, mode 3 has partially

limitations and mode 4 is unbound. It means that primary education and secondary education have limitations of market access. Nepal did not commit to open these two education services. This research is related to mode 2 (student migration). There are five level of education services namely primary education, secondary education, higher education, adult education and other education under the GATS. Higher education services are internationally traded services. The relationship between GATS, higher education, modes of supply and student migration is given in the following figure.

Figure 5. Relationship between the WTO/GATS, education services and student migration



Source: Researcher's own creation

The figure 5 clearly depicts the linkages between the WTO (globalization) and modes of supply (consumption abroad in the form of Mode-2) through GATS and higher education services.

Generally, students from developing countries go to developed countries to further their education. Universities and colleges of the western countries host international students who pay for the education they receive. Monro (2004) has researched about the Chinese students who have migrated to the UK for studies. In 2001, Chinese were the largest student minority in the UK. British universities have profited nicely from the Chinese students influx. Moreover, most Chinese students are parent-funded. He further states that at Nottingham University's faculty of engineering, 224 of the 892 overseas-domiciled students are Chinese nationals. Overseas students at Nottingham pay at least 7200 pounds a year. The cost is several thousand higher. Students will spend 3800 pound a year for computer science and business studies. These fees are far below ordinary non-EU student fees. At Cambridge today, every 36th student is China-born.

Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) have analyzed the trends of students going abroad. According to them, in the United States the number of foreign students is around 600,000. Similarly, the number of foreign students in the United Kingdom is 165,000, which makes their proportion to the total students even higher compared to the USA ,The Economist 2004; Rao, 2006; Goldstein & Kumagai, 2003 (as cited in Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2006).

Similarly, Li and Bray (2007) viewed that market forces play an increasing role in matching demand and supply. Partly as a result, student mobility is now viewed less as aid and more as trade. The researchers have examined the interplay between supply of student's places and demand for those places, and focused on student motivation. Saravia and Miranda (2004) view that unsatisfied demand for higher education and skills, which have been created by the

knowledge-based global economy, have generated unprecedented opportunities in knowledge-intensive service industries. They further state that higher education is another major conduit of talent from less developed countries to the centres of the knowledge-based global economy.

According to Sahani and Shankar (2005), trade jargon has crept into the area of education. One can, therefore, say that the emergence of education as a ‘tradable service’, the introduction of ‘trade jargon’ in the area of education and the emergence of higher education as a passport to global employment are mutually re-inforcing compulsions. In the words of Gomez (2005) and Knight (2002), the following is the education related modes of supply of trade in higher education services. Knight (2002) states that the GATS define four ways in which a service can be traded, known as “modes of supply”. The borderless education covers all four modes of supply. Figure 6 shows all four modes of supply under the GATS of higher education services.

Figure 6. Mode of Supply

Mode of supply	Explanation	Examples in Higher Education	Size of Market
1. <i>Cross Border Supply (Program mobility)</i>	- provision of services where the service crosses the border (does not require the physical movement of the consumer).	-distance education -e- learning -virtual universities -selling/franchising a course to a foreign institution.	-currently a relatively small market -seen to have great potential through the use of new ICTs and especially the internet
2. <i>Consumption Abroad (Student mobility)</i>	-provision of the service involving the movement of the consumer to the country of the supplier	-students who go to another country to study - full study abroad for a foreign degree	-currently represents the largest share of the global market for education services
3. <i>Commercial Presence (Institution mobility)</i>	-the service provider establishes or has presence of commercial facilities in another country in order to render service	-local branch or satellite campuses -twinning partnership -franchising arrangements with local institutions -opening of an off-shore campus	-growing interest and strong potential for future growth -most controversial as it appears to set international rules on foreign investment
4. <i>Presence of Natural Persons (Academic mobility)</i>	-persons travelling to another country on a temporary basis to provide service	-Professors, teachers, researchers working/ teaching abroad	-potentially a strong market given the emphasis on mobility of professionals

Source: Jane Knight (2002, p. 5) in "Trade in higher education services: the implications of GATS". Vincent-Lancrin, 2004(as cited in Vikash Naidoo, 2006, p, 326) "International education, A tertiary-level industry update".

Figure 6 shows four mobility under the mode of supply in higher education services. They are programme mobility, student mobility, institution mobility and academic mobility. This research falls under student mobility (Mode 2) in which students go abroad in order to consume education services.

According to Gomez (2005), the internationalization dynamic of higher education, exclusively seen from the student migration and immigration point of view, is still the principal means of exportation of higher education services. The students' number and proportion abroad is higher in the contemporary history. It is calculated that the conjunction of the countries of the OECD receive approximately a million and a half students a year. The USA is the leader with more than a half million foreign university students. He further explains that France, USA, UK, Germany, Australia are net exporters of higher education services since they maintain a positive balance between number of foreign students and students who go abroad. Australia has turned into one of the main exporters of the world with the highest growth rate to date, OECD, 2004a (as cited in Gomez, 2005).

The researcher further explains that in counterpart, principle importers of higher education services are Asian countries. Two third comes from Asia, and Australia represents more than 75 percent of the foreign students. France mainly receives African young people (more than half of its foreign students). In Brazil, Mexico and Argentina, no more than 1 percent of the university student's body is foreign and same percentage are those who emigrate to obtain a degree, OECD, 2004a (as cited in Gomez, 2005). The pressure of globalization and the international competitiveness came to Latin America too late if contrasted to the regions of the globe.

Tandon (2005) has analyzed that in the present borderless information society, education needs to be able to respond to additional demands of a rapidly globalizing world (concept of global village). The challenge for higher education, therefore, is to reform, create, and develop systems that prepare the individual to work in a borderless economy and live in a global society. In other words, our educational institutions need to

produce global citizens. He argued that everything began to be viewed as a commodity that could be produced and delivered by the private sector in line with market forces and according to the principles of supply and demand. One by one –water, electricity, postal services, health, and now education, have been turned into a commodity.

He opines that the state has been withdrawn from higher education because investment in higher education results in lower returns. As the researcher states “the results generally suggest that higher education yields a lower return than primary or secondary education and they have been used to justify the skew of government budgets and development funds away from higher education institutions”. But the rate of return calculations is flawed because they do not take account of the full range of benefits to those who receive higher education. For example, higher education can enhance health, openness, peace, and social development and at the same time reduce disease. Higher education confers benefits above and beyond enhancing the incomes of those who receive it. And many of these benefits take the form of public goods, such as the contribution of higher education to enterprise, leadership, governance, culture, and participatory democracy, and its potential for lifting the disadvantaged out of poverty (Tandon, 2005). Globalization has changed all that. One of the major consequences of the globalization of education has been commoditization and the corporatization of institutions of higher learning. More than one thousand state schools in the USA have been handed over to corporations to be run as business. There is another, more serious, problem with corporatization of education. Corporations operate on the principles of cost reduction and profit maximization (Tandon, 2005).

A shift occurred in the West from a Keynesian to a Friedmanite approach to macro economic policy formulation. Newman and Couturier, 2001 (as cited in Guruz, 2008, p.35) have described the results of this shift as the “invasion of the academy by market forces”. In the Regan and Thatcher administration, the role of the state in the economy started to diminish as a result HE entered into a “*quasi market*” Niklasson, 1996, p.35 (as cited in Guruz, 2008).

Nepal is also one of the importers of higher education services (exports students/ mode-2, consumption abroad). Nepalese students mostly go to the USA to pursue higher education. So, Nepal is the importer of education services and the USA is the exporter of education services. Hence, she maintains a negative balance between the number of Nepalese students who go abroad and number of foreign students who come to Nepal for further studies.

Higher Education and Quality Education

Education for All (2004-2009, p.29) core documents write “quality of education relates to the overall holistic development and high learning achievements of children. For this purpose, five basics are teachers, textbook/instructional materials, learning environment, school improvement and management and capacity building”. Improving all aspects of quality education is one of the component goals of the Dakar Framework of Action. The Three Years plan (2010-2013) in its objective of education highlights the guarantee of quality education.

There are five broad principles of education namely basic education, equity (access), internal efficiency (achieve), quality of education, education-work and environment and build institutional capacities (World Bank, 1980). Size of class, qualification of teacher, material facilities (soft ware and hardware), years of schooling,

curriculum, health, nutrition and pre-school education, use of space are considered to be quality of education. Quality means quality faculty (trained and motivated professors, modern library, scientific laboratory), curriculum reformed in accordance with changing needs, employment in the job market, student selection criteria, customer satisfaction, resources(funding for higher education), external examiner in the assessment of students, teacher/student ratio, competition, instructional materials, quality student in a manageable size, quality control mechanism, a more practical education and universally-accepted degrees.

Goodlad (1995) views that it is difficult to define quality. He further asks what the key issues that should be addressed are; and what action can and should be taken in the absence of any agreed definition of quality? At one level, quality is easy to define: 'fitness for purpose'. But this definition leaves unanswered question of what the 'purpose' of universities is. Debate about quality is taking place worldwide. Much of the debate concentrates on the form rather than the content of university education (Goodlad, 1995).

Quality assurance might include undergraduate and admissions access policies; equal opportunities, credit accumulation and transfer, new course or programme design and approval, course reviews, departmental reviews, resources allocation for courses and programme, validation of other institutions' course, franchise arrangements for course or programmes, students' work and progress; research students' supervision, student assessment and degree classification, examination appeals, external examiners' appointments, external examiners' reports, academic staff appointment procedures, staff development and training, teaching and learning innovation, academic standards,

securing of students' views on academic matters and enterprise in higher education projects (Goodlad, 1995, pp. 8-9).

According to Mohammad and Elaine, 1996 (as cited in Joshi, 2007), quality dimension includes tangible, competence, attitude, content, delivery, and reliability. She analyzed the quality of education by taking into account the aforementioned quality dimension. They include; *tangibles* (sufficient equipments, access, support service, well-equipped classes, educational infrastructure); *competence* (academic staff, sufficient staff, teaching expertise; *attitude* (understanding students' needs, giving personal attention, cooperative teachers, positive thinking, disciplined student, personal development); *content* (curriculum relevance to future jobs); *delivery* (effective presentation, fairness of exams. encouraging students, education with moral value); and *reliability* (giving valid award, universal accepted degree). Other include practical education, good and friendly environment, and research-oriented teaching.

Many researches show that there is a positive association between quality of higher education and student mobility abroad. If there is quality education, the trends of student migration increase and vice versa. One of the main reasons for going abroad study is to get quality education. Kritz (2006) opines that most students go to the closest country where they can get a high quality education.

There are mainly two motives for migration. They are economic (earnings) and quality of education. Mostly, students migrate to foreign countries for quality education. The quality of education is important for students engaged in an entire study programme in their choice to study abroad. More than 20 percent of the students state the higher quality of education relative to the quality in the Netherlands as the main reason in

deciding to study abroad (Thissen & Ederveen, 2006, p. 16). Quality (77 percent) of specific academic programmes mattered highly among college-bound Illinois high school seniors so overall quality of the school mattered most (Dean, Hunt & Smith, 2006, p.27). Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) view that quality of teaching is a major factor stimulating students to study in developed countries.

In an open ended questionnaire no 35, I collected the views of 407 students on quality education. They described quality education as practical education (employment opportunities and career development), tangible (library facilities, equipments, well-equipped class, support services), competence (experienced Professors, sufficient staff teaching, expertise, theoretical knowledge), good environment (college /friendly environment), reliability (universal accepted degree, compete foreign degree), content (curriculum relevant to job), attitudes (understanding students' needs, giving attention), and delivery (effective presentation, fairness of exams).

According to Varghese (2004), quality of education can be measured by the level of infrastructural facilities, types of programmes offered, teachers' qualification level, performance of students in evaluation tests at the university, and performance on the labour market. At the broadest level, education quality can be viewed as a set of elements that constitute the input, process and output of the education system, Cheng & Tam 1997, p. 92 (as cited in Pahari, 2008). Pahari (2008, p. 94) has given quality framework for engineering education as inputs (curriculum, faculty, students, institutional management, and infrastructure), process (teaching methods, evaluation, internship, and project management), outputs (mathematical skill, engineering skill, communication skill and

analytical skill), and outcome (prosperity and comfort of people, economic growth of the country).

To be competitive in the global market, quality education is a must and adheres to importance. Nepalese students go abroad in search of quality education which is concerned not only with the students but also parents. In Nepal, quality education is provided by a limited number of schools. Therefore, the choice of Nepalese students for quality education has ultimately been foreign universities.

Related Research on Higher Education

Although, there is very limited researches on higher education in Nepal, there have been many researches (articles and dissertations) on higher education and its related field in international arena. Higher education and globalization are directly related to each other. Therefore, some of the literatures association with higher education and globalization on the one hand and higher education and student migration on the other are chronologically given below.

Chotisukan (1994) examines the direct and indirect impact of educational policy on the rural-urban migration pattern. On the one hand, the focus of the research aims to reveal the role of education on the process of the individual's migration decision making, along with the economic constraints in the rural area and economic incentives of the urban area. On the other hand, it attempts to study the attitude of rural Thai people towards higher education and the tendency of leaving the agricultural occupation to pursue a wage earning in the urban centres. Multiple research methodologies were applied. The research finds that the national economic development which is biased toward industrialization and modernization uses the educational system as a means to

achieve its goals. Even though the agricultural programme is provided in the schools, its educational quality is not good enough to train students to be proficient farmers.

Shiozawa (2000) carried out extensive research into globalization of higher education in Japan. The researcher views that important changes have been taking place in Japanese higher education. Firstly, more than 30 US college branch schools were opened during the mid 1980s through the early 1990s. Secondly, it is the increasing popularity of Western business and professional education among young Japanese professionals. This study has four objectives: (1) to propose a theoretical framework to understand the globalization of higher education (2) to identify the conditions and developments in these two waves of this particular globalization phenomenon in Japan (3) to examine how the proposed theoretical framework applies to the Japanese situation, and (4) to compare the two waves to delineate the temporal changes in the globalization of higher education in Japan.

Drawing concepts from globalization theories, this dissertation proposes a theoretical framework namely the fragmentation of sovereign power and modern configuration, marketization and rising consumerism, the presence of heterogeneous security-projects to adjust to or resist changes, localization and diversity and multiplicity. Findings also demonstrate transition of globalization from controlled deterritorialization in the first wave to uncontrolled deterritorialization in the second wave as Japan makes partial convergence with the global market place of higher and professional education.

Rhee (2002) explored traveling women of Korean descent in US higher education by applying critical auto/ ethnographic study. The researcher utilized the metropolis/first and colonized/Third World paradigm. Four distinct literatures were put in the research namely foreign students in US higher education, history of migration between Korea and

USA, the cultural politics of Asian immigrants, and the construction of Korean women in Korean nationalist cultural discourse. By weaving this literature, the researcher plotted multiple routes that connect the different geographies, cultures, language and politics in order to display how the term ‘travelling Korean women in US higher education’ becomes imaginable for the study. In this way, the study draws connections and blurs the distinction between foreign students discourse, minority and majority politics in the US, and First and Third World inequalities. The researcher applied decolonizing methodology (guides the methods and procedures for the study) and discussed the rhizomatic nature of the auto/ethnography. In this oxymoron space of stuck travelling, it was examined prolific acts of owning and disowning to free ourselves and to rework the worlds and how the global/ multicultural discourse of US higher education interacts with narratives.

Bassette (2006) carried out research into globalization, GATS and American higher education. The goal of dissertation was to present a clear and balanced picture of the implications of including higher education as a regulated trade issue in the GATS. Her study involved qualitative research by employing the theory of the commodification of higher education – that higher education is increasingly being treated as a commercial product. In other words, higher education is viewed as a private good to be paid for by the student. Privatization of higher education has resulted in the decrease in the financial support. Globalization, however, is producing significant changes in how much government can determine their own national educational policies. Higher education plays a crucial role in preparing workers for the job market (competitive labour force). She pleads that over the past century and a half, the doors of higher education have opened wider to accommodate greater diversity of students, largely due to the economic benefits of attaining tertiary education. She further states that rapid growth in

demand for higher education has been a challenge for universities as there have been severe cutbacks in government financial support for higher education.

Her study revealed that American higher education was initially unprepared for the challenges of addressing trade concerns, leaving the office of the United States Trade Representatives (USTR) to take its cues about higher education from an organization without representative input from the broad higher education community. She also observed that just a few well-positioned individuals have been affecting broad international policy formation in regards to this issue. She highlighted international trade as an important and relatively unexamined area in which globalization has impacted higher education in the United States and informed the nascent debate about the implications of international trade for American higher education.

Ho (2006) discusses about China's higher education excellence in the context of globalization. The main purpose of this study is to examine the major elements of excellence as perceived by China and scrutinizes the impact of globalization on the interpretation of the world - class University. The study describes and connects two different yet related phenomena, i.e. China's world -class university aspiration and globalization. One part of the study examines Peking University and Tsinghua University which have received major government grants to enhance their quality and other part presents interpretations of globalization pertaining to higher education.

The study relied on qualitative data collected from literature and documents. The researcher analyzed 162 documents and 11 key elements of a world class university were identified. To determine the impact of globalization on the idea of a world-class university, five key elements of globalization of higher education were identified, and a

mind-map was built accordingly. Hence, the researcher talks about quality, grants, implications of globalization, and restructuring in the context of higher education.

James (2006) compares study of the modernization and globalization of higher education in Africa and Asia. So, the researcher examines the vital role that higher education plays in the modernization of a nation. The nations of Asia and Africa relied upon education as a means of economic, industrial, social and political development. These nations invariably regarded Western education systems as models. The writer further views that in Asia, higher education has achieved notable success at helping nations to become the “*tiger*” economic states they are today. As a result, these nations have broadened their influence in the international economic arena while helping to promote the phenomenon of globalization. On the other hand, African universities are struggling to identify themselves and define the role they should play in their nations’ development. The writer has pointed out the importance given to higher education in generating knowledge economy.

Wong (2006) analyses how higher education in HongKong has been affected by the sweeping force of globalization. The researcher has focused on higher education as implications of globalization for higher education are relative more substantial. The researcher has stated that dynamics of globalization involves two players: one at the top level and another at the bottom level. The agent at the top level is HongKong University Grant Committee (UGC) which has been entrusted to develop a quality assurance and assessment mechanism at all state-funded higher education institution. On the other hand, the agent at the bottom level refers to the higher education institutions and its academics. Based on qualitative research through in-depth interview of the responses of the

academics and faculty members, he argued that the faculty response is rather passive, individualistic, and covert and lacked collective responses to fight against the globalization force that emphasizes economic norms like productivity, efficiency, cost-effectiveness.

Joshi (2007) analyses quality in higher education in Nepal. The objectives of the research are; to identify the critical quality dimensions of total quality education based on the concept of TQM in the students' prospective, to establish relationship between students' dimensions of quality education and quality education empirically, to find out the current state of dimensions of quality education in the perceptions of students' and state of students' expectations, to find out the gap between students' expectations and the current state of quality education, to have comparative study between public and private colleges in respect of the students' dimensions of quality education, and to find out the gap between students' expectations and the current states regarding students' dimension of quality education in the private and public colleges. The study had adopted descriptive research design with purposive sampling and sample size was 268 students out of total 3000 population.

The finding reveals that an empirical relationship can be established between quality education and students' dimensions of quality education. It was found that there was a big difference between students' expectations of quality education and the real quality of education being imparted by the colleges under study. The findings state that there is significant difference between students' dimensions of quality education in public and private colleges in the current state except in the case of the campus facilities. However, the difference is not significant in the expectation level of the students of both

the colleges. It can be concluded that colleges are not meeting the expectations of the students concerning quality dimensions of education. The comparative study done between the public and private colleges found that state of the tested dimensions in the current state are not satisfactory in the public colleges while they are satisfactory in private colleges.

Pahari (2008) carried out a research on reform strategies for quality of engineering higher education. The main purpose of his thesis was to analyse and explore the current issues associated with the quality of engineering higher education in Nepal and recommend policy strategies to address these issues for reforming engineering higher education in Nepal. He conducted survey methods in which 374 questionnaires were distributed and 246 samples were collected. He found that the graduating engineers have satisfactory level of competencies, however, requires further improvements to cope with the complexities emerging in the engineering practice. The finding also explored the pertinent issues influencing the quality of engineering higher education.

Acharya (2009) in his research on privatization of higher education (HE) in Nepal sought to explore the issues on equity and access of HE through privatization policy as adopted by the GON in HE. He applied mixed methods by selecting 30 colleges and found that move towards privatization enhances enrolment of HE age group population and girls' participation in HE. He found that privatization of HE positively contributes to expand type 1 (dominated by mass private sector) access to HE. However, there is lack of clear-cut policy on privatization of HE and equity and access in particular.

Rajbhandari (2009) in her quantitative research on economic issues and perspectives of women's enrollment in higher education of Nepal analyzed the trend of

women's enrollment in higher education and saw the factors influencing such enrollment and found that the students of the high economic status pass the SLC from private schools and get enrolled at the technical programme, while the students of the low economic status pass the SLC from the Government schools and get enrolled at the general programme. The study also found that the students' passing the SLC from the Government or the private schools depends upon their economic status. Also, higher percentage (85percent) of the respondents from outside the valley was of the low economic status than those (15 percent) from inside the valley. It was found that the total students' enrollment increased by 2.4 folds in 2004 in comparison to 1983. An economic issue (45 percent) was the highest percentage of women who were prevented from enrolling in higher education followed by social (27 percent) and family issues (24 percent). Regarding quality education, she found that 64 percent of the sample students suggested employing qualified and trained teachers, 46 percent of the respondents came to Kathmandu for higher education due to the lack of higher educational institutes in their place of origin. The study shows that there is a strong link between women's higher education and country's development (Rajbhandari, 2009. pp. 172-73).

Higher Education in Nepal

The Three Years Plan (2010/11- 2012-13) states that higher education should be oriented towards the creation of knowledge society whereas the Three Years Interim Plan (2007/08-2009-10) had emphasized on research-oriented activities and producing competitive manpower. The beginning of higher education in Nepal dates back to 1918 when Tribhuvan-Chandra (TC) College was established. It marked the beginning of modern higher education in Nepal (Pradhan, 1981; Rajbhandari, 2009). Initially, it was

affiliated to Calcutta (Kolkata) University and later to Patna University. TC was a landmark in the field of higher education. In 1949, the first institute of higher learning for Sanskrit education was established in the country. Teacher training centre, first institute for higher technical education, was established and later it was converted into College of Education in 1956. Similarly, different committees on higher education were established in the country (Pradhan, 1981).

Tribhuvan University (TU) was established in 1959 and it was given responsibility of providing quality education of and access to higher education. In the words of Pradhan (1981), TU performed dual role as affiliating and supervising the existing colleges and providing degree level instruction. TU is functioning in the span of the country with largest numbers of students, faculties, staffs, and programme (Pahari, 2008, p. 26). The students of Sanskrit college used to go to Queens College in Varanasi (India) for their examination. Hence, till the first half of the twentieth century, higher education in Nepal was the privilege of the selected few only (Pahari, 2008; UGC, 2007, p. 7). The government nationalized the whole education system from primary to university in 1971. However, due to resource scarce and mounting pressure of students aspiring for higher education, the government adopted the policy of economic liberalization, privatization and globalization process in higher education.

In order to provide higher education, Tribhuvan University (1959), Nepal Sanskrit University (1986), Kathmandu University (1991), Purbanchal University (1994), Pokhara University (1997), and Lumbini University (2005) have been functioning in Nepal. The Lumbini University has not yet run any academic programme. The other two degree awarding higher education institutions are B.P.Koirala Health Science Academy (1993)

Dharan, and Medical Science National Academy, Bir Hospital (2002) Kathmandu. The objective of these two institutions is to provide education related to medical sciences.

KU, the first University of its kind, established from private sector and set the image of delivering quality education in Nepal (Pahari, 2008, p.26). It is an autonomous, not-for profit, non-government public institution initiated through private endeavor, and established by an Act in December 1991. It is an institution of higher learning dedicated to maintaining the standard of academic excellence (Republica, Dec 10, 2010).

In addition to these, the government has given consent to open three more universities namely Mid-Western university in Surkhet, Far Western university in Mahendranagar and Agriculture and Forest university in Chitwan. The newly universities would be funded by government (GorkhaPatra, May 17, 2010). With the establishment of three universities, the question of monitoring and supervision has been raised by the educationists. Hence, higher education in Nepal has been shifted from elite to mass. As a result of the privatization policy of government in educational sectors, many private colleges came into existence.

It is said that expenditures in higher education has been curtailed in Nepal. The government has to allocate huge resources for state-funded Universities. According to Global Education Digest (2009, p. 53), Nepal spent around 0.5 percentage of GDP in tertiary education in 2007 whereas Bhutan spent 1 percentage of GDP in tertiary education. Both countries fully depend on public funding in higher education. In South Asia, Bangladesh allocated less than 0.5 percentage of its GDP in tertiary education's expenditure. Pradhan (1981, p.226) calculated cost per student (unit cost) in higher education in Nepal in 1977-78 and 1978-79 to be US \$ 286 and 298 respectively. The

government of Nepal has allocated Rs 57.65 billion for the whole education sector in fiscal year 2010-11. This allocation is 17.1 percent of the total budget (Ministry of Finance, 2010-11, p.16).

Student Migration and Globalization

According to Sanskrit theology, “*Bashudhaiba Kutumbakam*” denotes this world as one family. This saying can be linked to globalization as one village. Since there is an association between student migration and higher education, there is also linkage between student migration and globalization. International migration is associated with globalization. In other words, international migration is the result of globalization. The integration of the world economy, erosion of sovereignty, and de-territoriality of the state have eased the migration in the world. However, immigration policy of any country can control international migration. Castles 1998:182 (as cited in Meyers, 2000) observes that international migration is an essential part of globalization.

Goldin and Reiness (2007) view that migration is one of the components of globalization. Human globalization implies transfer of group of persons from certain countries to others or transfer of large masses of persons-that is migration (Labini, 2001). Because of globalization, the flow of students to migrate to higher studies has increased every year. The question arises why students go abroad for further education. The answer is simple. They go to foreign countries in order to grab the opportunities in this globalized world. It means globalization has provided different opportunities to students. Students can study courses of foreign universities that also provide services in Nepal.

Concept and Definition of Globalization

According to Baylis and Smith (2001), the term 'globalize' and 'globalism' were introduced in 1944. While noun "globalization" entered in dictionary for the first time in 1961, hardly any titles of books and articles published before 1975. Since its earliest appearance in the 1960s, the term 'globalization' has been used in both popular and academic literature to describe a process, a condition, a system, a force, and an age (Wade, 2004).

Globalization has become a buzzword in this century. Every country is connected to outer world which has been borderless economy in trade, finance, FDI, people, ideas, information and communications. The physical incidents or social effects in one corner of the world influence other parts of the globe. It is also called global village. Globalization is the increasing flow across borders and boundaries of people, goods, services, ideas, information, images and values. It increasingly makes education an international commodity, with services provided by new competitors (UNESCO, 2003). Some of its literatures are chronologically given below.

According to Robertson, 1992, p.8 (as cited in the Globalization Website, 4Jan, 2009; International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, 2010), "globalization is the process by which people and communities come to experience an increasingly common economic, social and cultural environment; but globalization as a theory deals with the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole". Robertson (1992) further states that globalization was initially discussed from economic perspectives but soon after it became a topic for discussions among

intellectuals from cultural perspective as well (as cited in International Journal of Educational Leadership preparation, 2010).

According to Bhattachan (1999), the fever of globalization has caught up all sectors in the Nepalese society. The most recent wave of globalization is universalization of 'exploitation' and it has become a new religion of both modern and postmodern societies on this planet. The author views that perhaps the most powerful form of globalization is economic, in which planning and control expand from a relatively narrow focus –such as a single firm doing business on a regional and international basis – to a broad global focus in which the entire world serves as a source of labour, raw materials, and markets.

Bhaduri and Nayar, 1996 (as cited in Bhattachan, 1999, p. 81) opine that the most important dimensions of 'globalization' are three interconnected elements of economic openness.'”They are openness to international trade, international investment and international finance in a world integrated for more tightly through improvements in communication technology. They have further noted that economic liberalization advocated by the IMF and the World Bank goes beyond to include trade flows, investment flows and financial flows and extends to flows of technology, information and services across national boundaries” (Wolfensohn ,2001).

The whole world will be turned into a global village due to information revolution. Capital, goods, labour, people, technology, and ideas know no political boundaries these days. Some of the very effective instruments of globalization used by developed countries include GATT (WTO), the Structural Adjustment Programme and Intellectual Property Rights (Bhattachan, 1999, p. 82; IMF staff, 2002).

The concept of globalization has been used to refer to many different things including liberalization, structural adjustment, economic reform, privatization, denationalization, deregulation, debureaucratization, delicensing, marketization, state minimalism, openness, restructuring, economic autonomy from society, export promotion, regionalization, export processing zones, /free zones/ offshore financial centers, universalization of capitalism and of labour, and universalization of western cultural and lifestyles of developed countries (Bhattachan, 1999,p. 83, Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2002).

Globalization is the growing interdependence of the world's people (Khan & Sundaran 1999, Wolfensohn, 2001). Khan and Sundaran (1999) further state that increased trade, new technologies, foreign investment, expanding media and internet connections are fuelling economic growth and human advance. Since the 1980's, many countries have seized the opportunities of economic and technological globalization. However, global opportunities are unevenly distributed. The global labour market is increasingly integrated for the highly skilled with high mobility and wages but the market for unskilled labour is highly restricted by national barriers. Inequality between countries has also increased. They present the example as the income gap 74 to 1 in 1997, 60 to 1 in 1990 and 30 to 1 in 1960 clearly shows the inequality (Khan & Sundaran 1999, Todaro & Smith 2006).

Globalization has become an ideological discourse (Burbules & Torres 2000, Brooks & Waters 2011, p.8). International institutions like the United Nations, World Bank, International Monetary Fund, and World Trade Organization shape the policies of the government especially in developing countries. The authors have identified economic, political and cultural factors of globalization. Economic factors include –changes in trade relations (WTO/ EU/ Free trade), changes in banking and credit process (visa, ATMs,

currency flows, exchange, capital, financial markets), the presence of international lending agencies (WB / IMF), changes in the factor of production (post-Fordist industries, knowledge economy, service sector, tourism) ,the presence of global corporations, the mobility of labour and companies, new technologies (transmission of data, capital and advertising), new patterns of consumption (Mc donald), means of consumption (shopping malls, TV. buying channel). Political factors include responses to transnational capital, global political structure (UN), domestic pressures and demands, and responses to its own internal needs and self-interest. Similarly, cultural factors include changes in global media (CNN, Cable, and internet), commercial culture (Mcdonalds, Nike), changes in communication, film, T.V., global religions (changes local rituals into transnational eves, global world of sports like Olympics, World cup (Burbules & Torres, 2000, pp. 9-11). Hence, abovementioned factors of globalization touch every aspect of the society. However, economic factors influence more than the other factors.

According to Wolfensohn (2001), globalization is about technologies that have already transformed our abilities to communicate in ways that would have been unimaginable a few years ago. It is about our global environment, communicable diseases, crime, violence, and terrorism. He further says that it is about new opportunities for workers in all countries to develop their potential and to support their families through jobs created by greater economic integration. But, it is also about international financial crises. And, it is about workers in developing countries who worry about decisions affecting their lives that are made in far away head offices of international corporations. Globalization is about risks as well as about opportunities (Todaro & Smith, 2006,

Wolfensohn, 2001, Khania, 2007). The former president of the World Bank reiterates “we cannot turn back globalization. Our challenge is to make globalization an instrument of opportunity and inclusion-not of fear and insecurity. Globalization must work for all”.

Baylis and Smith (2001) define globalization as the process of increasing interconnectedness between societies such that events in one part of the world more and more have effects on peoples and societies far away. A globalized world is one in which political, economic, cultural, and social events become more and more interconnected, and also one in which they have more impact. In other words, societies are affected more and more extensively and more and more deeply by events of other societies. The events are social, economic and political. In each case, the world seems to be shrinking for instance, www, communication, e-mail, T.V. global newspaper, coca cola, Mc Donald’s, global economy, global risks, pollution, Aids (Baylis & Smith 2001, pp. 7-11).

According to Steger (2003, pp. 9-12), four qualities or characteristics lie at the core of the phenomenon. Firstly, globalization involves the creation of new and the multiplications of existing social networks and activities that increasingly overcome traditional political, economic, cultural, and geographical boundaries. The second quality of globalization is reflected in the expansion and the stretching of social relations, activities, and interdependencies. Today’s financial markets stretch around the globe, and electronic trading occurs around the clock. Thirdly, globalization involves the intensification and acceleration of social exchanges and activities. The often repeated phrase that ‘globalization compresses time and space’ simply means that things are getting faster and distances are shrinking dramatically. Fourthly, the creation, expansion,

and intensification of social interconnections and interdependencies do not occur merely on an objective material level.

According to Juhasz et al. (2003), today, globalization together with advances in communication and transportation has greatly increased the number of people who have the desire and the capacity to move to other places. For example, a nurse trained in Manila works in Dubai, a professor from S. Africa chooses to live in Sydney. In the words of Wade (2004), the north-south, core-periphery, rich country-poor country divide is being eroded away as globalization proceeds.

In the words of Odin and Manicas (2004, pp. 7-8), economically, globalization refers to the effective creation of a world market, culturally, emergence of homogenous world culture (Americanization) and extinction of cultural differences, and politically, decline of sovereign nation state. The authors further state that there is conjoined economic, cultural and political process that we may describe as “globalization”.

According to Bassette (2006), globalization is a force that cannot be ignored. She mentioned that globalization has many features in common with the theory of modernization. Powerful cultural industries like universities and colleges also influence and are influenced by globalization. Unfortunately, and particularly among students from developing countries, the opportunities afforded in a global economy often result in graduates seeking the best opportunities available to them and those opportunities are often not in their home countries. She further argues that globalization may have dramatically negative cultural effects for nations whose best students seek work in other countries and contributing result of globalization. Her views show that globalization brings in opportunities in the name of international education for which students opt for

higher education abroad and results in negative aspect since people do not return to their country rather seek works in foreign countries.

In the words of Panchal (2006), globalization has become a magic term in recent years. It has attracted the attention of people both at home and abroad for over a decade. Globalization is a process and not an end. It is a process by which events, decisions and activities in one part of the globe have significant consequence for other parts of the globe. It advocates for a “global village”, “global neighborhood”, and world without boundaries. We live in an integrated world in which people, goods, ideas, and capital flow across countries (WDR, 2006).

Goldin and Reinst (2007) view that there are five economic dimension of globalization such as; trade (exchange of goods and services among countries), finance (exchange of assets or financial instruments), aid (transfer of loans and grants among countries as well as technical assistance for capacity building), migration (“migration as the temporary or permanent movement of persons between countries to pursue employment or education or both”) and ideas are the broadest globalization phenomenon.

In the words of Khania (2007, pp. 154-156), the effect of globalization on us is that our students who are academically high performers and able to afford expensive education are highly interested in joining universities abroad. Every year, a good number of students go to USA, UK, Australia, India, Europe, and the Philippines for higher education. It is, no doubt, a good sign of internationalization of our society. The advantage of globalization for the universities in the developed countries is that they have been able to run offshore campuses in different countries in the world and generate resources for their development. In other words, they have been able to extend their

services throughout the world. For example, several universities in the USA and Australia have been running courses in China, Hong Kong, Singapore. At the same time, it should be noted that many courses of Universities of USA, UK and Australia and other foreign educational institutions are in operation in Nepal (Khania, 2007).

If it is true that globalization is one of the key concepts of the twenty-first century, it is also true that it is one of the most hotly debated and contested (Robinson, 2007, p.126). The author discusses globalization in different forms such as emergence of a globalized economy, global cultural patterns, global political process, transnational migration, identities, and communities and new social hierarchies (Robinson, 2007, p.125).

Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009) define globalization as the reality shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, Modelski, 1972 & Morse, 1976 (as cited in Baylis & Smith, 2001, pp.7-11), new information and communication technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network, the role of the English language, and other forces beyond the control of academic institutions. Similarly, they define internationalization as the varieties of policies and programmes that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization. These typically include sending students to study abroad, setting up a branch campus overseas, or engaging in some type of inter-institutional partnership.

There are four key elements of globalization which are described in the UNESCO education position paper (2004) - the growing importance of the knowledge society/economy, the development of new trade agreements which cover trade in education services, the innovations related to ICT and emphasis on the role of the market and market economy (International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation 2010.p

5). The most widely accepted definition of globalization is that it is a feature of late capitalism, or the condition of post-modernity. And more important, that is characterized by the emergence of a world system driven in large part by a global capitalist economy. The simple examples of globalization are: we wear shirt made in Hongkong, use car manufactured in Japan, drink coffee grown in Jamaica, and watch CNN or BBC, cable TV. The Nepalese people also have started tasting KFC and Hot burger in Kathmandu.

Robinson (2007) has discussed theoretical discourses on globalization such as world system theory; theories of global capitalism; the network society; theories of space, place and globalization; theories of transnationality and transnationalism; modernity, postmodernity and globalization; and theories of global culture. The definition mentioned above clearly demonstrates that globalization implies an integrated world economically, politically and culturally.

Globalization as a Process:

The World Summit for Social Development, 1995 (as cited in Bhattachan, 1999, p. 83) had identified six features of the process of globalization. These are: “the spread of democracy, the dominance of market force, the integration of the global economy, the transformation of production system and labour market, the speed of technological change, and the media revolution and consumerism”

In the words of Bhattachan(1999, pp. 84-86), both money and power are translated into foreign aid, Western technology, TV, Radio, newspaper, magazines, internet, books, motion pictures, missionaries and education invaded developing countries like Nepal as part of the process of neo- imperialism. This process is

represented by sugar-coated terms like modernization, globalization, market economy, privatization, democracy, westernization, and human rights.

It can be reworded that the aforementioned process has brought in changes in economic, social, political and cultural sectors of Nepal. The main instrument of the process of globalization in Nepal includes missionaries, foreign aid, MNC, electronic media, the WB/IMF, tourists, technology, education, human rights and politics and diplomacy. Benefits of modern science and technology, better health care, transportation and communication, education, and foreign consumer production can be seen in Nepal, but such benefits are the exclusive 'privilege' of the elite class. The process of globalization has given options for such people (brightest brains of Nepal) to work in developed countries and a large number of Nepalese youth go to the Gulf and S. Asian countries to do manual jobs due to the demand of cheap labour.

The role of student migration has been augmented because of globalization process and students' quest for higher education is the result of globalization. So, one facilitates the other. Globalization also results in painful activities such as different kinds of flu (diseases), crimes, terrorism, smuggling, global environment and social distortion. So, globalization brings in opportunities as well as threats. However, opportunities outweigh threats.

Migration is an important ingredient in the process of globalization. Since globalization is flow of goods, services, capital, technology, information and ideas across national boundary, migration is also flow of people, remittances, technology and social information either internal or external. Because of globalization, international migration has increased dramatically. The world has become globalized (borderless economy), so cross border flows of people is common. That is why migration is linked to globalization.

Bhattachan (1999) also has named education which has become the force of educational globalization. The author further states that non-communists treat globalization as liberalization / marketization but the communists and many intellectuals of under developed countries treat globalization as a powerful force of imperialism. When most of the scholars, politicians, and development practitioners talk about globalization, it generally means globalization of western culture and values. Globalization of non-western culture and values has been either ignored or underestimated (Bhattachan, 1999, pp.88 -95).

Burbules and Torres (2000, p. 4) view that the origin, nature, and dynamics of the process of globalization are, therefore, a focus of concern for educational philosophers, sociologists, curriculum workers, teachers, policymakers, politicians, parents, and many others involved in educational endeavor. The authors mean that people involved in the education sectors are influenced by the globalization process because globalization has affected education especially higher education.

It is generally recognized that the process of globalization has been significantly aided by the fall in the costs of communication and transportation that has led to an inevitable shrinkage of our globe into a quasi. '*Global village*'. The authors have stated that integration of world economy through trade and investment has resulted in the decreasing transaction costs of trans-border trade and investment. Globalization and mobility of people are intricately interconnected phenomena. Globalization without mobility does not have much significance. The success of globalization will therefore depend critically on the mobility of labour. (Gangopodhyay & Chatterji 2005; Dutt 2005; Prosser, Raw, Bishop & Miller 2000; Reyes, 2001).

According to Prosser et al. (2000, pp. 274 - 277), the key players in the globalization process are very large transnational corporations (TNCs) which are very large firms with production units in more than one country. Most FDI is from TNCs based on North America, Europe, Japan and E. Asia. Despite its rich natural resource bases, Africa receives almost no FDI. It goes to countries and regions which have the best growth prospects.

Reyes (2001) views that the theory of globalization coincides with some elements of the theory of modernization (Baylis & Smith (2001) which is a part of the globalization process. Both theories state that main direction of development should be that which was undertaken by the USA and Europe. Globalization theories emphasize cultural and economic factors as the main determinants which affect social and political conditions of nations.

According to Khor (2001), globalization has become the defining process of the present age. While the opportunities and benefits of this process have been stressed by its proponents and supporters, recently there has been increasing disillusionment among many policy makers. The author further views with the reasons that failure of the Seattle, Cancun, Hong Kong WTO ministerial meeting is a signal of this disillusionment. The reasons are; lack of tangible benefits to most developing countries from opening economies, the economic losses and social dislocation by financial and trade liberalization, the growing inequalities of wealth and opportunities arising from globalization. He further explains that the most important feature of globalization process is the 'globalization of national policies and policy-making mechanism. National policies that until recently were under the jurisdiction of states and people within a country have increasingly come under the influence of international agencies and financial players. This has led to the erosion of national sovereignty. The author's view clearly indicated

world's economic organizations influence national policies (erosion of sovereignty) in the name of globalization process.

Baylis and Smith (2001, pp.7-11) explain that “globalization is the process of increasing interconnectedness between societies such that events in one part of the world more and more have effects on peoples and societies far away”. They argue that each theory sees globalization differently. They gave an example such as “a good analogy is with sunglasses with different coloured lenses put on the red pair and world looks red so on’. A globalized world is one in which political, economic, cultural, and social events become more and more interconnected so globalization has many features in common with the theory of modernization, Modelski 1972 & Morse 1976 (as cited in Baylis & Smith, 2001,pp.7-11).

Dutt (2005, pp. 115-129) views that globalization is a process of breaking down barriers between countries and regions around the world. The author asserts “economic globalization means that the international networks of trade, FDI, portfolio investment and information have intensified to such an extent that strong worldwide economic inter-dependence has resulted”.

Kumar (2008:34) states that recently, the process of globalization has accelerated the flow of students from developing and Sub-Saharan countries to the US and Europe. According to the UNESCO (as cited in Kumar, 2008), students from Sub-Saharan Africa are the most mobile; one out of 16 is studying in an overseas university, while only one out of every 250 students in North America goes overseas for higher education. He further views that the major share of international flow of students is from developing countries, particularly from China and India, due to the push and pull factors. Therefore, the impact of globalization on education has increased the global market for higher education.

The globalization Website states that it is a process of an intangible unification of countries of the world to develop a Global Village in spite of the presence of physical barrier of geographical boundaries. In other words, the formation of a global village is a goal of globalization. In its essence, the process commenced when human beings started migrating from one place to another for their own physical survival or for economic activity or for sheer adventure.

The most important domain question has been the beginning of globalization. In this connection, Robinson (2007, p.127) mentioned three broad approaches. In the first, it is a process that has been going on since the dawn of history, in the second, it is a process with the spread and development of capitalism and modernity, and in the third, it is a recent phenomenon associated with such process of post-industrialization, post-modernization or re-structuring of capitalism.

There are six main dimensions of globalization such as ideology (divergent and disparate ideologies such as September 11 event), society (globalization has brought about social change in society such as Fast Food Family or triple F), culture (globalization has incited non-western culture to get westernized), economy (globalization has propagated capitalism such as poor-rich divide crosses national boundary and promoters are G8, WB, WTO, MNCs), politics, (globalization has challenged all the non-democratic system), and ethics(globalization has taught the legendary phrase “thank you-sorry”).

Hence, process of globalization has made the mobility of individuals including students, goods, services, capital and information possible across the boarder. Globalization is penetrating every sector including education. So, globalization has resulted in the faster movements of the students going abroad for higher studies.

Era of Globalization

One may pinpoint the origin of globalization more than a century ago with changes in communication technologies, migration patterns, and capital flows (Burbules & Torres, 2000, p. 12). Robertson (2004) views that globalization derives very simply from human interconnectedness. He has described it from three waves namely first wave (until the sixteenth century), second wave (nineteenth century), and the third wave (twentieth century).

Dutt (2005, pp. 115-129) categorically states that there are three waves of globalization: first wave that existed between 1400-1800 century, long distance trade was strictly limited (non-competitive goods like sugar, gold, species), second wave of globalization lasted during 1900, rise of trade was centered in basic tradeable goods (wheat, textiles), and the third wave of globalization existed between 1978-1990 and trade takes place in basic and manufactured goods.

Similarly, Goldin and Reinert (2007) are of the opinion that modern era of globalization dates back to approximately 1870. The period from 1870 to 1914 is the birth of the modern world economy which was as integrated as it is today. Capital flows (British foreign direct investment and Portfolio investment), and global capital markets were facilitated by advances in rail and ship transportation and telegraphic communication. European colonial systems were at their highest stages of development and migration was at a historical high point. The authors have explained that the first modern stage of globalization was followed by two additional stages: one from the late 1940s to the mid-1970s and another mid-1970s to the present. These were preceded by the First World War, Great Depression and the Second World War. During this time, many aspects of globalization were reversed as the world experienced increased conflict, nationalism, and

patterns of economic autarky. They explain that the second modern stage of globalization began at the end of the World War Second. It was accompanied by global economic regime namely GATT, WB, IMF. This stage also involved some reduction of trade barriers. The third modern stage of globalization began in the late 1970s: This involved emergence of newly industrialized countries, technological progress in transport, communication and information, lowering the costs of moving goods, capital, people, and ideas across the globe. Japan emerged new source of FDI. Japan's share of global FDI increased from less than 1% to over 10%, the thawing of the Cold War, entry of China into the World Economy and reduction of trade barriers, remittances flow (Goldin & Reinert 2007).

Salmi, 2000 (as cited in Pahari, 2008, p. 83) opines that globalization may not be new phenomena. The conquest of America by the Spanish and Portuguese invaders at the end of the 15th century, the triangular cotton and slave trade in the 17th and 18th centuries, the construction of the Trans-Atlantic telegraph cable in the 1860s and the colonization of most of Asia and Africa until the middle of the 20th century were key factors of economic integration and determinants of economic growth on a global scale.

From the above discussions, it can be concluded that globalization emerged from trade and colonialism as a result of which human migration occurred. So, it is not a new phenomenon. However, modern globalization dates back to Post-Second World War.

Educational Globalization

According to Ritzer (1998, pp. 81-94), economic, political and cultural changes are affected by globalizing trends. Indeed, because education is one of the central arenas, popular policy, privatization, role of national and international organization (teacher unions, parents'

organization and social movement), multiculturalism, new educational models to confront the winds of change, and new models for migrant education.

In the words of Burbules and Torres (2000.), in educational terms, there is a growing understanding that the neoliberal version of globalization is reflected in an educational agenda that privileges particular policies for evaluation, financing, assessment, standards, teacher training, curriculum, instruction and testing. They reiterate that the influence of globalization on educational policies and practices can be seen to have multiple and conflicting effects (Ritzer, 1998, p. 19).

In the words of Altbach (2004), migration of the highly educated is a central element of globalization. The loss of significant numbers of the best and brightest remains a problem for many poor societies. He pointed out that about 80 percent of the world's foreign students come from Asian countries.

According to the UN General Assembly (2006, pp. 57-58),on the topic of globalization of education, the expansion of trade and investment in the global economy since the 1980s has been accompanied by an increase in the international trade in education services, particularly in higher education. The increasing number of students migrating to obtain tertiary education abroad is part of this trend (Mode-2).

The UN forecasts that by 2015, if enrolment ratios increase modestly, the number of students in tertiary education could rise to nearly 100 million persons in the same age group. It further states that in order to enhance domestic capacity to provide education at the higher level and to reduce the foreign exchange costs associated with study-abroad, developing countries are allowing prestigious foreign universities to set up branch campuses or subsidiaries in their territories. The number of persons studying abroad has

been rising and will probably continue to increase in the foreseeable future. The majority of students seeking education abroad originate in high or middle-income countries, although high numbers of students from China and India also study in developed countries which are interested in fostering collaboration partly because the export of educational services can be very profitable, Philips & Stahl, 2001,(as cited in UN General Assembly, 2006).

Bajracharya (2007) has mentioned influence of globalization on education such as commodification and the corporate takeover of education, the threat to the autonomy of national educational system by globalization, distant education, and harmonization of curriculum at the global level. He views that countless number of students are going abroad, increasing number of Nepalese education institutions are teaching international degrees, many international education institutions are having agreements with Nepali institutions, facilitation in international test examinations, gradual liberal approach of the government, private sector educational institutions at all levels, courses oriented to international pattern and harmonizing the curriculum and international labour markets.

Globalization is about financing of education (reducing state financing), curriculum in line with the global job market, management borrowed from business sector, cost cutting issues and educational decision making process. In connection with education sector, globalization has also influenced on information technology, development of educational leadership, application of modern technology, and pedagogy. The expansion of trade and investment in the global economy since the 1980's has been accompanied by an increase in the international trade in education services particularly in higher education. The increasing number of students migrating to obtain tertiary

education abroad is part of this trend. Similarly, the number of students enrolled in higher education has dramatically increased. This has been the result of educational globalization. Similarly, global changes in culture deeply affect educational policies, practices and institutions. Hence, globalization has led to the development of private international institutional and a rapid increase in student mobility i.e, best students outside their home countries (<http://www.globalization>).

The shift of the focus on the role of education in globalization has changed in terms of the structural adjustment policies of the World Bank and other international lending organizations for underdeveloped and low income countries. These organizations push their hidden agenda such as cuts in government expenditures, market liberalization, currency devaluations, reductions of government subsidies, price controls, and most importantly the privatization of public services such as health and education (International Journal of Educational Leadership preparation, 2010, p. 4).

Findlay and Tierney (2010) view that the first wave of the globalization of tertiary education primarily meant the movement of students across borders. The new wave of globalization includes the movement of teachers and the whole institutions into overseas markets, joint degree programmes offered by institutions in different economies, and distance learning programme. It has a higher level of commercial motivation.

Globalization is defined as trade in goods and services (also in education sector), private cross border finance FDI (also in education sector), and migration (teachers/ nurses). Four key aspects of education to achieve human capabilities are schooling, tertiary education, vocational training and foreign education. Velde (2005) further clarifies the links between economic globalization processes and education in this way-the quantity and quality

of education determine whether and how countries can participate in the process of globalization (including migration); the process of globalization (measured by FDI, trade and migration) affect the demand and supply of education and public policies have attempted to reconcile HRD and process of globalization (Velde, 2005).

Velde (2005) has examined the main links between economic globalization processes and education. Regarding effects of globalization process on education, he stated that education services are increasingly traded so developed countries (US, UK, Australia) control most of market. Similarly, significant amount of students from developing countries seek education abroad. The effect of education on economic globalization processes is associated with students and they stay abroad for work.

It is clear from the aforementioned literatures that education especially higher education has been influenced by globalization process in resources, curriculum, higher education policy, educational leadership, quality, global market, liberalization and privatization of higher education, trade in higher education services, and demand for international higher education. Globalization generally means economic globalization process which encompasses trade, FDI and human migration. But, educational globalization has also influenced on especially higher education (tertiary education). It is said that economic development (high GDP growth rate/percapita income) in the source countries has resulted in the increasing number of students studying abroad. For instance, students from the developing country like Nepal go abroad with a view to seeking higher education because of the globalized world. This is the boon of the globalization. On the one hand, the demand for international higher education has increased tremendously; on the other, the foreign universities have also opened their branches/satellites campus

outside their countries. So, globalization of education has been a new phenomenon. Privatization of higher education, cost cutting, quality, e-learning, information technology, educational reforms, and outflow of skilled and experienced teachers are some of the issues in the educational globalization.

Related Research on Globalization

Filbeck (2002) conducted an ethnographic multiple case study of restructuring in Thailand's public higher education system. The researcher examined the Thai Ministry of University Affairs and three more Universities in Thailand that had undergone restructuring or were in the process of restructuring. The study found that although globalization did play a role in the restructuring of three universities in Thailand, it was not the irresistible force that many claim it to be. The study confirms the theory that globalization is vulnerable to cultural and social factors.

Jiang (2005) in his thesis analyses the contemporary phenomena of globalization, the knowledge economy, and internationalization in terms of their synergistic impacts on higher education with special reference to China and New Zealand. He makes clear that globalization and the knowledge economy are seen to fuel each other as well as drive trends in higher education. Internationalization is shown to be intimately related to but conceptually distinguishable from globalization. The thesis critiques the ascendancy of neoliberalism in the discourse of globalization, and the knowledge economy and the internationalization of higher education. The researcher further states that the policies of deregulation, liberalization, marketization, privatization and commercialization are shown to exert largely negative influences on universities and, by extension, on other higher education institutions. They overemphasize the private value of both knowledge

itself and higher education as a knowledge agent something which leads to a homogenizing, devaluing 'commodification of higher education'.

In his research on globalization and South Korean educational reform in the mid-1990s, Lee (2006) has referred to President Kim Young- Sam who created national policies and constructed an educational system to meet the demands of society. This became a key purpose of educational reform in the 1990's and four educational reform agendas between 1995 and 1997 reflecting an emphasis on globalization were announced. Five research questions guided the study.

The researcher found that the global trend of educational reforms and mid-1990s educational reform of Korea have similar characteristics in that both emphasized the decentralization educational system and education for English and IT, increased higher education opportunity, and enhanced the accountability of schools and the cooperation of education and industry. However, the global and Korean trends of educational reforms differed in that the global trends emphasized the efficiency and reduction of public educational funding, math and science education, and standardized testing while mid 1990s trend of Korea emphasized an advanced democratic educational system, increased public educational funding, with little emphasis on math and science education and standardized testing.

Yoder (2006), in his research examines the globalization of universities and related government organizations in China. By using the analytical framework allomorphism (an analytical framework specifically developed to examine changes of higher education institutions), the researcher investigated how worldwide patterns of university governance and practices are incorporated in eight universities in China. It

conceptualizes globalization at the cognitive level, that is, the spread of ideas about how universities should be organized and the role of universities in society, but allows for exploration of how organizations respond to global ideas. From the literature, he identified four patterns (1) changes in governance/ organizational restructuring of higher education (2) accreditation and quality control (3) transnational higher education and (4) internationalization. Based on qualitative interviews, the study has two principal findings. Firstly, the Ministry of Education plays a role in how universities adopt and adapt global patterns of organizational structure and practice. Secondly, the length of time a university has had international programme and number of international programme at a university relate to how much a university incorporates globally held ideas into its organizational structure and practices.

To conclude, some theories and models were discussed in review of literature. The gravity model states that a higher tuition in host countries is expected to decrease student flow. But, many students migrate to foreign countries for further studies in spite of higher tuition fees by taking into account quality of education. For instance, many international students have been enrolled at the Harvard, and Oxford Universities because of its quality since the tuition fee is very high. Similarly, migration flow is not always expected to depend negatively on distance. Students from high GDP countries go to low GDP countries in order to study. For example, some students from European countries have been enrolled at KU and TU in Nepal. Regarding the human capital theory, it is difficult to calculate such factors as non-economic (psychological) costs.

According to Lee (1965), migration involves push-pull, interveining obstacles and personal factors. But, globalization has also influenced migration. The development of IT

and internet has facilitated the migratory behavior of potential students. For instances, economic and student migration have increased after the 1990s'. Similarly, propensity to migrate depends on aspirations and expectations of the people. Curiosity of the potential students facilitates migration process. Furthermore, it does not discuss about return migration which is one of the main components of my research. So, globalization process, curiosity and aspirations and expectations are neither push nor pull factors. These are the gaps in the push-pull model. Hence, globalization, aspirations and expectations and curiosity bridge the gaps in review of literature.

Chapter Summary

Human migration is the movement of people from one place to another or permanent or semi-permanent change of residence for better life. There are two types of migration- internal and international. Migration is generally understood as an economic migration but educational migration also accounts for one of the components of international migration. Brain drain – a term coined in the 1960's when the British scientists and skilled people migrated to the USA- is associated with migration. People with skills and knowledge leave the native land in search of better opportunities and do not return to their homeland. It is a loss for the country of origin and gain for the country of destination. In the case of brain drain, doctors, engineers, scientists, and educationists of a developing country go to a developed country and settle permanently. In the Nepalese perspective, not only doctors and engineers but also the talented and the best Nepalese students go abroad in search of further education and do not return to Nepal. However, there is another side of the coin. Developing countries not only face brain drain but also benefit from brain gain. Remittances, transfer of knowledge and technology are some of the examples.

Why migration occurs is discussed in this discourse. For this, there are some theoretical models/ theories that are related to student migration. The well-known gravity model has been used to study migration flow in the form of origin and destination. Migration flow depends negatively on distance and positively on economy or population. Human capital theory weighing benefits as well as costs states that like education, migration is also an investment in human capital. According to this theory, people migrate when expected returns exceed costs. The push-pull models also known as neo-classical economics developed by Ravenstein (1885, 1889) and revised by Lee (1965) assert that origin, destination, intervening obstacles and personal factors influence the decision to migrate. This model has been applied by many researchers in understanding student migration. Another neo-classical migration theory is the Todarian model (1969) and Harris Todaro (1970) model which states that income differential is main determinant of the decision to migrate. Like other models, it also weighs up both costs and benefits of moving. The main prediction of the model is that higher wages gap between origin and destination countries should increase the migration rate. The social network theory (Douglas Massey, 1987,1993, 1998) also links between sending and receiving societies and main thesis of this theory is reducing costs and facilitating migration process. Early migrants provide potential migrants with information, food, accommodation and job opportunity. Cultural capital and possible selves theory are other theoretical frameworks related to student migration.

Although, educational migration began in the 4th century B.C. in Greece, researches on science, medicine and mathematics came about in the 6th, 8th and 9th centuries. According to Mohanty (1986), majority of students at Bologna University were foreigners in the 12th century. The first analysis of college student migration was carried out in 1893-94 and 1896-97 in the

USA. Since those periods, hundreds of researches on student mobility have been conducted globally.

International migration is the function of demand pull, supply push and networks factors (Rashid, 2004; Brettell, 2008). In the economic migration, demand becomes effective in the destination country where many economic migrants (labour migrants) go to work. The demand of the destination country pulls the economic migrants and they are supplied (push) from the origin.

Regarding student migration, many researches have been carried out globally. Iranfar (1983), Sirowy and Inkeles (1985), Rahman (1996), Patnaik (1997), Cardinale (2000), Boyd (2002), Rashid (2004), Li and Bray (2007), Mansoor (2007), Chen (2007), Sharma (2009), and Hines and Tweeten (n.d.) have analyzed the push-pull factors of student mobility. Similarly, Adhikari (2012) has examined push and pull factors influencing migration decision to the US. Also, Gibson, J. & McKenzie, D. (2009) have researched on study and work migration.

Social network factors also determine student migration. Moretti (1999), Davis, et al (2002), Baruch, Budhwar, and Khatri (2006), Sharma (2009), and Brooks and Waters (2010) have studied the influence of social capital in the educational migration. Mohlathe (2011) explained the role of social networks in student migration. Tuckman (1970) studied the relationship between income and migration. He found that an increase in family income should increase migration. Referring to Tuckman (1970), Baryla & Dotterweich (2001) state that student migration occurs for investment and consumption reasons and found that higher education institutions that have regionally recognized quality programme have greater ability to attract non-resident students.

In the same way, Bel-hag (1982), Carling (2001) and Feuer (2009) state that aspirations and expectations to migrate to higher education influence student mobility. High expectations and aspirations result in higher tendency of potential migrants. Mohanty (1986), Moghtassed (1986), Chang (1988), Brzezinski (1993), Smith (2006), Sahay (2006), Baruch, Budhwar, and Khatri (2006), and Brown (2007) have done research on brain migration and claim that student mobility lead to brain drain since majority of students do not return home after completing their studies abroad.

Many students migrate to foreign countries in order to earn rather than learn. In this connection, Havens (1987), Bose (1999), Farrer (2007), and Bohra-Mishra (2010) view economic factor of migration. A migrant weighs the cost and benefit of migration. Migration like education is also called an investment in human capital. Hamad (1989), Potnuru (2003), and Heuer (2004) stated that migration decision is an investment framework. According to Heuer (2004), migration is selective. It can be concluded from the abovementioned literatures that student migration is caused by different factors which can be classified into push, pull, network, personal and expectations and aspirations. So, these factors cause student mobility.

The Nepalese proverb "*Saastra Haraaye Kaashi Jaanu*" indicates that Nepali students went to India for higher education before the establishment of TU. After the 1980s', the trends of students to go to foreign countries are on increasing in number. KU was established with a view to stopping outflow of money from Nepal (Sharma, 2000). There is an association between student migration, higher education and globalization because students migrate to higher education in the globalized context.

This is the age of knowledge economy. Most of the countries of Asia like South Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, Japan, and Hongkong and recently in India (Banglore and Hyderabad) have

heavily invested in education (Knowledge economy). Higher education is to a knowledge economy as primary education is to an agrarian economy and secondary education is to an industrial economy (Bloom, 2002, Tandon, 2005). In the beginning, the state was sole responsible to finance higher education but these days many countries have cut down state treasury in higher education. In this context, Rajbhandari (2009) views that expenditure for higher education has declined. In many countries, higher education has been privatized and the costs lowered because of lower rate of return from higher education. In this connection, the World Bank (1994) states the investment in higher education has lower social rates of return than investment in primary and secondary education.

Carnoy and Rhoten (n.d), Thakur (n.d.) Altbach (2001), Varghese (2004), Tandon (2005), Bassette (2006) and Khania (2007) have stated that higher education is like a commercial product to be bought and sold. So, it is also called commodification of higher education. Acharya (2009) found that privatization enhances enrolment of HE age group population and girls' participation in HE.

Education has been one of the 12 primary sectors negotiated under GATS when the WTO came into existence. Higher education services are internationally traded services and student mobility falls under Mode-2. Programme mobility (Mode-1), institution mobility (Mode-3), and academic mobility (Mode-4) are other modes of supplies. For example, France, UK, USA, Germany, and Australia are net exporters of higher education services because of student mobility to those countries (OECD, 2004).

The beginning of higher education in Nepal dates back to 1918 when Trichandra College (TC) was established. TC was a landmark in the field of higher education in Nepal. Similarly, TU was established in 1959 and it was given responsibility of providing quality education and

access to higher education. In 1971, the government took responsibility of financing whole educational system when new education system was introduced in the country. However, due to resource crunch and high demand for higher education, the government adopted the policy of economic liberalization and privatization in higher education in the context of globalization in the 1980s that saw many other new Universities. Similarly, the government reduced the subsidies in higher education because it favoured the elite with subsidized price in tuition fees and food.

Defining globalization, UNESCO (2003) states that globalization is the increasing flow across borders and boundaries of people, goods, services, ideas, information, images and values. It is an integrated world economy, Modelski, 1972 and Morse, 1976 (as cited in Baylis & Smith, 2001), Robertson, 1992 (as cited in globalization website, 2009). With the concept of “global village”, capital, goods, labour, people, technology, and idea know no political boundaries. There are six main dimensions of globalization such as ideology (Burbules & Torres, 2000, Steger, 2003, Brooks & Waters, 2011), society, culture, economy, politics and ethics (Globalization website). However, the economic dimensions of globalization are trade, finance, aid, migration and ideas (Goldin & Reineast, 2007).

Since there is an association between student migration and higher education, there is also linkage between student migration and globalization. International migration is associated with globalization. Because of globalization process, people began to move globally. Castles 1998:182 (as cited in Meyers, 2000) observes that international migration is an essential part of globalization. Migration is one of the components of globalization (Goldin & Reineast, 2007). Because of globalization, the flow of students to

migrate to higher studies has increased every year. Globalization has provided different opportunities to students.

It can be deduced from the above discussion that the world stands at one village so international border has become blurred. The world is integrated socially, economically, politically, and culturally. The world is so interconnected that any activities and events in one part of the world have significant consequence in other part of the world (Panchal, 2006). Researchers like Filbeck (2002), Jiang (2005), Lee (2006), and Yoder (2006) have linked globalization with their researches. So, effects of globalization on higher education and effects of higher education on globalization can be seen easily. Hence, globalization has led to the rapid increase in educational migration. However, globalization has resulted in the negative effects on culture and society.

Finally, having reviewed the literatures in Nepal, India and USA, I have drawn some implications. The theories and models applied to student mobilities have been replicated from different disciplines especially sociology and economics. So, from an extensive review of literature, I found that educational migration lacks theoretical frameworks. Student migration- one of the segments of human migration- is still largely uncharted (Brooks & Waters, 2011). In the beginning, I directly linked push-pull model and social network theory with my research. When I extensively reviewed the literatures, possible selves framework (Markus & Nurius, 1986) for educational expectations and aspirations and Bourdieu's cultural capital (going abroad for educational qualification) were found to be associated with student migration. After being reviewed, these two theories were included in my research. One of the implications of review of literature is that quantitative parts heavily dominated whole literatures with push-pull and human

capital theory. While developing research tools, I have drawn education-related variables from the literatures. Similarly, during the analyses and discussions, many supporting data are cited because of the richness of literatures. This study would certainly help reduce the research gaps for student migration to foreign countries in the Nepalese perspectives.

Conceptual Framework

International student migration is a result of both demand side and supply side factors of education. According to Shenoy (n.d.), the global market for international higher education may be explained in terms of an interaction between supply-side factors and demand-side factors. The demand side factors refer to factors that motivate international students to seek higher education in countries outside their home countries. The writer explains that economic models of student mobility have been developed by the researchers including Everett Lee (1965), Larry Sirowy & Alex Inkeles (1984), William Cummings (1984), Vinod B. Agarwal & Donald, R. Winklers (1985) and Philip G. Altbach (2003). Similarly, Cardinale (2000), Li & Bray (2007), and Chen (2007) have also applied the push pull model to understanding student mobility.

Most studies analyze demand side factors that are classified as push factors and pull factors. The author further states that supply –side factors refer to factors that motivate host countries to invite international students to study at their institutions of higher education. Supply side factors may be classified into economic, political, security, and academic factors (Shenoy, n.d.). Therefore, demand originates in home country and supply in host country. In other words, students demand (require) international education and are motivated to go abroad for higher studies. It is from the origin countries' (sending country) side. Supply side factors are related to

the destination countries that are ready to supply education services. It is from the host countries' side.

International students are enrolled in universities and colleges abroad. Students from developing countries prefer to further their education in developed countries. Rajbhandari (2009, p. 24) views that the demand for high-quality higher education can be seen in the large number of students from developing countries who choose to study abroad, particularly in the United States. For example, brain drain is explained mostly by pull factors, while unskilled labour migration is better explained by push factors (UNDP 2005, p. 273). International migration is a function of economic forces of demand pull and supply push (Hollifield, 2008, p. 195).

In this research, the mostly common used dependent variables are educational migration /student migration/flow of students/cross border higher education/migration decision, emigration, immigration, migrant behavior, movement of students, and number of Nepalese students an institution enrolls. Parental income, students' sex, age, ethnicity, mobility costs, motivation, academic performance, aspirations, expectations, migration network, career opportunities, socio-economic status, parental occupation and education, faculty, quality of education, , and policy are independent variables.

Migration is the dependent variable. For example, educational migration (dependent variable) is the outcome of students' academic performance (independent variable). Similarly, migration (dependent variable) is the outcome of science stream (independent variable). A student with science major is more likely to migrate. Migration (dependent variable) depends upon higher education, parental income, parental education, and tuition (independent variables). In this situation, students are fascinated to go abroad for higher education.

Higher education has influenced migratory trends. Higher education has attracted student mobility in foreign countries. Higher education is an independent variable and migration dependent variable. Push-pull factors also influence on student migration. So, push and pull are independent variables. Policy is the most determinant factor of migratory behaviors of students. In other words, policy causes students to go abroad or stay in country of motherland. Finally, social networks play an important role in the movement of students. So, policy, network and social capital are placed on independent variables (Brettell & Hollifield, 2008, p. 20). Based on push-pull model, social network theory, cultural capital and possible selves theory, I have developed a conceptual framework below. The conceptual framework is created on the basis of Shenoy's (n.d.), Wobbekind & Graves' (1989), Tuckman's (1970) and Baryla & Dotterweich's (2001), literatures on student migration.

Shenoy (n.d.) has discussed about the demand and supply side factors of student migration and Wobbekind and Graves (1989) have also given the same views that international students go to foreign countries (they demand) for further studies. Demand also depends upon the policy (immigration laws and regulations) of host countries. For example, the British government in 2009 eased visa rules under the tier-4 programme as a result of which Nepalese students going to the UK recorded highest number. Supply side factors are the suppliers of education services providers (i.e. foreign Universities/colleges) which attract Nepalese students to pursue higher education in their educational institutions. In other words, in the WTO/GATS parlance, it is called consumption abroad (Mode2) of the mode of supply under the trade in higher education services. In the mode- 2, Nepalese students go to foreign countries to seek higher studies whereas the education services providers (foreign Universities) provide services in their own country and earn foreign currencies. They

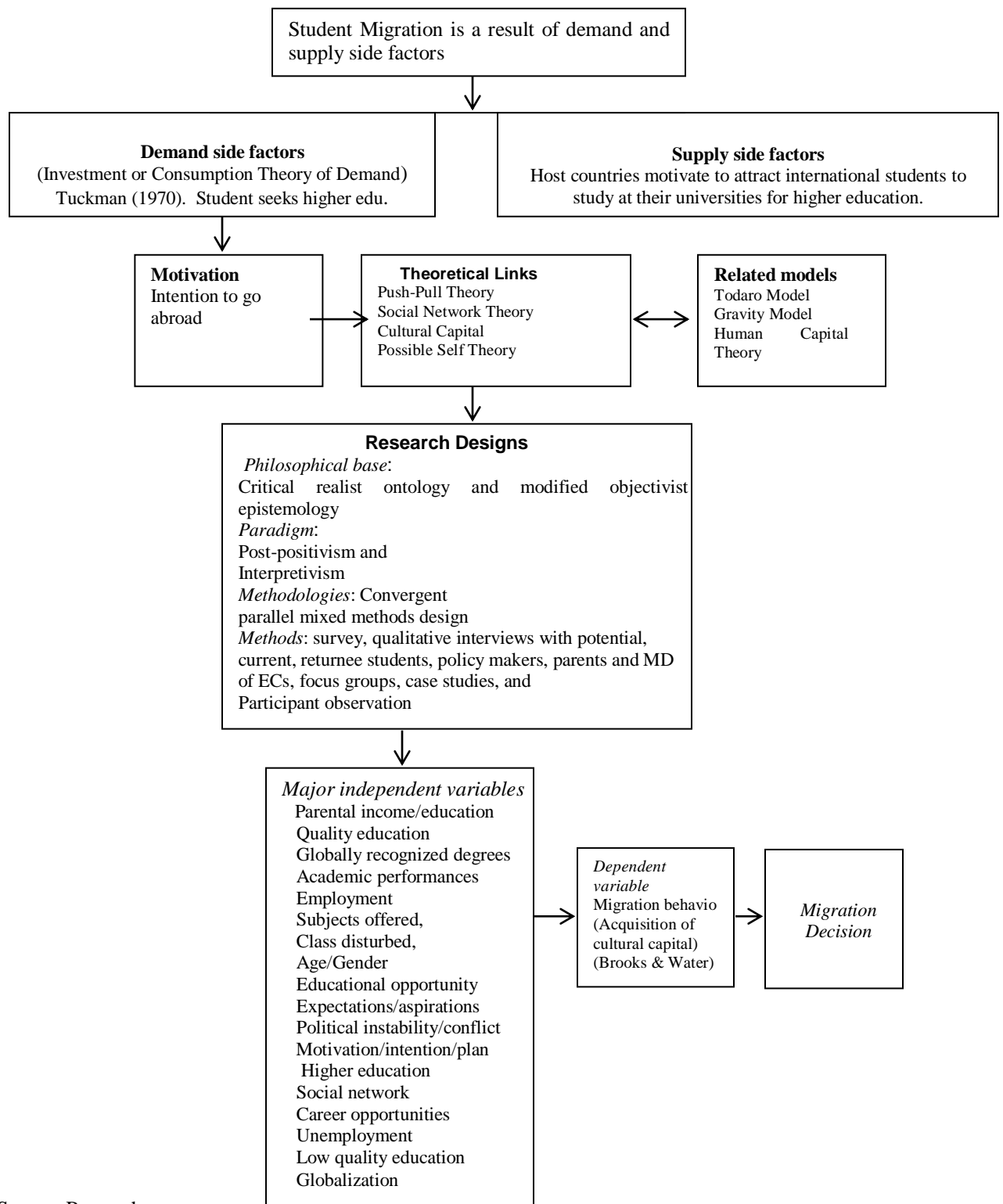
(universities/colleges) are the suppliers of education services whereas students go abroad (demand) to consume higher education services. In other words, the service receiver (students) move but service providers (universities/colleges in host countries) do not move. It is called consumption abroad. Similarly, Tuckman (1970) and Baryla & Dotterweich (1989) view that student migration is an investment and consumption theory of demand. This research mostly deals with demand side factors. Student migration is a result of demand for higher education. Migration is also an investment for future return. Because, it involves costs as well.

Push pull theory is the main basis for this research. Push factors (negative) push or force students to seek higher education in foreign countries whereas pull factors are those factors (positive) that attract students towards host countries such as better educational facilities, employment opportunities. Different variables of push-pull factors are clearly shown in the framework. So, push-pull factors are determinants of student migration. However, there are some factors which are neither push nor pull such as personal factors (Lee, 1965), globalization and aspirations which influence migration.

Social network also plays an important role in educational migration. The intention of students to move to foreign countries depends on relatives and friends living abroad. The aspiring students are motivated to go abroad if they have relatives and friends in the destination countries. Social network facilitates them in the form of travel costs, accommodation, employment and search for best colleges/ universities in the destination. In addition to push-pull, and social network theories, possible selves theory is linked with the expectations and aspiration of students. Similarly, student mobility is shaped by the acquisition of cultural capital. Hence, these four theories/models are directly related to this

research so they are placed in the conceptual framework. The conceptual framework of the Nepalese student migration is given in figure 7 below.

Figure 7. Conceptual Framework



Source: Researcher

Figure 7 shows the conceptual framework of student migration. In the figure, both demand and supply are shown. But, this research discusses demand side factor. It is the demand that motivates student to seek higher education. Supply side in this research is the education service providers to the consumers (Nepalese students) in the destination. Student mobility has been policy-driven in Europe, demand-driven in the Asia pacific region (OECD, 2004). As shown in the chart, this research is based on the theoretical model of push-pull factors, cultural capital, social network theory and possible selves theory. Similarly, different variables are also shown in the chart.

Nepalese students aspire to go to foreign countries for higher education and decide to migrate anticipating that they would have better education followed by career opportunities. In other words, migration to study abroad arises due to expectations and aspirations of the potential Nepalese students. Similarly, the perception of policy makers, educationists, Managing Directors of Educational Consultancies, parents and students themselves is analytically presented. Hence, the outflow of Nepalese students in search of further education has been a common phenomenon.

Student migration and globalization are synonymous. Because of globalization, student migration is not limited to any particular country but they (students) go to different countries in search of better and quality education. In other words, students' choice has been multiple destinations. Globalization influences student migration. The next chapter discusses the research methodologies.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The previous chapter dealt with the literature review on student migration, higher education and globalization. This chapter deals with the research methodology. The nature of this discourse was explorative and descriptive followed by survey research design. One area of research that often uses both types of research methodologies is survey research. In other words, survey research can be used in both quantitative and qualitative research (Best & Kahn, 2006, pp. 81, 271).

Philosophical Assumptions

Any research is based on philosophical stance. So, ontological, epistemological, and methodological positions/assumptions are very important to start a research. Creswell (2003, p. 6, 2009) uses the term *worldview* as meaning a basic set of beliefs that guide action, Guba, 1990, p. 17(as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 22). He further views that “stating a knowledge claim means that researchers start a project with certain assumptions about how they will learn and what they will learn during their enquiry, these claims might be called *paradigms* (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Mertens, 1998); philosophical assumptions, epistemologies, and ontologies (Crotty, 1998); or broadly conceived *research methodologies*” (Neuman, 2000). According to Pant (2009, p.21), “all research is based on assumptions about how the world is perceived and how we can best come to understand it. The context, assumptions, paradigms, and perspectives

decide the type of research methodology to be used to study a social or business phenomenon.”

Philosophically, researchers make claims about what is knowledge (ontology), how we know it (epistemology), what values go into it (axiology), how we write about it (rhetoric) and the processes for studying it (methodology) (Creswell, 2003). Crotty, 1998 (as cited in Creswell 2003, pp.4-5) has suggested in designing a research proposal as epistemology (objectivism, subjectivism), theoretical perspective- philosophical stance (positivism and post-positivism, interpretivism, critical theory), methodology (experimental research, survey research, ethnography) and methods (questionnaire, interview, focus group).

There are primarily two approaches to research methodology namely quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative and qualitative research are said to be two diametrically opposed research approaches. They differ not only in the nature of the data sought and the subsequent methods of data analysis, but also their philosophical rationale (Pant, 2009 p. 150). Any research is guided by ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. My philosophical stances in this research are realist and critical realist ontology and modified objectivist epistemologies. Ontological realism (“real” reality) can be found but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible and in epistemological objectivism, findings are probably true (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 193). Critical realism embodies a modified objectivist epistemology (Bisman, 2010, p. 13). Critical realists argue that the world, and the knowledge we have of the world, are not identical. The knowledge we have of an object is fallible, yet the object itself is not (Welsh & Dehler, 2007, p.407). Since I have applied multiple methods (methods triangulation), critical realism is a

“*middle ground*” approach in terms of the methodology in the qualitative-quantitative research continuum (Bisman, 2010, p. 10). The researcher further states that generalizations derived from critical realist research thus concern a probabilistic truth, rather than an absolute truth. Within a critical realism framework, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are deemed appropriate, Healy & Perry, 2000 (as cited in Bisman, 2010). Differing views about the nature of reality (ontology) affect the relationship between the researcher and reality and whether reality, within the domain of knowledge, is deemed to be discoverable from an objectivist or subjectivist standpoint (epistemology) (Bisman, 2010, p.7). Knowledge claims within objective epistemology can be done through quantitative data leading to unbiased findings. The sources of knowledge (epistemology) originate from different respondents and participants.

I followed post positivism and critical interpretivism paradigms. In other words, I followed both subjective and objective world views in order to capture both subjective and objective knowledge. Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. 24) view that positivist and post-positivist work from within a realist and critical realist ontology and objective epistemologies and they rely on experimental, quasi-experimental, survey, and rigorously defined qualitative methodologies. Post-positivism relies on multiple methods as a way of capturing as much of reality as possible. At the same time, it emphasizes the discovery and verification of theories, Becker, 1996 (as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Post-positivist argue that reality can never be fully apprehended and approximated Guba, 1990 p. 22 (as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

In the beginning, I fully supported positivist followed by post-positivist and interpretivist paradigms. While discussing with the supervisors, I was convinced that objective reality was not possible in the social science. In other words, an absolute truth of knowledge cannot be achieved while studying human behavior so my research mainly focused on post-positivism (quantitative) and interpretivism (qualitative). The postpositivist worldview is one of the four worldviews in the philosophy (other are: social construction, advocacy/ participatory, and pragmatic) (Creswell, 2009, p. 6).

A priori design, objective results and deductively analytical methods followed by emergent research design, subjectivity and inductive method have been followed in this research. This deductive-inductive method is now recognized as an example of a scientific approach (Best & Kahn, 2008, p. 6). The term “ multimethods” refers to the mixing of methods by combining two or more qualitative methods in a single research study (such as in-depth interviewing and participant observation) or by using two or more quantitative methods (such as a survey and experiment) in a single research study (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 3). Hence, the blend of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies is appropriate for studying student migration so that findings from both approaches would be cross-validated. The methodology in my research is survey and methods are questionnaires (both close and open-ended), interviews, case study and focus group.

Interpretivist philosophy is an approach that focuses on understanding human beings and their behavior from the perspective of those being studied (Pant, 2009, p.22). Interpretivist believes that reality is subjective. People experience reality in different ways so subjective reality is important (what people think, feel, and see). Reality can only be imperfectly grasped

(Introduction to research paradigms, 2004). The similar views have been expressed by Denzin & Lincoln (2005, p. 53). They explain that “experience emerges in a continual interaction between people and their environment; accordingly, this process constitutes both the subjects and objects of inquiry”. According to Hesse-Biber (2010, pp.104, 126), this approach is committed to multiple views of social reality. She further states that reality is socially constructed and focuses on understanding the meaning of social reality from the perspective of the individual’s experiences in order to gain knowledge of the social world. Hence, they have placed importance to both subjectivity and objectivity (qualitative and quantitative) of the research. The sources of knowledge (knowledge generation) in this research is data collection from potential, current and returnee students who go abroad to further their education. Therefore, the method of sources of knowledge was gained through survey research. Furthermore, quantitative data were supported by qualitative data.

Considering that only one approach cannot fulfill the purpose of this study, so data were collected by conducting survey (quantitative data) combined with qualitative field research. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996, p. 281) define field research as “the study of people acting in the natural course of their daily lives. The fieldworker ventures into the worlds of others in order to learn firsthand about how they live, how they talk and behave, and what captivates and distresses them”. The reason for adopting the mixed methods attributes to the fact that one method will supplement other in order to validate the data within a single study. It helps to converge or confirm findings from different data sources. The term mixed methods research is used as a simple shorthand to stand for research that integrates quantitative and qualitative research within a single project (Bryman, 2008, p. 603).

Karmacharya, 1984 (as cited in Ramse, 1993, p. 23) commented on the complementary nature of combining quantitative and qualitative inquiry methods; “one gives figure but does not explain the context where as other describes the context and process, but does not provide the figure. In this sense, neither one seems to be complete in itself. Since both of them have something to offer each other, the best approach would be one which combines the best aspects of the two”.

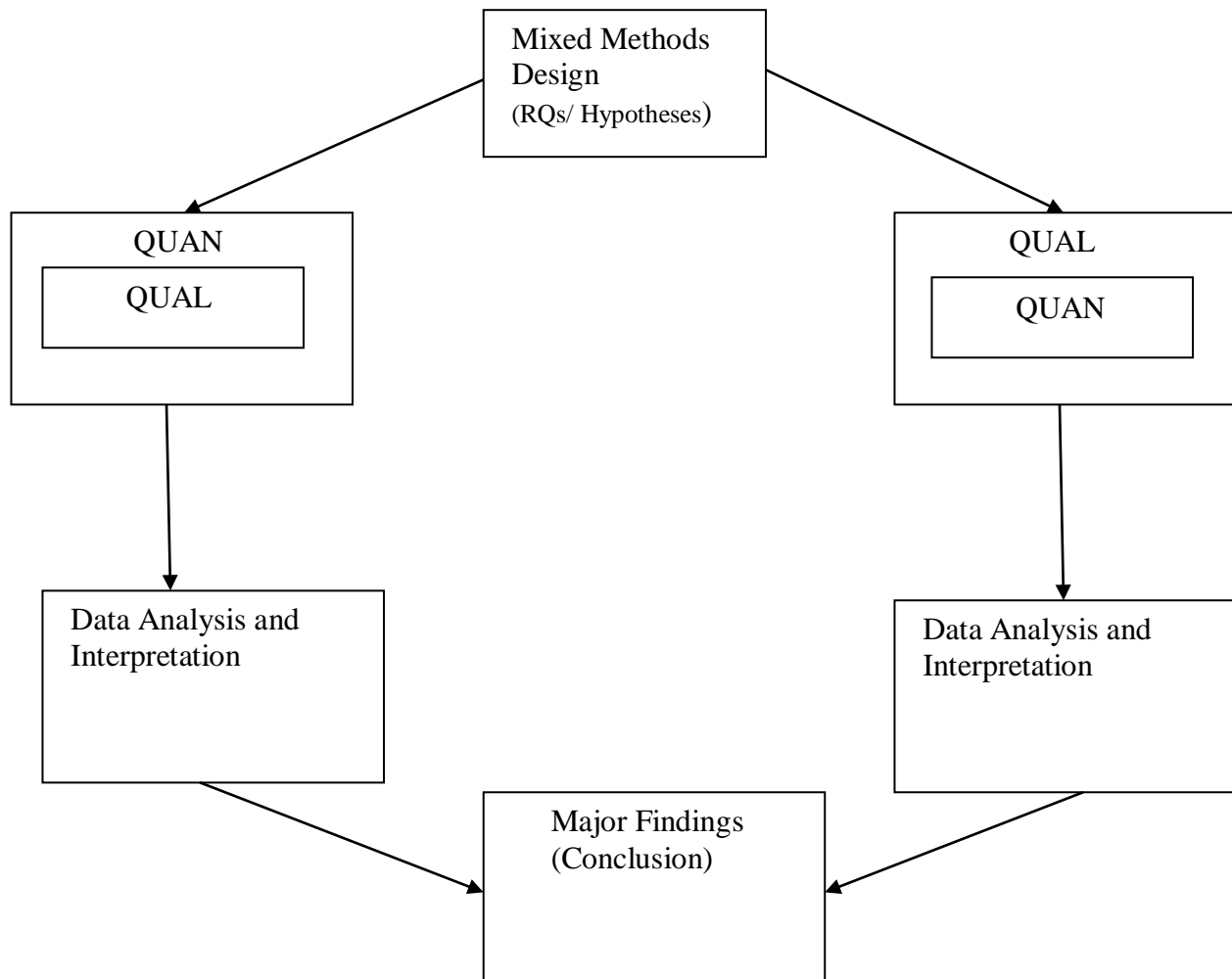
In order to arrive at the reliable findings, mixed methods (objectivism and subjectivism) have been included. In the words of Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, p. 4), mixed methods research has been called the third part (Gorard & Taylor, 2004), the third research paradigma (Johnson & enwuegbuzie, 2004), and the third methodological movement (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003) by various individuals writing in the field. The authors further state that mixed methods research has emerged as an alternative to the dichotomy of qualitative and quantitative tradition during the past 20 years. Mixed methodologists work within pragmatist paradigm and interest in both narrative and numeric data (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Mixed methods studies have been defined as studies ‘that combine qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research methodology of a single study or multi-phased study’ Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998 (as cited in Collins and O’ Cathain, 2009). Similarly, Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003a, p. 711 (as cited in Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009) have defined mixed methods as “ a type of research design in which qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in types of questions, research methods, data collection, and analysis procedures and /or inferences”.

In this research, a convergent parallel mixed methods design (QUAN +QUAL) was used. The need for employing these methods makes possible to collect and generate both quantitative and qualitative data respectively in order to validate and cross-check the findings. I believe that only one method can not capture the reality. In the mixed methods design, all types of research

tools can be used to collect and analyze data. So, I have followed these methods. It was initially conceptualized as a “triangulation” design where two different methods were used to obtain triangulated results about a single topic (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p.77). Generally, the priority would be given equal between two methods. Since 1970’s, this design has gone by many names such as simultaneous triangulation (Morse, 1991), parallel study (Tashakkori & Tedlie, 1998), convergence model (Creswell, 1999), and concurrent triangulation (Creswell, 2003, p. 217, Plano Clark et al, 2003, Creswell & Clark, 2011,p.77). Parallel mixed methods designs consist of the concurrent mixing of qualitative and quantitative methods carried out as separate studies within the same research project (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p.68). Figure 8 shows the mixed methods design.

Figure 8: Mixed Methods Designs



Source: Idea adopted from Creswell, (2003) p.214, Fig, 11.3 a, Hesse-Biber, (2010), p.69 and 162.

In the figure above, any route can be followed. First of all, quantitative data were collected followed by qualitative data generation. Both collected and generated data were separately presented and analyzed in chapters four through seven and findings were discussed and cross-validated in chapter eight. Finally, conclusions were drawn based on major findings.

Sources of Data

Data collection is the key scientific research process. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996, pp.204-205), data are obtained in either formal or informal settings and involve verbal (oral and written) or non-verbal acts or responses. The combination of the two settings and the two types of responses results in the four major forms of data collection: observational methods, survey research (personal interviews and questionnaires), secondary data analysis (analysis of existing documents) and qualitative research. They further state that each of these four forms has certain unique advantages but some inherent limitations at the same time. Quality and accuracy of data collection depends upon the methods used by the investigators. In order to collect data for this multi-methods research, researcher applied both probability and non-probability sample designs. For survey research (associated with quantitative methodology), probability (random) sampling was used whereas for field research (associated with qualitative methodology) non-probability (non-random) sampling was used. Hence, data are broadly classified into two main categories such as primary and secondary sources.

Primary Sources

Primary sources are the first hand evidence left behind by participants or observers at the time of events such as autobiographies, memoirs, diaries, emails, letters, eyewitness, survey, opinion polls, scientific data, records of organizations and government agencies, original works of literature, art or music (University library CSU, LA, 2010.). Primary data are collected by the

researcher directly for the first time. It is not a published data. When primary data is published by a researcher, it becomes secondary data. For instance, if the researcher conducts a survey for collection of data, it is known as primary data. According to Best and Kahn (2008, p 91), primary sources are eyewitness accounts. They are reported by an actual observer or participant in an event. The primary data may be qualitative or quantitative. The primary data were quantitatively collected by questionnaires survey which is given below.

Questionnaires Survey Research

It is a powerful technique to collect primary data in quantitative research. In other words, questionnaires are popular means of collecting data. In order to collect primary data, the researcher collected data in Nepal and the USA. In the first phase, researcher visited the USA. The data were collected in Texas and Boston where Nepalese students are enrolled in University/colleges. The questionnaires survey was conducted at the Harvard University, North Lake community college, Irving, Dallas and San Jacinto community college, Houston.

In the second phase, primary data were collected in Kathmandu, Chitwan, Lalitpur and Pokhara in Nepal. In order to collect primary data, 450 students were supplied with questionnaires (Annex-1) which were the main sources. Accordingly, a field survey approach was employed to collect more detailed information on student migration so that educational expectations, aspirations and determinants of migration for higher education could be analyzed. Thus, a well designed and extensively constructed questionnaires were administered to the students in Nepal, the USA, UK and Australia with a view to collecting required information on student migration.

In order to get the primary data (both quantitative and qualitative), I visited the forty seven educational consultancies that were selected randomly. Six educational consultancies were

re-visited during the morning and day shift with a view to getting appropriate sample of the students. They were Alfa Beta, Dolphin, Nepal international educational consultancy, Orbit, The Next, and British-American Educare. Similarly, I visited the Ministry of Education five times at different dates. In the same way, primary data were collected by means of informal discussions with the students during the field survey. Before going to the field survey, a pilot survey was conducted to find whether or not research tools were valid or reliable.

Data Collection through E-Mail

Primary data were also collected through e-mail. Since more than 20 students enrolled in different colleges and Universities in the USA had filled out the questionnaires that I had distributed them, as advised by the supervisors, students studying in the UK and Australia also were involved in my research as respondents. I emailed them questionnaires and they filled out and returned through email. The research tools included close and open-ended so both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. After the survey in three countries, it was possible to apply statistical test since the number exceeded more than 30.

Data Generation in Qualitative Method

The sources of qualitative data were potential, current, and returnee students, policy makers, parents, and Managing Directors of Educational Consultancies. Data were also collected from different education fairs in Kathmandu and the BBC "*Saajhaa Sabaal*(common issue) aired on October 03, 2010 and 05 June, 2011 by the Kantipur Television.

In the qualitative methods, it is difficult to generate data and it needs skill of the researcher in order to collect maximum information. For example, interviews do not just have data, it needs to generate. Data generation methods are the techniques or strategies. It is more accurate to speak of generating data rather than collecting data. How best we can generate data

from our chosen data sources? (Mason 2002, pp. 51-52). The author exemplifies that generating data from people are to observe them, talk to them, video record them, photograph and collect letters they generate.

Any research will be incomplete if it lacks field research for qualitative studies. Qualitative data consists either of written or spoken words, and does not normally include any numerical measurements. Qualitative methods are thus best used for questions that relate to quality of or variations in experience. Most explorative research is qualitative research (Pant 2009, p. 26). In general terms, field research is defined as ‘the study of people acting in the natural courses of their daily lives. The field worker ventures into the worlds of others in order to learn firsthand about how they live, how they talk and behave, and what captivates and distresses them’(Nachmias & Nachmais,1996, p. 281). It is based on observation. The goal of field research is to develop ‘Grounded Theory’ using the methods of analytic induction (Nachmias & Nachmais 1996, p.300).

According to Cresswell (2003, p.185), data collection procedures in qualitative research involve four basic types such as observations, interview, documents, and audio and visual material. Marshall and Rossman 1999 (as cited in Best & Kahn, 2008, p. 264) point to three techniques that are the critical procedures for collecting qualitative data: observation, document review, and in-depth interviewing. Different methods were qualitatively used to collect primary data. The methods in this research included interviewing, focus group discussion, case studies and observations. For qualitative data, a sample of 5 or 6 may suffice the researcher (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison 2007, p.105). Table 2 indicates the number and types of participants for qualitative interviews.

Table 2. Number and Types of participants for Qualitative Interview

S. N.	Participants	Male	Female	Total
1	Potential and current students	15	2	17
2	Returnee students	5	-	5
3	MDs of edu. consultancies	4	1	5
4	Policy makers	7	-	7
5	Parents	4	1	5
	Total	35	4	39

Source: Field survey

Table 2 shows male and female respondents in qualitative interview. All together, 39 participants in qualitative interview expressed their views. However, no female participant from policy maker and returnee student participated in the interview. I tried to include female returnee students and policy makers in qualitative interview but there was no female participant related to my research from policy makers 'side. In Nepal, the number of women working at policy level is very low.

Interview

Interview, particularly unstructured interview, is the data-generation method selected by researchers. Qualitative interview is very popular for gathering information which we call data. It is a dialogue and discussion between interviewer and interviewee. Since interview is held face to face discussion, the researcher tries to explore the areas of interest from the interviewees' side. The goal of this research is, therefore, to deeply explore the respondent's point of view, feelings and perspectives (Pant, 2009). It is primarily used to understand the reasons and motivations of students' attitudes, feelings, and their behavior. The time and date for an interview was set earlier (agreed location) with the consent of outgoing students. They were told the purpose of the research. Researcher collected qualitative data through interview (Annex-3) with potential and returnees

migrant students in Nepal and current migrants in the USA. For this, qualitative sampling strategy like purposive sampling was used.

According to Best and Kahn (2008, pp. 248-249), the sampling technique generally used in qualitative research is referred to as purposeful sampling. This technique selects certain persons, settings, or events, because they can provide the desired information. Purposeful sampling can be used to provide unique samples, representatives' samples, or anything in between. The aim is that the sample is useful in answering the questions raised by the researcher. The same view has been put forward by Pant (2009, p.153) stating that "in qualitative research, sampling is typically not random as in quantitative research, but it is purposive". In the words of Denzin and Lincoln (2005, pp. 698-699), "it seems that everyone- not just social researchers-relies on the interview as a source of information with the assumption that interviewing results is a true and accurate picture of the respondents' selves and lives".

In this research, interview was conducted at the Ministry of Education, educational consultancies and personal residences of the respective students at different time intervals. The interview, that lasted more than one hour, was usually open-ended in nature. Based on unstructured interview (an in-depth interview), the interviewer (researcher) in the beginning asked general questions in the form of "warm up" and then encouraged them to express their views candidly. From time to time, the researcher probed for elaborations. Students responded openly and supported the researcher fully on the ground that the research topic was suited to their interests. Out of sixteen interviewees in Nepal, six were visa holders (3 USA and 3 UK). The remaining aspiring students were supposed to apply for the visa. Similarly, five returnees were interviewed. They returned

from the USA, UK, Canada and Germany. Researcher covered the returnees as advised by the expert during the proposal presentation. Since this research is about student migration to foreign countries, the perception of returnees' students is necessary to understand.

Policy makers, educationists, parents and managing directors of educational consultancies also willingly responded during an interview with the researcher. Policy makers at National Planning Commission, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Commerce and Supplies, Nepal Rastra Bank, Higher Secondary Education Board and UGC were contacted personally and on telephone to take interview at their convenient time. Similarly, researcher visited home of parents and offices of Educational Consultancies after contacting them on telephone. Parents were, however, selected purposefully by taking into account of sound knowledge of student migration. The interviewees were requested to answer the questions that were asked them during an interview so written answers by policy makers, parents, and managing directors of EC also were collected.

Case Studies

Another method of generating qualitative data is case studies relating to student migration. The term 'case study' usually refers to a fairly intensive examination of a single unit such as a person, a small group of people, or a single company. It can enable the researcher to explore, unravel and understand the problems, issues, and relationships (Internet. [www. primary data collection methods](http://www.primarydatacollectionmethods.com)). According to Yin, 1998, p. 239(as cited in Best & Kahn 2008, p. 259), "even (a) single case (study) can enable (a researcher) to generalize to other cases that represent similar theoretical conditions". Stake (as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 444) has defined "a case study is both a

process of inquiry about the case and product of that inquiry”. Patton, 1990 (as cited in Ramse, 1993, p. 94) noted that “qualitative data can put flesh on the bones of quantitative results, bringing the results of life through in-depth case elaboration”.

For this research, four students (3 male, 1 female) had participated in an in-depth interview in the USA. The researcher selected those students for detailed case studies by purposive sampling. One student was selected from the Harvard University, one from North Lake Community college Irving, Dallas and two from San Jacinto community college, Houston.

Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

The focus group discussion is an important tool of qualitative research to generate data. A focus group is an interview conducted by a trained moderator in a non-structured and natural manner with a small group of respondents ([http:// www. primary data collection methods](http://www.primarydatacollection.com)). A focus group is a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of research (Pant, 2009). For the qualitative research, Miles and Huberman, 1994 (as cited in Creswll, 2003) have identified four aspects like the setting, the actors, the events, and the process. The main purpose of FGD is to gain insights by listening to group of people from the appropriate target market.

Before conducting FGD, I prepared a plan to find the proper location where students of different groups were available. However, population respondents of the study were of homogenous groups and had similar intention i.e, to go abroad for higher studies. In order to conduct FGD, three educational consultancies in Lalitpur, Chitwan and Kaski each were randomly selected from the list of ECs of the respective districts.

Education Ministry was purposively selected in Kathmandu because all students aspiring to go to study abroad should visit the Ministry to get ‘No Objection Letter’. At the Ministry, students were randomly selected and FGD was conducted at a room provided by the Scholarship Section of the Ministry. Therefore, FGD was carried out in Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Chitwan and Pokhara from August 27, 2009 to January 22, 2010.

The researcher had already written some discussion notes in the note book. At the venue, where FGD was held, students aspiring to go abroad were told the purpose of the study and they were introduced to each other including the researcher. Students participating in the FGD were instructed about the rules and procedures so that they could present their views one by one. I, from time to time, provoked them to express their views. During the FGD, I put open-ended questions to the students. I noted down main thrust of the discussions. All the students fully participated in the discussion. I provided snacks for the participants in the FGD as a motivational factor. Table 3 shows the places, number of respondents and dates for FGD.

Table 3.No of Respondents in the Focus Group Discussion

Districts/Places	Male students	Female students	Total	Date
Alfa Beta edu. consultancy, Narayangadh, Chitwan	3	4	7	Aug 27, 2009
Ministry of Education, Kathmandu	4	2	6	Sep 13, 2009
British-American Educare, (P)Ltd, Lalitpur, Patan	6	4	10	Sep 16, 2009
King's Institute pvt.Ltd Pokhara, Kaski	2	3	5	Jan 22, 2010
Total number of students	15	13	28	

Source: Survey 2009-2010

Table 3 shows that the number of female students in Narayangadh and Pokhara exceeded the male number. All the students at the British-American Educare participated in the discussion when their class was over.

Observation

This is a very important and authentic source of data because of the direct observation of the researcher. Observation is one in which the researcher takes field notes on the behavior and activities of individuals at the research sites. In these field notes, the researcher records, in an unstructured or semi structured way, activities at the research site. In other words, it involves recording the behavioral patterns of people, objects, and events in a systemic manner. The qualitative observer may also engage in roles varying from a non-participant to a complete participant (Creswell 2003, pp. 185-188). Generally, participant observation has its roots in ethnographic studies (www. primary data

collection methods). I directly observed as a participant observation. Since problem in this research had already been identified, researcher gathered essential data or information on what actually happened as a personal observation. The researcher had directly observed the trends of the students going to foreign countries for further studies and behaviors of students. Similarly, in the field survey also, researcher watched the activities, psychological behaviors of the students' and recorded the observed data.

Photographs

The researcher took photographs during the field research. Photographs were taken at the FGD, and Ministry of Education where motivated students were standing in the queue waiting for their turn to apply for no objection certificate. Photographs were used for generating qualitative data.

Secondary Sources

Secondary data are those data which are already published. Secondary sources are accounts of an event not actually witnessed by the reporter (Best & Kahn, 2008, p.91). So, secondary data are those data collected by someone other than the user. The sources of secondary data for social sciences include censuses. Secondary sources are materials that digest, analyze, evaluate, and interpret information contained within primary sources or other secondary sources, for example, books, textbooks, biography, encyclopedia, dictionaries, research articles, literature review, criticism of works of literature, art and music (University library CSU, Los Angeles, 2010).

Literatures and data relating to educational migration were obtained from secondary sources and published materials such as research articles, dissertations, and abstracts of dissertations, books, and journals, different newspapers published from Nepal and India, and Google (internet). In course of the literature review, the secondary sources were extracted from

the Encyclopedia, books, materials and research papers from the libraries of KU, TU, American and British in Nepal and libraries of the Harvard University, Boston, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, Rutgers' University NJ, and JNU in New Delhi. The Harvard University library proved to be the best source for literature review.

Similarly, published and unpublished data of outgoing students from Ministry of Education, published reports of the Central Bureau of Statistics, and Nepal Rastra Bank were the sources of information. This study also used data concerning the Nepalese students who have been studying in the USA, UK, and Australia and information were received from concerned offices through email. Other secondary sources included publications of the UNESCO, OECD, Global Education Digest, World Education Service and Open Doors.

Sampling

According to Best and Kahn (2008, p.13), a sample is a small proportion of the population that is selected for observation and analysis. The same view has been expressed by Pant (2009, p. 204) and viewed that "a sample is a collection of items or elements from a population or universe. Hence, a sample is only a portion or subset of the universe or population. It comprises some observations selected from the population". "A sample is considered to be representative if the analysis made using the researcher's sampling units produce results similar to those that would be obtained had the researcher analyzed the entire population"(Nachamias & Nachamias,1996, p. 183). Tull and Hawkins, 1973 (as cited in Pant, 2009, pp. 205-207) have explained the sampling process as: define the population, specify the sampling frame, specify sampling unit, selection of sampling method, determine the sample size, specify the sampling plan and select the sample. The sampling process for this research is discussed below.

Population

According to Best and Kahn (2008, p.13), “a population is defined as a group of individuals with at least one common characteristic which distinguishes that group from other individuals”. In the words of Nachmias and Nachmias (1996, p. 179), a population is the “aggregate of all cases that conform to some designated set of specifications”.

Students who have passed plus 2/Proficiency certificate level/ A level or more and planning to go abroad for higher education through educational consultancy are included in the population. Similarly, students who have already been admitted into different Universities and colleges in the USA, UK, Australia (current students) are target population. The abovementioned students have common characteristics “student” studying in origin and destination. The resulting population would be known as an accessible population from which we would draw the sample (Best & Kahn 2008, p.13). For this research, accessible population in the origin was targeted at students in Kathmandu, Chitwan, Lalitpur, and Pokhara.

Sampling Frame

The list of units from which we draw the sample is called the sampling frame. For a survey of teachers’ morale in a school district, the sampling frame might be a list of all the teachers in the district. The population would be the teachers in the district. A faculty directory, a telephone book, a club membership list are examples of sampling frame (Kathwohl, 1993). According to Pant (2009), sampling frame is the list identifying each unit in the study population. All the elements in a sampling population constitute its sampling frame. A perfect sampling frame is one in which every element of the population is represented. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996, P.181), ideally, the sampling frame should include all the sampling units in the

population. In other words, sampling frame is the list of the sampling units that is used in the selection of the sample. The sampling frame should accurately reflect the actual population but major reason for error was found in sampling frame because of incompleteness as it happened in the 1936 Presidential election in the USA (Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, pp. 182-183).

Therefore, the lists of all educational consultancies with corresponding lists of students enrolled at educational consultancies located in Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Chitwan and Pokhara are the sampling frame of this research.

Sampling Unit

Each case in the sampling frame is a sampling unit. For example, in the morale survey of school district, clearly individual teacher in the district would be the sampling unit (Krahtwohl, 1993). A single member of a sampling population (e.g. a voter, a household, and an event) is referred to as a sampling unit (Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p. 180). The sampling unit is the basic unit containing the elements of population to be sampled (Pant, 2009). A college, a university, a nation, a city can be categorized as a sampling unit. Considering the above definition, sampling unit for this research is selected or sampled educational consultancy and an individual student of sampling population.

Sample Design

Different strategies are used for collecting data. However, sampling methods depend upon the nature of the study. Since this research is based on mixed methodologies, it requires both types of data (quantitative as well as qualitative). Quantitative data were collected through questionnaires survey and analyzed by applying different statistical test whereas qualitative data were generated by interview, case study, focus group discussion, and observation. Hence, probability and nonprobability sampling were employed.

“In simple random sampling, the population to be sampled is treated as homogenous. But, if a population is heterogeneous with respect to the variable or characteristics under the study, stratified random sampling technique is generally applied in order to obtain a representative sample. Under stratified random sampling, the population is divided into various homogenous groups or strata on the basis of certain characteristics so that various strata are non-overlapping. Then a simple random sampling technique is applied to select a sample from each stratum” (Sharma & Choudhary, 2005, p. 177). This study used a two-stage stratified sample: a selection of sample of Educational Consultancies (ECs) and then a random sample of potential students at each EC.

Selection of ECs

The survey was conducted on the basis of stratified sampling. First of all, a total numbers of 292 educational consultancies (published by ECAN and NECA) were divided into two groups (strata) A and B on the basis of number of students' enrolled and then simple random sampling was applied to select the sample of the educational consultancies for each group. After the selection of sampled ECs of group A and B, I randomly selected students from sampled educational consultancies for field survey. In the first stage (phase), sampling frame of educational consultancies (ECs) was constructed. ECs are those places where students are enrolled to learn the English language and seeking counseling services before applying for admission to foreign Universities. There were 292 educational consultancies (ECAN-March-April 2009, NECA July 2009, NAAER, 2009) which ran English classes and provided counseling to the aspiring and potential students. Those consultancies were not homogeneous in terms of number of enrolled students, students' tuition fees, physical facilities, educational materials (computers, internet),

experienced teachers, date of establishment, reputation and yearly number of students who were issued visas. So, based on the characteristics of the ECs, they were divided into two groups or strata (A and B) to insure that all categories would adequately be represented. Since ECs were grouped as A and B, they were named as Primary Sampling Units (PSUs). Out of 292 ECs, 101 ECs were grouped A and remaining 191 ECs in group B.

For proportional representation, a stratified sample of 47 ECs (16 percent) was selected from total consultancies of 292 through a simple random sampling by lottery method. In this method, all 101 ECs bearing group A were numbered from one to one hundred one and all 191 ECs bearing group B were numbered from one hundred two to two hundred ninety two in a paper of same size in order to avoid biasness. Then, the piece of paper, in which the names and groups of ECs were written, were put into a small pot and randomly drawn one by one making a total of 47 ECs (16 and 31 ECs from Group A and B respectively). Therefore, all 292 educational consultancies had an equal chance of being selected. The number of sampled ECs which were grouped A and B in all four districts is presented in table 4 below.

Table 4. Total number of sampled educational consultancies (District wise)

S.N.	Districts	Group A educational consult (101)	Group B educational consult (191)	Total (292)
1	Kathmandu	7	20	27
2	Chitwan (Narayangadh),	5	9	14
3	Lalitpur (Patan)	3	2	5
4	Kaski (Pokhara),	1	0	1
	Total	16 (16%)	31(16%)	47 (16%)

Source: Field Survey 2009-10

Note: Second time visit to ECs in different shift has been counted as total number of consultancies because some consultancies were re-visited in order to get credible results. In Pokhara, only one consultancy was selected as a sample.

In table 4, the sampled educational consultancies under group A in Kathmandu, Chitwan, Lalitpur, and Kaski were seven, five, three and one whereas under group B, there were twenty, nine, and two respectively. However, in Kaski district only one consultancy under the category of group A was selected as a sample survey in order to have reflexion of highly motivated students of the Western Nepal. The number of ECs selected for survey in Kathmandu was more than the other districts of the sample because of more numbers of educational consultancies and students. The table shows that the sampled ECs of A and B have an equal percentage (16 percent) and total number of sampled ECs (47) also carries roughly equal percentage (16 percent) meaning equal representation of group A and B out of total ECs (Annex-6).

Survey at the Educational Consultancies (ECs)

The second stage involved students' sampling from ECs. I visited the sampled ECs (47) and observed the attendance of enrollee students. After the students were listed from the sample ECs, a simple random sampling was applied to select students. It is called Ultimate Sampling Units (USUs). The number of potential students, for example, enrolled at Alfa Beta, and Orbit International Education Consultancy was more than one hundred. However, the number of enrollees was very low at sampled Boston Educational Consultancy, Oxford Educational Consultancy, and Milky Way Educational Consultancy where all the students present at the classes were surveyed because it was not possible to sample them due to negligible number of students (2-5 students). Most of the well-established ECs in Kathmandu had their branches out of valley, for example, in Narayangadh, Butwal, and Pokhara. However, Sheffield Educational Consultancy located in Narayangadh had no branch in other parts of Nepal.

I directly visited the sampled ECs in Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Chitwan, and Kaski for field survey and contacted the Managing Directors and the English teachers. The concerned ECs were

also shown the letters written by Kathmandu University, ECAN and NECA for supporting me in order to conduct the survey. They were informed about the purpose of my visit. Altogether, 450 questionnaires were distributed and 407 returned (statistically, the sample size was 384). Since ECs run their classes at normally three shifts (morning, day and evening) or continue throughout the day, I visited the entire shift in order to get the questionnaires filled out by various groups of students of all shifts.

During the survey periods, however, two sampled educational consultancies named President Educational Consultancy at Putalisadak and Tara International Educational Consultancy at Baghbazar were not running the classes so I treated this condition as a non-response. Similarly, three students were dropped from the survey because the two students had attended the English class in order to go to India for further studies and one student had no intention to go abroad and he was enrolled in order to learn English language.

Meunier (2010, p. 6) in his research article using the sample states that his sampling design is a two-stage stratified sample: a selection of sample of schools and then a random sample of pupils within each school. Heuer (2004, p.36) in her dissertation used a two-stage stratified sampling design (i.e, in the first stage, institution sampling frame was constructed from 1998-1999 and second stage involved sampling students from these institutions). Hence, similar methods were applied to this research as well. First, like the sample of schools or institutions as stated by Meunier (2010) and Heuer (2004) respectively, educational consultancies were selected for this research and second, like sampling of pupils and students by Meunier (2010) and Heuer (2004), students were selected within each educational consultancy for this research.

Therefore, I adopted two stages stratified random sampling such as Primary Sampling Units and Ultimate Sampling Units. USU is the smallest unit which is the subject of sample

selection such as household in a household survey (OECD, n.d.). Questionnaires were supplied to students who were considered to be the ultimate sampling units.

Survey at the Ministry of Education

Apart from visiting ECs for data collection, 27 students were purposively selected to get the questionnaires filled out at different time intervals at the Ministry of Education where students were standing on serpentine queue to apply for “No Objection Certificate”. Purposive sampling was applied to those students. There were mainly two reasons for applying this method. Firstly, the main reason for using this method was that there were no lists of the students (sampling frame) and they assembled at the MoE from across the country. They gathered at the Ministry with acceptance letter received from Universities abroad (For example, it is called I-20 in USA). One of the officials at Scholarship Section of Ministry of Education informed that around 250-300 students applied for NOC daily. Secondly, another reason for choosing purposive sampling attributes to the homogeneity of the students who visited the Ministry for NoC. All the students had similar motivation and intention to migrate to study abroad irrespective of their age, caste, sex and disciplines.

Survey of Visa Holder Students (FI)

Students, who were issued visas by respective embassies, were also placed in the survey. Eight percent of total respondents surveyed (34 out of 407) had got the visas issued to them to go abroad. It is clear that roughly 92 percent of the students surveyed were from the ECs. Since this field survey (8 percent) was conducted by using purposive sampling due to lack of sampling frame, it also helped generalize the findings. All types of potential/ aspiring/ motivated students had similar aim or goal i.e. to migrate to study abroad. In other words, it was a homogenous group. The ultimate purpose to collect information from those groups was on the ground that the

sampled students represented all sectors so that it was possible to arrive at reliable and valid findings.

To conclude, questionnaires survey administered to 407 respondents of different students' groups (students who were enrollees at ECs, students who were gathered at the Ministry of Education to apply for NOC, and students who were issued visa) was tremendously successful due to fully participation and co-operation from students and ECs respectively. The field survey in Nepal started from 10 th of July, 2009 to 22 January, 2010.

Survey in the Destination Countries

The questionnaires were distributed to the current students by two methods. Firstly, it was directly handed in by the researcher in the USA and secondly sent through electronic mail in the USA, UK and Australia. Therefore, the response rate was higher in the US than in the UK and Australia. Table 5 shows the number of respondents in the destination countries

Table 5. Number of respondents in the destination countries

Destination	USA	UK	Australia	Total
Gender				
Male	17	4	5	26
Percentage	70.8	57	71	68
Female	7	3	2	12
Percentage	29.2	43	29	32
Total (%)	24 (100)	7(100)	7(100)	38(100)

Source: Field and electronic survey (2008, 2011)

Note: Figure in bracket indicates percentage

Table No 5 shows the number of respondents in destinations. The number of respondents in the USA, UK and Australia was 24, 7 and 7 respectively. Male respondents were 68 percent (combined) in three countries. Since I myself visited the USA to collect data, students were divided into two groups: one enrolled at the Harvard University where students were awarded scholarship and another groups of students enrolled at two community colleges in Texas where

students study and work. In other words, it is also called study to work migration (learning and earning). However, the survey was just sample of the destination so it was analyzed in order to have some essence of causes of student migration.

The methodology used in the USA was purposive sampling for field survey. In such a design, the investigator may select a sample which shall yield results favorable to his/her point of view (Sharma & Choudhary, 2005, p. 181). The first phase of data collection took place in the United States over a month during which time 17 undergraduate and graduate students were requested to fill out questionnaires. I collected data in Dallas, (North Lake community college, Irving), Houston (San Jacinto community college) of Texas and Massachusetts (Harvard university). An email survey was also conducted in Sydney of Australia and London and Wales of the UK. The second phase of data collection was completed when the completed questionnaires were sent and received. The questionnaires (annex-2) were administered to 45 students studying in the USA, UK and Australia.

The main reason for selecting Texas in the USA is that the number of the Nepalese students is higher than in other states. According to Damodar Acharya, (a Nepalese student at North Lake Community College), there were more than 500 Nepalese students studying at that college. Similarly, Harvard University was selected for two reasons. On the one hand, it has been ranked as one of the top Universities of the world and on the other, Nepalese students studying at the Harvard are awarded scholarship. Therefore, two types of students were chosen for studies (first type of students are those who worked in order to meet their expenses on food, lodging and education, and second type of students are those who were awarded full scholarship) in order to get plausible results. However, it was not separately analyzed two groups of students in the destination because of the similarities and homogeneity of Nepalese students enrolled to obtain

degree from the educational institutions. Qualitative data were also collected in the USA. Four students were interviewed in Boston, Dallas and Houston of the USA.

Sample Size

According to Best and Kahn (2008, pp. 19-20), there is no fixed number or percentage of subjects that determines the size of an adequate sample. It may depend on the nature of the population of interest or the data to be gathered and analyzed. He further clarifies that samples of 30 or more are usually considered large samples and those with fewer than 30, small samples. It is obvious that the larger the sample size, the smaller the sampling error or standard error. However, it may not be wise to take a large sample when a smaller would also provide the estimates of the parameters of the population within a reasonable degree of confidence level (Mathema, 1999, p.63). As a rough guide in a random sample, the larger the sample, the greater is its chances of being representative. It is advisable to overestimate rather than to underestimate the size of the sample required. Similarly, the greater the number of sub-group (strata), the larger the sample (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, pp.103-104). A homogeneous population will need fewer cases to get a representative sample than will be needed in a heterogeneous population. On the other hand, if the emphasis is on precision of the estimate, one ought to take a large sample. If time and costs are pressing, one may have to forego precision /representativeness of the sample or both (Majumdar, 2005).

According to the Ministry of Education (Nepal Education in Figures 2009 at-a-Glance, p.21), the total number of students studying in self-finance (based on record of foreign currency exchange) in different countries was 17,487 and those students who took “No Objection Certificate” (NOC) from the Ministry was 18,416. This number

(18,416) includes those students who have generally completed all the processes (such as good performance in language test, acceptance letter from Universities abroad, police reports if necessary). After this, students apply for visa along those documents and bank statement to show at the concerned embassies. A total of 24,824 and 26,485 students were issued NOC (Annex-5) from the Ministry of Education in 2008/09 and 2009/10 respectively (Nepal Education in Figures, 2009, p. 21 and 2010, p.23).

Since I covered in this research both types of potential students as a study population (those planning or motivated to migrate to study in foreign countries and are enrolled at different educational consultancies and those students who completed all processes including English language and applied for NOC and then visa), a total population (students) could be more than the published figure by the Ministry of Education. Taking this into account, this research statistically applied following sample size formula for estimating a population proportion (p) (Sharma & Chaudhary, 2005, pp. 215-217).

For this research, confidence level is 95%, level of significance ($Z\alpha$)= 5%

Let E be the error, we consider $E = 5\%$

Statistically, sample size $(n) = (Z\alpha/E)^2 PQ$

$P =$ Proportion of success= 0.5

$Q =$ Proportion of failure = 0.5 or $Q = 1 - P$

$n = (1.96/0.05)^2 0.5 \times 0.5$

$n = 384.16$

Statistically, the sample size is 384. However, to be on the safe side, this study has taken the sample size of 407. During the field survey, 450 questionnaires were distributed to fill out and 407 respondents returned back the completed questionnaires. The response rate, therefore, is $1 - (450 - 407) / 450 = .90$ and the non-response rate is .10 or 10 percent.

Since the sample size (n) is calculated 384 (students), this calculated figure is substantial in number considering the population of aspiring Nepalese students. For instance, if population (N) were from 2, 50,000 to 10, 00000, the sample size also would be 384 (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 104). This is exactly equal number of the abovementioned sample size. Mathema (1999, p. 63-64) also has taken the sample size of 600. However, sample size in his research was statistically 384. Hence, in this research 407 sample students represented the population and their responses were analyzed in order to be more confident.

So far as sample size in the destination is concerned, 38 students were purposively selected. Due to resources and time constraint, I conducted a small-scale study of 38 current students studying in the USA, UK and Australia. The sampled 38 students were selected from those countries. Nevertheless, the survey and case study in the destination do not represent the whole Nepalese students studying in the USA/UK and Australia.

Sample for Qualitative Research

The samples for qualitative research were selected purposively. The individual observations or individuals are chosen in such a way that each has an equal and independent chance of being selected (Best & Kahn, 2008). Creswell (2003, p. 220) views that “in qualitative data collection, purposeful sampling is used so that individuals are selected because they have experienced the central phenomenon”. “The sampling technique used in qualitative research is referred to as purposeful sampling” (Best & Kahn, 2008). Hesse-Biber (2010, p.126) views that purposive

sample is a collection of specific informants whom a researcher deems likely to exemplify patterns that he or she seeks to pursue in an in-depth qualitative study. The rationale behind choosing purposive sampling attributes to two factors. Firstly, regarding the students, the respondents were homogeneous (each and every student had intentions of going abroad for higher studies). Secondly, researcher selected other participants such as parents, policy makers and Managing Directors of ECs who had knowledge and experienced about the subject matter. Hence, students, policy makers, parents and Managing Director of ECs were selected purposively for an in-depth interviews (Annex-3), FGD and case studies.

Sample Places

Sample places were selected in origin and destination. Most of the educational consultancies are based in Kathmandu and some of the consultancies have their branches in Lalitpur, Narayangarh, Butawal and Pokhara. Rresearch places in the origin were selected on the basis of the numbers of educational consultancies and numbers of aspiring students to go abroad. Hence, Kathmandu, Chitwan, Lalitpur and Kaski were selected. According to the Ministry of Education, in the Fiscal Year 2008-2009, Kathmandu (5433), Chitwan (2155), Lalitpur(1714) and Kaski (1427) were ranked as first, second, third and fourth districts respectively from where maximum numbers of students took NOC in order to go abroad (Annex-5). Hence, number of aspiring students to migrate to foreign countries was the main reason for selecting these four districts.

Kathmandu (Putalisadak, Baghbazar, Kamalpokhari, Maitighar, New Baneshwor and Ministry of Education), Lalitpur (Manbhavan), Narayangadh (Bharatpur height, Lions'chowk, Sahidchowk, Megha market) and Pokhara (Pulchowk) were chosen to collect quantitative data. Kathmandu was the sample place where more than 90 percent of the educational consultancies have been providing services. The main reason for selecting Chitwan is that the number of

students who have taken 'No objection letter' at the Ministry of Education occupies second position next to Kathmandu. In addition, the number of ECs has increased in Chitwan since many ECs have established their branches. Lalitpur and Pokhara were selected for the survey because more numbers of students (MoE) have shown their interests to move out of Nepal. A sampling process in origin and destination has been presented in table 6 below.

Table 6. Sampling process, sample design and sample size in Nepal and abroad

Population	Sampling frame	Sampling unit	Application of sampling in origin	No of grouped ECs.	Sample ECs	Sample size of students	Number of students surveyed	Sampled students in US/UK Australia	Application of sampling in destination
Potential Current and Returnee Students	The lists of all ECs and students	Sampled EC and Student	Stratified random sampling and purposive sampling	292 ECs divided into A (101) and B(191) groups	47	384	407	38	Purposive

Source: Researcher's own creation

Table 6 shows sampling process in Nepal and abroad. This table clearly indicates population, sampling frame, sampling unit, application of sampling in origin and destination, sample size of respondents, number of respondents surveyed and sampled students in the destination and sampled ECs.

Reliability and Validity of the Research Tools

According to Best and Kahn(2008, pp. 294-297), a test is reliable to the extent that it measures whatever it is measuring consistently, and validity refers to the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretation of test scores entailed by proposed uses of tests. In the words of Joppe, 2000 (as cited in Pant, 2009, p. 192), validity refers to the truthfulness of findings. It determines whether the research truly measures that what it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are.

For the reliability and validity of this research, a number of tests were done. For example, in order to have reliable research tools (questionnaire), a pilot survey was conducted in Kathmandu and Narayangadh (Chitwan). In the pilot test, students suggested one more question (negative aspect of going abroad) and they could not comprehend two questions which were rearranged (paraphrased) in the final survey. Since questionnaires were constructed in English, after the pilot survey, Nepali language was also included in the questionnaires (21, 22, and 34 through 41) so that students were able to understand clearly.

In the test-retest reliability, the test-retest correlation was highly positive ($r=0.95$). Similarly, before going to the field survey, the research tools were supplied to panel of experts (two supervisors) who provided suggestions for revision. Hence, validity of instruments was established. Before conducting the survey, the School of Education (KU) issued a letter mentioning "*To Whom It May Concern*" in order to facilitate the survey.

Pilot Survey

A pilot study is defined as a preliminary investigation to determine the feasibility of a larger study (Pant, 2009). It is necessary to test a questionnaire before conducting main survey if a research needs validity and reliability. A pilot survey was carried out at different ECs in Kathmandu and Narayangarh from 23 May to 02 July, 2009. ECs were selected from Group A and B by applying purposive sampling and all students at the sampled ECs were administered the questionnaire. The researcher visited sampled ECs such as Broad Way Overseas Education Services Pvt. Ltd (two times), Boston Educational Services Pvt. Ltd(two times), Dolphin Educational Consultancy Pvt. Ltd, American Education Consultancy Pvt. Ltd(two times), Orbit Educational Consultancy

and the Ministry of Education in Kathmandu and Bhrikuti International Educational Consultancy and Mate educational consultancy (two times) in Chitwan.

All the consultancies, where I visited, cordially co-operated in the survey. I also met the officials of the ECAN, NECA and NAAER. They fully cooperated in writing a letter "*To Whom It May Concern*". All together 44 students (about 11 percent of the final survey of 407 respondents i.e. $44/407 \times 100$) were requested to fill in the questionnaire designed for data collection. Eleven girls participated in the pilot survey. When the questionnaires were distributed to those students, I observed their behavior to find out whether or not they understood all the questions. I discussed with the students in order to find out their reactions and suggestions about the research tools.

Findings of the Pilot Survey

The survey showed that the students who were enrolled at the best educational consultancies like Orbit, Dolphin, based in Kathmandu and Mate in Chitwan understood the questions clearly. In other words, they did not put any inquiry on the research tools whereas those students who were studying at Bhrikuti International educational consultancy in Chitwan (Narayangarh) raised some query on question number 40 of the pilot test (*'what are the conditions that have to be made in order for you to continue your education in Nepal instead of going abroad for higher education?'*). This question seemed to be ambiguous. It is evident that the questionnaire to the best and brightest students was clearly understandable whereas it seemed a little bit unclear especially question number 40 to mediocre students. So, the students enrolled at Bhrikuti International Educational Consultancy did not answer that question.

It was obvious that questionnaire especially number 40 needed to be re-designed so that all levels of students would understand easily. Similarly, one student requested to add to negative aspects of going abroad. One more question was also added to the questionnaire. Hence, question number 40 of the pilot test was paraphrased and modified as *“What are the improvements needed for reforming higher education in Nepal so that you may continue to study here rather than going abroad”*. As suggested by the respondents one more question *“What are the negative aspects of going abroad for higher studies “was added to the final survey. The modified and added questionnaires in the final survey are numbered 38 and 40 respectively.*

For the reliability (consistency) of the research tools, nine students were re-tested (seven students in Kathmandu and two students in Narayangarh). In other words, same questionnaire was administered to those previous students second times within an average of 15 days interval times. The researcher statistically calculated main statements of the Likert scale (scaling methods). The results showed that the co-efficient of correlation (test-retest correlation) was highly positive ($r=0.95$). More than 80 percent answers were same at first and second times of the survey (same answer at test and re-test). It means the questionnaires were considered to be reliable. In other words, the correlation of co-efficient (0.95) signified reliability of the research instruments. In conclusion, the pilot survey guided the researcher to re-design/re-arrange/add the questionnaire and paved the way for final survey.

Data Analysis and Interpretation for Quantitative Studies

There are two approaches of data collection namely quantitatively and qualitatively. This research followed both approaches of data collection. In the case of quantitative, a

questionnaire survey was used as the main technique whereas for qualitative approach, interview, focus group discussion, case studies, documents and observation were main tools to generate data. Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Chitwan and Kaski were the places where field survey was done in order to collect data. The researcher without any assistance of enumerator personally visited forty seven sampled educational consultancies (field) where students were enrolled to study TOEFL/IELTS/SAT: a prerequisite for admission into foreign Universities. In the same way, Ministry of Education, where students stood in the queue to apply for NOC, was appropriate place for a questionnaire survey.

Data collection started from Chitwan (Narayangadh). Data were collected in Kathmandu and Lalitpur simultaneously. Kaski (Pokhara) was also chosen for field survey and focus group discussion since educational consultancies are concentrated in Kathmandu, Narayangadh, Pokhara and Lalitpur. After the completion of the survey in four places, the questionnaire forms were coded and placed in order by numbering one to four hundred and seven in district wise and were kept (soft copy as well as hard copy) safely. After finishing coding, data were entered into computer in order to analyze statistically. Regarding the research tools, part one was designed to collect demographic and socio-economic aspects of students. Part two was designed to focus on the push-pull factors and part three carried Likert type five point scales in which the respondents were asked to express their opinion by rating the agreement or disagreement or neutral. The last part of the questionnaire was related to open ended questions like quality education, expectations and aspirations, reform in higher education and negative aspects of going abroad. For the purpose of interpretation of the Likert scale, the following ranges mean were used from strongly agree to strongly disagree such as strongly agree 1.0- 1.7, agree

1.8-2.5, uncertain 2.6-3.4, disagree 3.5-4.2, strongly disagree 4.3-5 (Belbase, 1981, p. 47).

In this thesis, the Likert scale statements were interpreted such as 1 for strongly agree, 2 for agree, 3 for undecided, 4 for disagree and 5 for strongly disagree in order to analyze potential students' responses. Similarly, statements were interpreted such as 1 for strongly agree, 2 for agree, 3 for undecided, 4 for disagree and 5 for strongly disagree of current students' responses. The study used mixed methods. So, numerical and non-numerical data were analyzed. The data collected from field survey were divided into two parts. In the first part, questions 1 through 34 were coded and entered into SPSS-16 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software for analyzing and processing the data. In the second part, questions 35 through 41 were open ended answers and analyzed qualitatively.

The entry of all 407 questionnaires was possible with the help of software package. While coding the quantitative data, for example, 1 for male, 2 for female; 1 for yes, 2 for no; 1 for distinction, 2 for first division, 3 for second division and 4 for pass division; 1 for USA, 2 for UK, 3 for Australia, and 4 for Newzealand and 5 for other countries were coded. All other questionnaires were coded in this way. The statistical methods applied to this research were descriptive statistics (percentage, mean, graph, charts, and tabulation, cross tabulation) and inferential statistics. Parametric test like t-test, and correlation and non-parametric like the Kruskal-Wallis test, the Wilcoxon test were employed. I preferred non-parametric test because of the nature of the data. This is the reason for applying distribution free test. All collected data were not analyzed. Such types of unused data were, for example, name of high school and college, preparatory courses that students took at ECs, and tuition fees charged by ECs. This information was

found to be an unimportant to analyze. An alpha level of 0.05 was used for all statistical tests and variables were defined (Annex-7). Hence, data were collected by questionnaire methods, email, interview, focus group discussion, case studies, and observation.

Data Analysis in Qualitative Studies

First of all, the qualitative data (non-numerical) were transcribed and thematically coded. The views of students on expectations and aspirations were separately coded and theoretical constructs - quality education, employment opportunities, learning, earning and learning (66 for aspirations and 73 for expectations) - were grouped so that it was easy to analyze. As “relevant phenomena”, Carling (2001, p. 52) used a combination of theoretical concepts (e.g. social mobility), well-defined thematic units (e.g. tourist visa) and indigenous expressions and concepts (e.g a good life). Coding has the function of ordering the data and facilitating access to text that concerns particular “units of meaning”. In this sense, coding is a way of interacting with and thinking about the data, Coffey & Atkinson, 1996 (as cited in Carling, 2001, p. 52). Unlike the quantitative data, the qualitative data were coded manually. While analyzing qualitatively, I constructed a theme with explanation, and data were interpreted. In most of the analysis, data (expression of participants during interview) were clearly mentioned. In other words, data were mentioned exactly the same in quotation marks what they had actually expressed. An example of coded method is presented below.

Table 7. An illustration of coding system

Interview Text	Repeating idea	Repeating Theme	Theoretical construct
“My main motive for educational migration is learning abroad”	Motive for student migration is learning.	Motive for learning	Learning

Source: Idea adopted from Feuer (2009, p.31).

Table 7 shows an example of coding. The table clearly indicates how the text, “The main motive behind educational migration is learning abroad” becomes theoretical construct “learning”. Therefore, all the text was coded following this technique. The open ended questionnaires 35 through 41 were entered into computer exactly what the students had answered and computed data were interpreted on the basis of thematic analysis. So, information provided by the students from question 35 through 41 were identified, coded, categorized/ classified and organized. Similarly, the extreme cases were also analyzed. In addition to deviant and unique answers, some remarkable information was quoted. Some of the statements were largely quoted verbatim. Pseudonyms were used to the interviewees in order to maintain confidentiality of the research. The unused qualitative data were, however, not analyzed such as negative aspects of going abroad and respondents’ overall comments on field survey because students expressed general views.

Credibility of Research Findings

The findings of the research depend upon how data are collected. I myself visited every educational consultancy (47), Ministry of education, embassies and other places where survey was conducted to collect primary data. I did not dipute any assistant in the survey. Each student filled in the questionnaire in the class room of educational consultancy. So, there was no chance of proxy respondent. Similary, while generating qualitative data, I prepared some checklists and asked open-ended questions that provoked them to answer during the interview and focus group discussion. Same methods were applied to the policy makers, parents and Managing Directors of ECs. Regarding the secondary data, many sources were explored including international organizations. In Nepal, Ministry of Education was the sole responsible for information on NOC (Trends of student mobility). Moreover, I have applied multiple methods in order to make the

findings reliable and findings were validated each other (primary and secondary data). Therefore, I claim that data that I collected are reliable, dependable and valid as well. Table 8 presents the summary of relation table.

Table 8. Summary of Relation Table

Purposes	Research questions	Hypotheses	Respondent/participant	Data source	Type of analysis	Dependent Variables	Independent Variables
To identify trends of student migration	RQ 1 What are the trends of global and Nepalese Student migration	-	-	Secondary (Quantitative)	Descriptive statistics mean table, chart graph percentage	-	-
To identify causes of migration (Push-pull)	RQ2 What are the causes of student migration	Perception towards push, pull & social network; Relation between income and migration. Age and migration	Students (1-34)	Primary (Quantitative)	Inferential statistics such as KW and Wilcoxon Test, t-test and correlation	Migration, Migration decision, outflow of student, migration behavior, emigration, immigration	Parental income, student's age, ethnicity, motivation, edu. performance, aspirations, expectations, opportunities, parental occupation & education, Area of study Social capital, Policy, Quality education
To explore expectations aspirations of students	RQ 3 How students perceive exp. and aspiration	-	Students (35-41) Other qualitative question	Primary (Qualitative)	Thematic analysis	-	-
To explore perceptions of parents, policy-makers and MD of ECs	RQ 4 How policy makers, parents, MD of ECs, observe student migration	-	Policy makers, MD of ECs Parents	Primary (Qualitative)	Thematic analysis	-	-

Source: Researcher's own creation. Note: 1-34 close-ended (quantitative) and 35-41 open-ended (qualitative) questionnaires.

Table No 8 shows a summary of purposes, research questions, respondents/ participants, data sources, analysis and variables in order to grasp quickly. The one page summary of relation table indicates overview of the linkages between research questions and data generation and analysis systematically. I manually managed the qualitative data (open ended answers and interview) and interpreted in a thematic way. Chapter 4 deals with the trends of student migration for abroad study.

CHAPTER IV

TRENDS OF STUDENT MIGRATION

Research methodologies were discussed in the preceding chapter three. This chapter analyses the trends of student migration and answers the research question one “*what are the trends/ situation of the global and Nepalese student migration to foreign countries for higher education*”? The study identified overview of global student migration and the trends of the Nepalese student mobility abroad. For this purpose, the secondary data were used. The main sources of secondary data were basically taken from the Ministry of Education, concerned embassies/ mission based in Nepal, data published by the UNESCO, OECD, World Migration Report, World Education Services, Global Education Digest, Open Doors and different research articles in the Google on student migration.

Overview of Global Student Migration

In the past decade, international students predominantly travelled to the USA, UK, or Australia for the purpose of higher education. Approximately, 3.3 million international students are studying abroad, OECD, 2009 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 115). These three countries rank first among the most popular destination countries for overseas studies. In terms of numbers, the US is the undisputed frontrunner with approximately 5,65,000 foreign enrollments in 2006, followed by the UK, and Australia, with 3,30,000, and 2,80,000 registered overseas students respectively (World Education Service, 2007, p. 1), UNESCO (as cited in Kumar,2008).

According to the World Education Service, (2007, p. 2), USA, UK, and Australia have more international students because they have managed to establish a diversified market with strong growth potential, have higher numbers of students from India and China (prominent source countries), developed impressive marketing strategies to target potential students, provided world class facilities and financial incentives to international students. These three countries seem to recognize how advantageous international higher education can be as an export services.

Globalization has resulted in the outflow of students for higher studies globally. It has become a global phenomenon. It is said that study abroad and globalization are synonymous. Kumar (2008) views that recently the process of globalization has accelerated the flow of students from developing and Sub-Saharan countries to the US and Europe. According to UNESCO (as cited in Kumar,2008), students from Sub-Saharan Africa are the most mobile; 1 out of 16 is studying in an overseas university, while only 1 out of every 250 students in North America goes overseas for higher education.

The major share of international flow of students is from developing countries, particularly from China and India due to the push and pull factors. Therefore, the impact of globalization on education has increased the global market for higher education. Academic or student migration is more common than it was in the past because everybody is free to move across the borders in search of best quality education. If a student is awarded globally accepted degree, s/he is likely to have better employment opportunity. So, majority of students from developing countries migrate to developed countries on student visa (F1 in the USA).

In developed countries, 2 million foreigners were enrolled in tertiary education in 2003 (UN General Assembly, 2000). About 28 percent, 12 percent, 11 percent, 10 percent, and 9 percent of foreign tertiary students went to the USA, the UK, Germany, France and Australia respectively. Most students go to the closest country where they can get a high quality education (Kritz, 2006). Cardinale (2000) views that international education has been a booming industry that has seen little decline since its beginnings in the 1940s. Considered an export industry, international education is well-enjoyed by each of the five competitor countries in the English-speaking market. The market share captured by each competitor country is the USA (62%), the UK (20%), Australia (9%), Canada (7%) and New Zealand (2%). Annual profits were estimated to exceed \$13 billion for the USA, \$10 billion for the UK and \$2 billion for Australia (Cardinale, 2000, p. 02).

Traditionally, the major destination (host) countries are the USA, the UK, Australia, France and Germany enrolling over 70 percent students. Interestingly, however, the development over the past five to six years demonstrate that international students' demand might not continue to focus on what have been the main destinations in the past. The major players: the USA, the UK and Australia have experienced decline in enrollment (World Education News & Reviews, 2007). Roughly, 2.7 million students study abroad and these three countries rank first among the most popular destination countries for overseas studies.

According to the Open Doors international students' census (2007), a total of 582,984 international students migrated to the USA for further education in 2006/07 and India, China and S.Korea were the leading three source countries of origin. With the number of increasing students, enrolled students contributed \$ 14.5 billion to the

economy. As the number of international students increases, so as income of the US educational institution increases. For example, 671,616 foreign students (an increase of 8 percent) were enrolled at colleges and universities in the US higher education in 2008/09 and this resulted in the increase of \$17.8 billion to the US economy through their expenditures on tuition and living expenses.

India is the leading place of origin for international students with 103,260 followed by China with 98,510 and S. Korea with 75,065 (Open Doors, 2009). In the academic year 2009/10, a total of 690,923 students were enrolled at colleges and universities in the USA. The enrollment increased by 3 percent. The growth rate is primarily driven by a sharp increase in the number of Chinese students whose number rose by 30 percent to 128,000 or more than 18 percent of the total international students making China the leading sending country. Students from India increased by 2 percent to a total of nearly 105,000. It represents 15 percent of all international students. However, South Korean students decreased by 4 percent to 72,153 as against 75,065 in the academic year 2008-09. Foreign students bring cash, and exchange. For example, foreign students in the US contributed about \$21 billion a year to the national economy (International Herald Tribune, Feb 06, 2012). During the 2010-11 academic year, China and India have captured their positions as number one and two in the US educational market with 157,558 and 103,895 students respectively (Open doors, 2011). The main reason for the increase in the number of Chinese and Indian students can be attributed to the growth of their economies followed by an increase in percapita income.

The billion-dollar industry recognizes that visa arrangements have a significant impact on the number of students who choose to study in the host country, which in turn

correlates with direct financial gains or losses, Strang 1997 (as cited in Cardinale, 2000, Bassett, 2006). Since the creation of ERASMUS in Europe, 1.2 million students have studied abroad under this programme. The UK is the most popular destination country, followed by France, Spain, Germany and Italy. When looking at the balance of the number of incoming and outgoing students, the UK and Ireland stand out (Thissen & Ederveen, 2006, p.14).

About half of the foreign students (44.3%) moving from Asian and Ocean countries went to the USA which is the magnet and pasture land for foreign students. According to Mohanty (1986, pp. 9-10), United States has a large population of international students, scholars and researchers. The 'emigration' of international students to the USA is a matter of great concern now a day. The researcher has classified brain migration into four parts such as brain overflow, brain export, brain exchange and brain drain. Historical evidence shows that students went abroad to acquire skill and knowledge, and they used to return to their home countries after completing their studies. This trend can no longer be said to be prevalent today as is seen by the fact that the students who go to developed countries mostly settle there (p.131). The other destinations of Asia Pacific students include Australia, the UK, Germany, France, Canada, New Zealand and other OECD countries. Similarly, the source countries are China, Korea, India, Japan, Malaysia, Thailand, Pakistan, Vietnam and Bangladesh (Marginson & Burnie, 2003). Therefore, five major exporters of education services are the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand. For instance, the USA attracted 298,241 foreign students from Asia and Oceania in 2001 (Marginson & Burnie, 2003, Clark & Neave, 1992). The importance of education service exports is the comparison between foreign students studying in a home country versus their own nationals studying abroad in higher education. For example, in 1999, Australia

received 99,014 foreign students at home while 5,169 Australian students studied abroad (Saner & Fasel, 2003). The ratio is 19.15 (99,014/5,169). The figure of Australia showed that it has generated foreign currencies (i.e. surplus in trade services) as students immigrating to this country exceed emigrating to other countries.

A degree from a British University is an especially useful ingredient of curriculum vitae in China. Most Chinese students are parent-funded. For example, at Nottingham University's faculty of engineering, 224 of the 892 overseas-domiciled students were Chinese nationals. Out of 4,558 foreign-domiciled students each year, 1028 (22.5 percent) of these have Chinese passports (Monro, 2004). Similarly, China stands out as the main country of origin in New Zealand's education industry which has become main source of increasing revenue. For instance, in 2003, 21,974 students (63 percent) of all foreign students came from China (Martens & Starke, 2008, p.11).

India is wooing foreign students again by regaining its lost status as a seat of learning- Nalanda. It is drawing students from across the world. For instance, in 2000, 6,988 foreign students were enrolled in various Indian institutions, the figures rose to 25,947 in 2006. Interestingly, India's knowledge economy has abundant to offer in some subjects like information technology, management and law. The main reason has been quality education and costs advantage (The Economic Times, 19 Sep, 2007).

Global Scenerio in Trade in Higher Education Services

According to Gomez (2005, pp. 208-215), in Latin America, the situation is very different. The migration flow of students is minimal in comparison to the international flow. In the biggest countries like Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina, no more than one

percent of the university student's body is foreign and the same percentage are those who emigrate to obtain a degree.

Migration from Asian, African and Oceania countries to Mexico is marginal. For example, 14,222 Mexican students studied abroad in 27 countries in 2003, the percentage of those students who opted for the USA was 65.07 (9,254 students out of 14,222). She receives between 2000 to 2500 foreign students per year (Gomez, 2005, p. 208-215). The balance is obviously negative and it means that per each foreigner received, seven Mexicans leave. The author further states that the pressure of globalization and the international competitiveness came to Latin America too late if contrasted to the regions of the globe. It can be concluded that USA was the number one destination for Mexican students because of its proximity but a small number of students from the USA migrate to Mexico to study higher education.

The major exporters of education services are the USA, UK, Australia, France, Germany, Newzealand and Japan where many international students go to study. They are main destination countries and earn foreign currency as well. Similarly, there are many source countries like India, China, and S. Korea from where thousands of students go to mostly OECD countries. Nepal is also one of the source countries. The balance of incoming and outgoing students in 2001 is presented below.

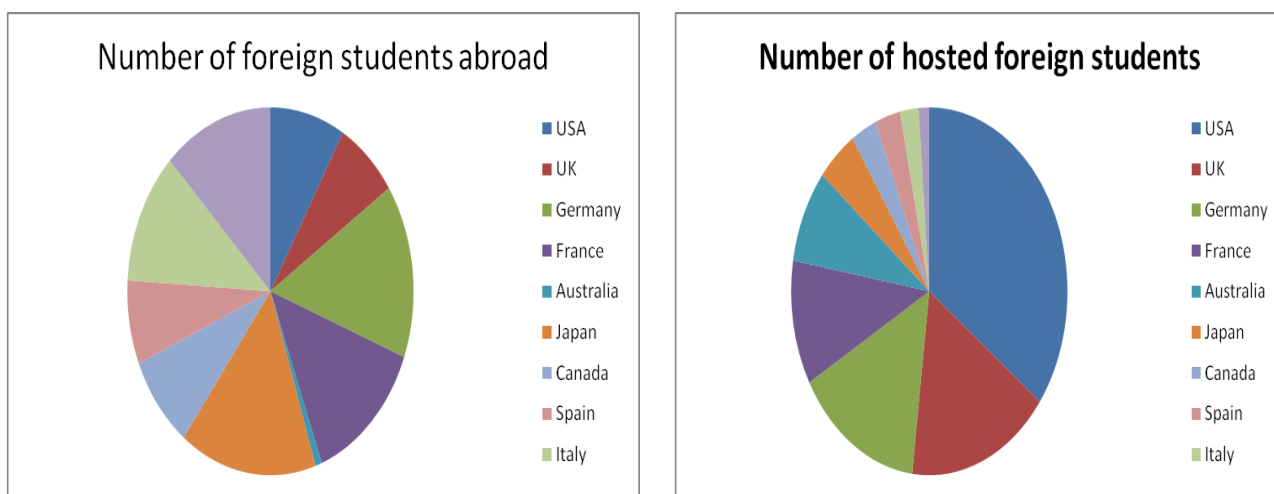
Table 9. Incoming and Outgoing Students in OECD Countries in 2001

Nation	USA	UK	Germany	France	Australia	Japan	Canada	Spain	Italy	Turkey
Incoming	475,169	225,722	199,132	147,402	110,789	63,637	40,667	39,944	29,228	16,656
Outgoing	30,103	25,198	54,489	47,587	2641*	55,041	29,326	26,196	41,485	44,204
Difference	445,066	200,524	144,643	99,815	108,148	8,596	11,341	13,748	(12,257)	(27,548)
(+)(-)	Surplus	Surplus	Surplus	Surplus	Surplus	Surplus	Surplus	Surplus	Deficit	Deficit

Source: OECD education database, 2004 P. 3 and *Marginson & Burnie, 2003

Table 9 shows the data on international student migration to higher education in the OECD countries in 2001. The USA, UK and Germany are the top three destination countries hosting 475,169, 225,722, and 199,132 overseas students respectively. The table 9 shows that Italy and Turkey have deficit trade in higher education services and remaining all other OECD countries have enjoyed surplus balance. For example, the UK received 225,722 foreign students at home while 25,198 British students studied abroad (hosting more students means increasing revenue) whereas Italy hosted 29,228 students and its citizens totaling 41,485 went abroad (exporting more students lead to losing foreign currency). Turkey also has negative balance in education services because 44,204 Turkish migrated to study abroad whereas 16,656 international students were hosted by Turkey itself. Students go abroad (export) for further education whereas destination countries host foreign students (import). In this situation, the question of positive or negative balances arises. For example, it should be ascertained that howmany students have left the native land and howmany foreign students have been hosted. Figure 9 shows incoming and outgoing students in OECD countries in order to compare at the piechart.

Figure 9. Foreign Students in OECD Countries in 2001



Source: OECD education database 2004, P. 3 and *Marginson & Burnie, 2003

Figure 9 on the left shows the countries from where students went abroad for studies (outgoing students) and on the right shows the host countries for international students (incoming students). In other words, the pie charts clearly illustrate major destination OECD countries hosting international students who have migrated to study higher education. The USA hosts 35 percent (as shown in the chart) and three leading countries host 66.75 percent of international students. Hence, the USA, UK, and Germany occupy two third of the pie-chart.

Destination Countries

There are many destination countries for students in order to acquire higher education. The choice for a particular country depends upon different factors like immigration policy, colonization, tuition fees, and languages, economic and political condition. The major host countries for international students are from OECD. They have attracted international students and many prominent countries have earned foreign currency by enrolling students at their educational institutions. Table 10 shows 20 more destination countries.

Table 10. Number of Foreign Students in Main Host Countries in 2004

USA	UK	Germany	France	Australia	Canada	Japan	Russia	NZ	S. Africa
572,509	300,056	260,314	237,587	166,955	132,982	117,903	75,786	68,904	49,979
Belgium	Spain	Italy	Sweden	Switzer	Austria	Malaysia	Nether	Denmark	Kyrgystan
44,304	41,734	40,641	36,458	35,705	33,707	30,407	21,259	17,162	16,249

Source: OECD and UNESCO as cited in World Migration 2008, p. 107

The data presented in table 10 reveal the number of foreign student hosted by the North American, European and some other destination countries. The USA followed by the UK, Germany, France and Australia are the leading countries. Canada in N.America, Japan in Asia, S. Africa in Africa and Kyrgistan in central Asia are also hosting international students. Table 11 shows the trends of international students going to major destination countries.

Table 11. Trends of International Student Mobility 1997-2006 in Major Destination Countries

Yr/Cy	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
USA	457,984	481,280	490,933	514,723	547,867	582,996	586,323	572,509	565,039	564,776
UK	198,064	213,264	219,285	224,660	230,870	242,755	275,270	300,055	318,400	330,080
Austral	100,383	109,285	119,988	138,381	168,916	193,621	218,654	236,142	255,925	281,633
Germa	151,870	158,435	165,994	175,065	187,027	206,141	227,026	246,136	246,334	248,357
France	N/A	118,433	151,969	160,533	174,557	196,748	221,471	244,335	255,585	265,039
China	43,712	43,030	44,711	52,150	61,869	85,829	77,715	110,844	141,087	162,695
Japan	51,047	51,298	55,755	64,011	78,812	95,550	109,508	117,302	121,812	117,927
Canada	30,264	29,203	37,695	44,335	52,523	49,746	46,381	41,338	42,590	39,008
NZ	6,169	9,293	11,922	16,809	26,565	41,461	47,121	50,450	47,369	42,652

Source: World Education Service (2007). NA: Not Available. Yr: Year. Cy: Country. NZ: Newzealand

Table 11 shows that the major countries like the USA, the UK, Australia, Germany, and France, have attracted foreign students for higher studies. However, other emerging countries like Canada, New Zealand, China, and Japan are also wooing international students. The number of foreign students in the USA has significantly increased from 1997 to 2003 and started decreasing 2004 onwards. The number of foreign students studying in China has fluctuated until 2003 but has risen the following three years. However, the number of students studying in the UK, Australia, Germany, and France continuously increased all the year. The main causes of decreasing the number of foreign students in the USA from 2004 to 2006 might generally be attributed to visa policy and the rising economies of emerging countries which have become new destinations for student mobility. For example, there has been a big jump in the number of international students between 2004 and 2005 in emerging country Malaysia. Student migration is associated with origin and destination. Origin is also called source countries from where students emigrate to study. For example, Nepal is one of the source countries on student migration. Major source countries are presented in table 12.

Table 12. Number of Students in Major Source Countries in 2007

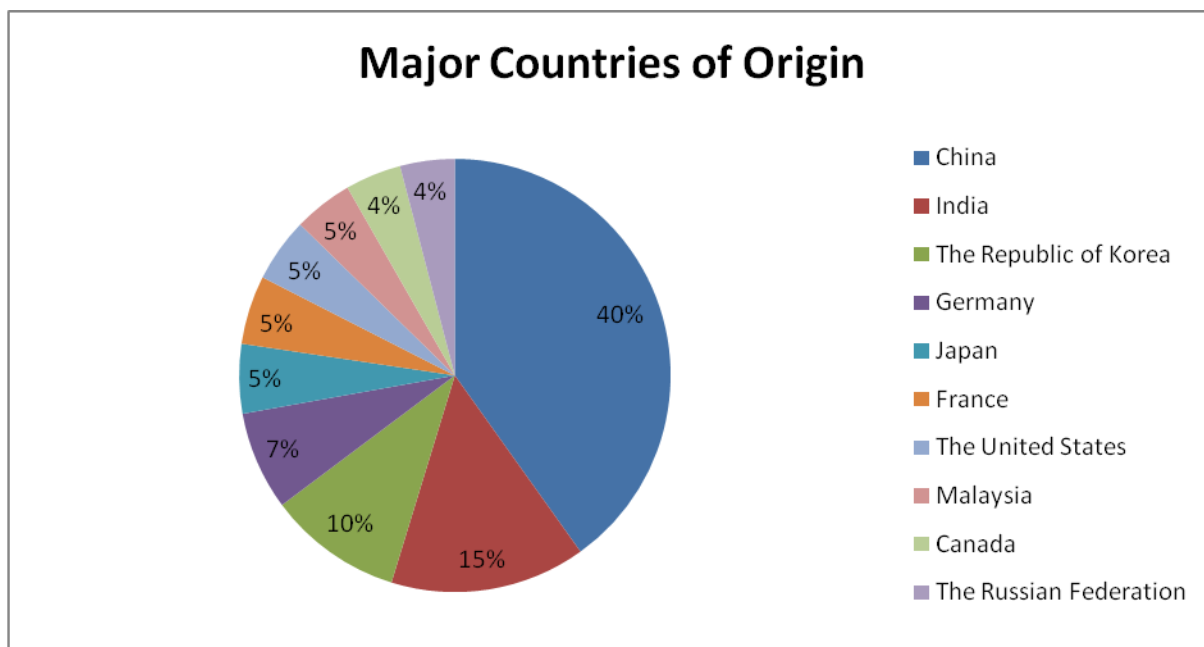
Origin	China	India	S.Korea	Germany	Japan	France	USA	Malaysi	Canada	Russia
No.	421,100	153,300	105,300	77,500	54,500	54,000	50,300	46,500	43,900	42,900

Source: Global Education Digest, 2009, p. 36

Data presented in table 12 reveal major countries of origin from where students went abroad for studies. China in 2007 was number one source country sending 421,100 students. It is followed by India, S.Korea and Germany. The USA, number one host

country, also sent 50,300 students abroad. The ten countries presented in table 12 account for 37.5 percent of the world's mobile students. Graphically, it is presented in figure 10 below.

Figure 10. Major Source Countries (2009)



Source: Global Education Digest, 2009, p. 36

Figure 10 shows the major source countries in 2009. The pie chart depicts China (40 percent), India (15 percent) and S.Korea (10 percent) as origin countries for international students. It is interesting to look at the figure which has shown Germany (7 percent) as a major source country. Many Germans go abroad for studies. She also hosts international students as well. Japan, France, USA, and Malaysia each sent 5 percent students abroad. Canada and the Russian Federation captured the piechart with 4 percent each. International students go abroad in quest of higher education. Most of the students migrate to study in developed economies. There are many countries that host

international students and earn foreign currencies by enrolling at their educational institution. The number of hosted student in destination countries is presented in table 13 below.

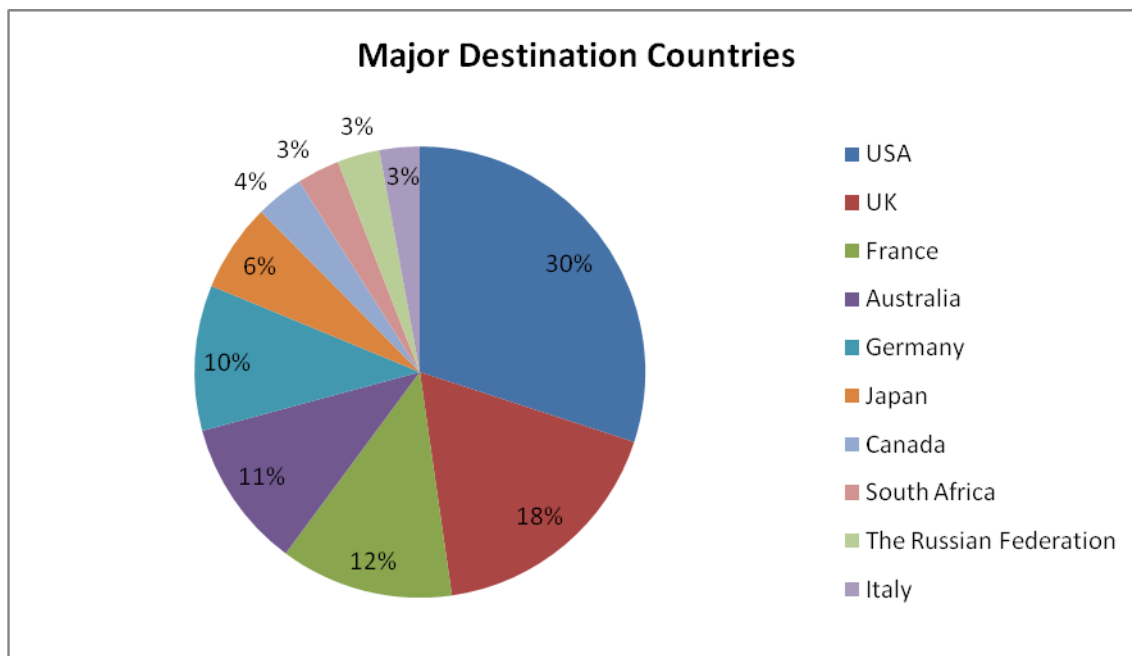
Table 13. Number of Hosted Students in Destination Countries in 2007

Country	USA	UK	France	Australia	Germany	Japan	Canada	S.Africa	Russia	Italy
Student	595,900	351,500	246,600	211,500	206,900	125,900	68,500	60,600	60,300	57,300

Source: Global Education Digest, 2009, pp. 36-37

Table 13 shows major destination countries for higher education. It is clear from the table that USA has accepted highest number of international students in 2007. In 2006, the USA hosted 564,776 international students whereas in 2007, 595,900 students migrated to the USA for studies. The share of global students in the USA stands at 21.3 percent (2.8.million students were enrolled outside their country of origin). It is followed by the UK, France, Australia, and Germany. France has become third position hosting international students whereas it was in the fourth position in 2004 (see table 10). In Asia, Japan is ahead of other Asian countries to host international students. Graphically, it is presented in figure 11 below.

Figure 11. Major Destination Countries



Source: Global Education Digest, 2009 pp. 36-37.

Piechart presented in figure 11 reveals the percentage of international students in major destination countries. It is clear from the above figure that 30 percent of the total international students go to the USA for an academic migration followed by the UK (18 percent), France (12 percent), Australia (11 percent) and Germany (10 percent). Similarly, Japan accepted 6 percent, Canada 4 percent, and S. Africa, the Russian Federation, and Italy each hosted 3 percent students. The new emerging countries like Canada, S. Africa, and Russian Federation are seen in the platform of destination countries for students.

From the analysis of student migration globally, it is clear that the flow of cross-border student mobility has been continuously increasing due to high demand for higher education. Even students from the USA, UK and Germany out-migrate for studies because parents want their children to be educated at a reputed university in foreign

countries. It is estimated that more than 3 million international students have been studying in different countries of the world and majority of them study in the OECD countries. The major destination countries have also earned from international students (brain trade). They have controlled the global market of internationalization of HE resulting in positive in trade in higher education services. The next part deals with the Nepalese scenario.

Trends of the Nepalese Students Going Abroad

The Nepalese have been forced to migrate to foreign countries due to different reasons. Some prefer to go abroad in search of educational opportunities while some go for employment opportunities or some people are prone to conflict-induced migration. The trend of going abroad by Nepalese students in pursuit of higher education is not a new phenomenon. Many students used to go to India mostly in Varanasi for higher studies. “*Saastra Haraaye Kaashi jaanu*” (If you lose knowledge i.e. learning, go to Varanasi) is an old Nepalese proverb. But, only the Brahman community preferred to go to Varanashi. There are mainly three reasons for the Brahmin who preferred to move to India as a home of learning. Firstly, there was no Sanskrit school in Nepal and mostly the Brahmans used to study Sanskrit in India. Secondly, the Brahmin community was to some extent educated and they were aware of the importance of education. Lastly, Varanashi is a Hindu holy place.

According to Sharma (2000, p. 3), some elite families in Nepal send their children to foreign countries for technical education. Such students pass pure science (Isc) with good performance. Such type of students account for 4-5 percent in Nepal. Quality education is provided to the children of rich families. They also secure higher marks and get educational opportunities for higher education abroad (Sharma, 2000 p.10). Having perceived such type of

situation, anxious guardians have started sending their children abroad for quality education (Sharma, 2000, p. 20). The author further pleads that many students go abroad for studies. So, Kathmandu University was established with a view to stopping outflow of money from Nepal (Sharma, 2000, p. 29).

Where Do Nepalese Students Go to?

Nepalese students go abroad in pursuit of higher education since it was limited to India in the beginning. Now, there are many destinations due to the globalized world. Nepalese students can go to any countries for further studies on self-finance. Nepali students have been studying in 47 countries of the world (Kantipur, October 27, 2009). However, majority of students have gone to the USA, UK, and Australia to pursue higher education. An estimated 20,000 students leave the country annually to pursue their education abroad (Nepal Migration Year Book, 2008, p. 16).

Though migration for education has been prevalent in Nepal, it has been largely confined to the rich upper classes of society. Today, this process continues. There also has been a burgeoning growth of private agencies to facilitate student migration. However, the phenomenon of student migration and the brain drain needs to be examined at a closer level (Nepal Migration Year Book 2008, p. 16).

In 2009-10 fiscal years, 26,485 students took “No Objection Letter” from the Ministry of Education with a view to going abroad (except India) for higher studies. They were motivated to go to 51 countries (Annex-4) of the world. The major destination countries include; UK, USA, Australia, Canada, Japan, Bangladesh, Finland, Germany and China (Scholarship Section, Ministry of Education, 2010).

Nepalese Students have been migrated to study in different countries from the very beginning. Table 14 reveals the number of students from 1999-2000 to 2010/11 and major countries to which students were issued NOC from the MoE.

Table 14. Number of Nepalese students and their destinations from 1999/2000 to 2010/11

Country /FY	1999 2000	2000 2001	2001 2002	2002 2003	2003 2004	2004 2005	2005 2006	2006 2007	2007 2008	2008- 2009	2009- 2010	2010 2011
USA	362	681	686	877	1123	1091	2422	2222	3148	2813	1258	1212
Australia	333	277	87	97	136	310	901	2970	5888	9776	1328	2341
UK	-	639	552	252	288	281	283	442	726	1939	19,179	3246
Russia	68	45	43	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	33
Bangladesh & Pakistan	87	127	68	54	38	100	259	-	263	358	602	380
Germany	-	-	-	38	85	-	-	-	79	-	188	293
China	-	-	-	90	319	464	514	292	305	259	238	356
Japan	-	-	-	-	-	211	224	-	309	696	757	1128
Cyprus	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1138	117	78
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	199	198	192
Czech Rep	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	162	5	67
Denmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	147	83	112
Others	527	270	443	336	358	1151	659	1267	872	-	2516	1972
Total	1377	2039	1879	1744	2347	3608	5262	7193	11590	17,487		
NOC letter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10504	*18,416	26,485	11,410

Source: Nepal Education in Figures 2009, 2010 and 2011 At- A-Glance. Ministry of Education, June, 2009, 2010 and 2011, Scholarship Section MoE..

Note:* Actual number of students stood at 7,895 female and 16,929 male totaling 24,824 from July 17, 2008 to July 16, 2009 (Nepal Education in Figures, 2010,p.23). Nepali Vikram Sambat has been converted into AD.

Table 14 shows the numbers of Nepalese students who aspire to go to different countries. In the fiscal year 2008-2009, 17,487 students opted for different countries for higher studies and a total of 18,416 students took 'No Objection Certificate (NOC)' from the Ministry of Education. The actual number of students increased to 24,824(see note above) instead of 18,416 that was recorded up to second week of Ashad (Nepal Education in Figures 2010, At- A-Glance p.23). It is interesting to note that the numbers of the Nepalese students who were motivated to migrate to the UK dramatically increased from 1939 in 2008-2009 to 19,179 in 2009-2010 and decreased

to 3246 in 2010-2011. According to the Scholarship Section at the Ministry of Education, 17,463 male and 9,022 female students had applied for NOC totaling 26,485 in the fiscal year 2009-10. The number excludes India for which 428 and 502 students had applied for no objection letter in 2009-10 and 2010-11 respectively. The main cause of the decrease in the number of students bound for the UK is due to the tight education policy of the UK Government. After the surge in the number of students in 2009-10, the British Government has issued visas to those students who want to study and not to work illegally. The main reason for the increase in the numbers of students to go to the UK was the new policy of the UK government. The points-based system under Tier 4 programme (30 points for confirmation letter and 10 points for financial show) stimulated students to go to the UK for which students could apply for visa without IELTS.

The USA, UK and Australia were the top three countries where Nepalese students planned to go to study. The table shows that except the UK, Cyprus, Finland and USA, other countries are popular and attractive to the Nepalese students since the number has gone up as compared to previous year. Students selected Bangladesh, Pakistan and China to pursue a medical course. New emerging countries for international education like Japan, Cyprus, Denmark and Finland were also the new destinations for the Nepalese students. The significant figure for Japan (from 757 in 2009-10 to 1128 in 2010-11) and Australia' regaining (from 1328 to 2341) leading to rise in number is a positive aspect for Nepalese students who are aspiring to go to study abroad. The dominant role of male students to further their education in foreign countries is going to be minimized and female students are also motivated to go abroad. The mobility of gender-wise students is presented in table 15 below.

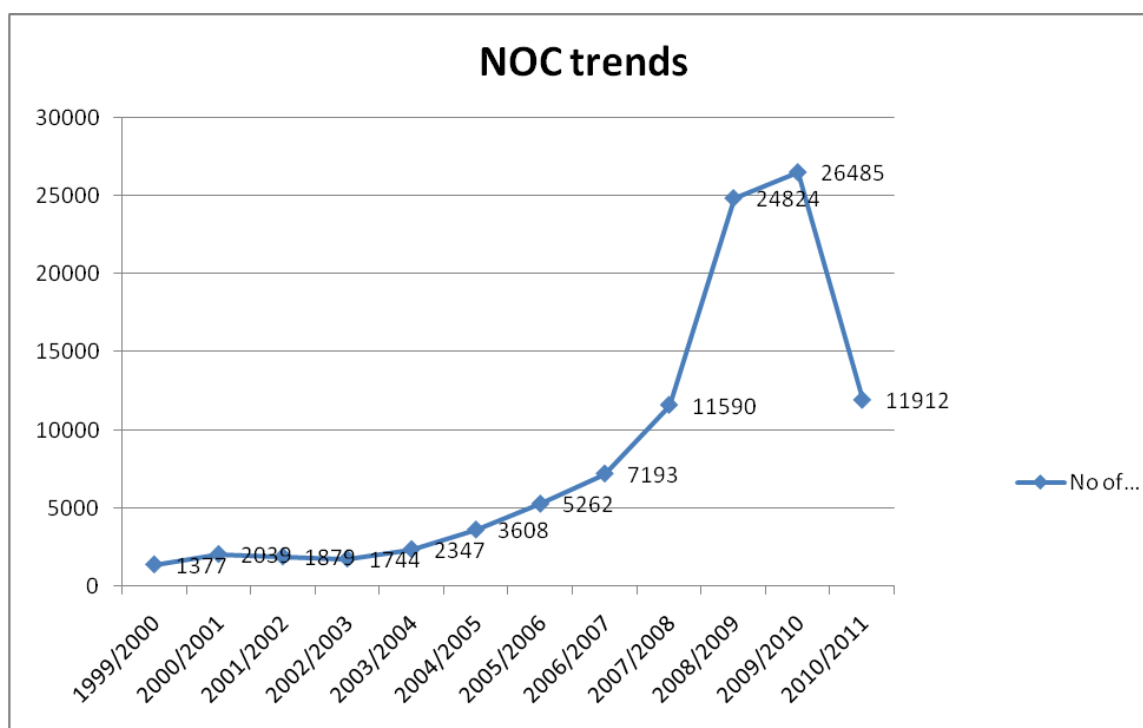
Table 15. Gender-wise student mobility in foreign countries from 2008-09 to 2010-11

Year	Male students	Female students	Total	% of female students
2008-2009	16,929	7,895	24,824	32 percent
2009-2010	17,463	9,022	26,485	34 percent
2010-2011	8,153	3,759	11,912	46 percent

Source: Nepal Education in Figures 2009 and 2010 At- A-Glance. Ministry of Education, June, 2009, 2010 and 2011. Scholarship section MOE (2010, 2011).

Table 15 shows the number of male and female students and percentage of female students who applied for NOC at the Ministry of Education in 2008-2009, 2009-10 and 2010-2011. The percentage of female students significantly rose to 46 percent from 32 percent over the last three years. For example, 32 percent of the female students in the fiscal year 2008-09 had applied for NOC and it increased to 34 percent and 46 percent in the following years. The data indicate that female students are also interested to go abroad and the number is on the rise. Scholarship regulations require NOC if a student wants to go to foreign country for further study. Some students awarded with scholarship in the USA, UK or any country do not carry NOC letter and they are questioned at the airport from where they directly go to the Ministry to apply for NOC. The trends of the Nepalese students, who have completed Plus-2, to migrate to study have been increasing since 2002/2003. It has been justified by the official data of the Ministry of Education. A total numbers of potential students who took NOC are presented in figure 12 below.

Figure 12. Year-wise NOC Trends



Source: Nepal Education in Figures 2009 At-a-Glance, 2009p.21, 2010 p.23 and Scholarship section MoE (2010).

Figure 12 shows the number of students who applied for ‘No Objection Certificate’ at the Ministry of Education from 1999/2000 to 2010/2011. It is clear to see that there has been a big jump in the numbers of students vertically from 11,590 in 2007/2008 to 24,824 in 2008/2009 subsequently 26,485 in 2009/2010. The number increased dramatically and recorded a 114 percent rise between 2007-2008 and 2008-2009. The major reason for the increment in the number is that the UK government eased new policy under point-based Tire-4 system. It was easy for them to apply for visa without IELTS. From the survey, it was found that students with second division obtained visa in order to study in the UK. Because of Tier-4 system, students preferred to go to the UK instead of the USA, Australia or other destinations. But the figure reveals that the number decreased to 11,912 in 2010-11 because, on the one hand, the UK

government tightened the immigration policy, and the other, the USA and Australia- other main destinations for the Nepalese students- had already made strict visa policy. According to MoE (2010), the UK has been number one destination country with 19,179 aspiring students followed by Australia (1328) and the USA (1258) in 2009-2010. In the same year, students were issued NOC for 51 countries (Annex-4).

According to Ministry of Education (2010, 2011), in 2008-2009 male students (16,929) from 74 districts had applied for NOC. However, female students (7,895) represented only 72 districts in the same year whereas in 2009-10 male students (17,795) represented all 75 districts and female students (9,118) came from only 70 districts (annex-5). Similarly, in 2010-11, students from 75 districts were willing to go abroad. Some of the districts with more numbers of aspiring students by gender are presented in table 16. These districts are associated with high human development index (For example, Kathmandu 0.652 and Sunsari 0.500, Nepal Human Development Report,(2004); HDI in Nepal was 0.509 for the year 2006, Nepal Human Development Report, 2009,p.149).

Table 16. Number of students aspiring to go abroad (by district and gender)

Districts	<u>2008-09</u>			<u>2009-10</u>			<u>10-11</u>
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Total
Kathmandu	3123	2310	5433	2989	2147	5136	2663
Chitwan	1522	633	2155	1355	733	2088	713
Kaski	963	464	1427	1124	553	1677	657
Lalitpur	1051	663	1714	1009	610	1619	804
Rupandehi	697	304	1001	761	354	1115	416
Jhapa	676	247	923	650	282	932	345
Morang	570	249	819	571	288	859	436
Nawalparashi	636	225	861	589	269	858	268
Bhaktapur	612	274	886	526	295	821	431
Kabhrepalanchwok	459	229	688	524	269	793	343
Sunsari	418	220	638	385	242	627	325
Total	10,727	5,818	16,545	10,483	6042	16,525	7,398

Source: Ministry of Education, 2010 and 2011..

Note: Data are shown in major accessible districts of Nepal.

Table 16 shows major 9 districts from where both male and female students were aspiring to study abroad. The highest numbers of students who have taken NOC in three years are from Kathmandu districts followed by Chitwan, Lalitpur and Kaski. But, Lalitpur recorded third position in 2008-09 and second position in 2010-11. The students from Rupandehi, Jhapa, Morang, Nawalparashi, Bhaktapur, Kavrepalanchowk and Sunsari have also applied for NOC. The survey of this research was conducted in Kathmandu, Chitwan, Lalitpur, and Kaski considering the highest number of students of these four districts. The data prove that approximately equal number of students in both fiscal years 2008-09 and 2009-10 had applied for NOC. However, the number of students in the fiscal year 2010-11 abruptly decreased to 7,398.

The highly motivated students who plan to migrate to study are from remote areas of Nepal as well. Higher education is accessible to all because Plus -2 classes are run by almost all districts in Nepal. Secondary schools with minimum educational facilities prescribed by the government can run Plus 2 in all disciplines. Some of the remote districts with low human development index are presented in table 17.

Table 17. Number of students aspiring to go abroad (by district* and gender) in 2009-10

District	Mugu	Kalik	Hum	Bajur	Jum	Dolp	Rolpa	Ruk	Jajark	Dail	Darchu	Rasu	Mustang
Male	3	3	4	7	7	7	9	10	11	13	17	19	33
Female	0	0	0	0	5	5	2	5	3	5	4	10	19
Total	3	3	4	7	12	12	11	15	14	18	21	29	52

Source: Scholarship Section, Ministry of Education, 2010.

* Data are shown in some of the inaccessible districts of Nepal as an example

Table 17 shows the number of students (genderwise) aspiring to go abroad from the remotest districts of Nepal. The table shows that female students from Mugu, Kalikot, Humla, and Bajura districts did not apply for NOC to go to foreign countries for further studies. However, three male students each from Mugu and Kalikot districts and four and

seven students from Humla and Bajura had applied for NOC respectively. It is interesting to see the data of Mustang district from where 52 students were planning to go abroad. This is the highest number among the remote districts. In the case of HDI, Mustang district is moderate (HDI 0.482 whereas Mugu has lowest in Nepal with 0.304 HDI, Nepal Human Development Report, 2004). Moreover, the Thakalis of Mustang is sound in economic activities.

Geography of Student Migration (Three Major Destination Countries)

Although, Nepalese students have been migrated to 51 countries, the major destination countries for higher education are the USA, the UK, and Australia under the self-finance programme. In spite of new emerging destination countries in Europe and Asia, these three countries are very popular among the Nepali students because of the English language, green Card or PR facilities (except the United Kingdom), employment opportunities, world renowned reputed universities and scholarship provision. Student migration to the USA, the UK and Australia are separately analyzed below.

United States of America (USA)

The USA is prominent for its reputed educational institutions like the Harvard, Princeton and Yale University. The USA has been called as “*Pasture Land*” or “*Land of Opportunities*”. The US was, and still remains, the most popular destination country for higher education (Nepal Migration Year Book, 2009, p.32). But, the data reveal that UK has become the number one destination country for Nepalese students. When it comes to higher level education, the US is one of the top destinations for further studies and “*the land where dreams come true*” so studying in the US is an opportunity of opportunities (Newsweek, Sep 5, 2011). It means that there are innumerable opportunities in the USA. Each and every student and their parents are attracted by

educational faculties of the USA. Their first choice is the USA for higher studies and if visa is denied then they look for the UK and Australia.

The number of Nepali students studying in the USA in 2009 has increased by 30 percent, the second highest jump among all countries after Veitnam, whose students grew by 41 percent. According to data released by the U.S Department of state's Bureau of Educational and Cultural affairs (as cited in the Kathmandu Post, Nov 18, 2009), Nepali student's enrollment has increased to 11,581 in 2008-2009 as against 8,936 in 2007-08; 7,754 in 2006-2007; 6,061 in 2005-06 and 4,861 in 2004-05. This increment has made Nepal the eleventh leading country of origin of international students in the USA. Nepal sends more students to the US than countries like Russia, Pakistan, France, the UK or Germany. The data indicate that Nepali student migration to the USA has increased dramatically. The data also show that the number of international students in the U.S. is at an all time high of 671,616 (an increase of 8 percent) highlighting the country's importance in higher education on a global basis. However, total foreign student number increased by 3 percent to 690,923 during 2009-10 and increased by 5 percent to 723,277 during 2010-11 (Open Doors report, 2011).

Similarly, there is a slightly decrease in the number of the Nepalese students studying in the USA. Nepalese students' enrollment declined by 3 percent to 11,233 in 2009-10 and 8 percent to 10,301 in 2010-11 (Open Doors, 2010-11). Better education facilities seem to be the key for the massive growth in the number of Nepali students going to the U.S. Better economic opportunities are equally important factors. The US is a leading power in the world economy. If a student gets good grades while studying there, the student can immediately find a job in any private company. Students usually tend to select states where they already have relatives or friends. Social net work theory holds this view. One of the prominent reasons for choosing the

USA is the chances of ‘*Green Card*’ facilities. The number of students who have been migrated to the U.S. from different countries of the world including Nepal is presented in table 18.

Table 18. Status of student migration to educational market of the USA

S.N.	Status of origin	2008-2009	2009-10	Percentage change
1	India	103,260	104,897	2% increase ↑
2	China	98,510	127,628	30 % increase ↑
3	S.Korea	75,065	72,153	4% decrease ↓
4	Canada	29,697	28,145	5% decrease ↓
5	Japan	29,264	24,842	15% decrease ↓
6	Taiwan	28,065	26,685	5% decrease ↓
7	Mexico	14,850	13,450	9% decrease ↓
8	Turkey	13,263	12,397	6% decrease ↓
9	Veitnam	12,823	13,112	2% increase ↑
10	Saudi Arabia	12,661	15,810	25% increase ↑
11	Nepal	11,581	11,233	3 % decrease ↓

Source: The Kathmandu Post, November 18, 2009, Open Doors, 2009, 2010.

Table 18 shows that the highest number of students flocking towards the USA is from India and China in 2008-2009 but China has become the leading sending country in 2009-10. Taiwan also has become one of the main countries of origin to send students to the USA because of liberal policy of the US government towards Taiwan. Being a neighbour country, however, Mexico unlike Canada has captured only 7th position in 2008-09 and 8th position in 2009-10 sending students to the USA for educational purpose. One of the strong reasons has been illegal migrants from Mexico so the number of students legally entering into the USA might have been low. So far as Nepal’s position in international education in the USA is concerned, the table 18 reveals an eleventh position in 2008-09 and 2009-10 academic years. However, there has been slightly decrease (3 percent) in the number of students who are enrolled in the US educational institution in 2009-10 academic years. Other source countries like S. Korea, Canada, Japan, Taiwan, Mexico, and Turkey also have sent low number of students as compared to fiscal year 2008-09. American visa and immigration policies also influence the total number of students

entering into the USA for higher studies. Table 19 shows the flow of students to the USA based on NOC.

Table 19. Number of Nepalese students who were issued NOC to go to the USA

F/Y	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11
Number	362	681	686	877	1123	1091	2422	2222	3148	2813	1258	1212

Source: Ministry of Education (2010, 2011)

Table 19 shows the numbers of potential students who were issued NOC letter by the Ministry of Education. The number kept on increasing with fluctuation up to the fiscal year 2007-2008 and decreased onward. The visa policy of the US government, students' inclination towards the UK due to new Tier-4 policy and opening up new destination countries resulted in the decrease in the number of the US bound Nepalese students. However, in the global arena, Nepal ranks the leading position in the US educational institutions.

Real number of students to enter into the USA is known when actual students are issued visas. All NOC holder students are not entitled to get a visa. Therefore, to know the actual figure of students who were issued visa to the USA is very important to compare with NOC holders students. Table 20 presents non-immigrant visa issued to Nepali students to go to the USA.

Table 20. Non Immigrant Visa issued to Nepali students from 1997 to 2008-09

F/Y	1997	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09
n	920	1,144	800	986	1,254	1,461	1,632	1,464	1,968	3,401	3,216	4,708	1,997

Source: <http://www.travel.state.gov/pdf> through USEF -Nepal. n= Number

Table 20 shows non-immigrant visa issued to Nepali students to go to the USA. The figure presented in table reflects the actual number of students who were issued visas on yearly basis. The data presented in the above table show that there is no continuously surge in the number of Nepalese student mobility in the USA. For instance, in the academic year 2007- 08, a

total of 4,708 students were granted US visa (F1) whereas the number dropped to 1,997 in 2008-2009.

The tables 19 and 20 clearly show the gap between the number of students who applied for NOC as well as visa to go to the USA. For instance, in the Nepalese fiscal year 2008-09, a total numbers of 2,813 students were issued NOC whereas in the US fiscal year 2008-09, 1,997 students got the US visa (F1). The number that did not match with the US figure is due to the differences of the fiscal year between the two countries. According to the concerned official of the MoE, another pertinent reason is the availability of scholarship in the destination as a result of which some students do not apply for NOC and go to the USA without NOC. However, Scholarship Regulations state that it is a mandatory to take NOC before going overseas for further studies.

It is clear from table 18, 19 and 20 that the data are different in 2008-2009. Open Doors published a total number of 11,581 Nepalese students studying in the US whereas in the same year, 2,813 students applied for NOC and visas were issued to 1,997 students.

United Kingdom (UK)

The most popular destination for the Nepalese students has been the UK which is famous for its world renowned quality education. The degrees earned in the UK are accepted globally because of its world famed universities like the Oxford and Cambridge. The educational institution of the UK can meet the educational aspirations of the students. Like the USA, UK is also called traditional destination for migrant students. The following table shows the trends of the Nepalese students who applied for NOC to migrate to study in the UK.

Table 21. Number of Aspiring Students to go to the UK (based on NOC)

F/Y	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
	00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11
N.	-	639	552	252	288	281	283	442	726	1939	19,179	3246

Source: Nepal Education in Figures 2009 and 2010 At- A-Glance. Ministry of Education, June, 2009, June, 2010 and Scholarship section MOE (2010, 2011). N= Number

Data presented in table 21 reveal that the number of students has been continuously increasing since fiscal year 2004-05. It is interesting to see that in 2009/10, there has been a big jump in the number of students applying for NOC from 1,939 in 2008-2009 to 19,179 in 2009-2010. But, in 2010-11, the number of UK bound students unexpectedly decreased to 3,246. The flow of student migration depends upon immigration policies of host countries. It is sure that all NOC holder students do not get visa. Table 22 illustrates applications for visas and visas issued to the UK bound Nepali students.

Table 22. Number of students applying for visa to the UK

Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Visa apply	1,334	1,516	1,757	3,081	2,671	19,919
Visa issued	507	669	1,068	1,400	743	12,388
Percentage	38	44	61	45	28	62

Source: UK Border Agency, Visa Customer Services, Croydon, UK (2010)

Table 22 shows number of Nepalese students applying for the visa and issued to them. The table shows that all the students, who had taken NOC, were not granted visa. For instance, in 2009 academic year, 19,919 students had applied for visa and 12,388 students got the visa which is 62 percent of the total applicant. In 2008, only 28 percent of the total numbers of students were issued visa. The visa application is shown in the academic year of the UK but the NOC is shown in the fiscal year of Nepal. However, the numbers of students (19,179, table 21) who were issued

NOC by the MoE in the fiscal year 2009-2010 is nearly equal to the application (19,919) for the visa in the UK's academic year, 2009. The number of students applying for visa increased dramatically.

Therefore, 2009 saw the highest number of students planning to go to the UK for higher education. The Tier-4 programme of the UK led to maximum number of applications for the visa as a result of which 62.2 percent of the applicants were issued visa to the UK and 37.8 percent of the students were rejected. It is clear from the table 21 and 22 that all the students who took NOC had applied for visa.

Australia

Australia is the third most popular international destination for further studies with most of its student population coming from overseas and offers students with endless possibilities to enrich their life (Newsweek, Sep 5, 2011). So, having a beautiful and peaceful country in the global market, it has become third position hosting 2, 81,633 international students in 2006 (World Education Service, 2007). However, in 2007, France has captured the third position as a destination and Australia was placed at the fourth position in the global market hosting 2, 11,500 international students (Global Education Digest, 2009).

Like the USA, Australia is also known as such a place where permanent settlement has attracted many Nepali students. So, many students have got such opportunities. It is one of the top education service providers and committed to providing quality education in the world market. The flow of students to Australia and New Zealand is common these days. It is said that Australia is heaven for student and it has been called as '*One country, every opportunity*'. The trend of the Nepalese students to study in Australia is presented below.

Table 23. Number of aspiring students to go to Australia (based on NOC)

F/Year	1999 00	2000 01	2001 02	2002 03	2003 04	2004 05	2005 06	2006 07	2007 08	2008 09	2009 10	2010 11
Number	333	277	87	97	136	310	901	2,970	5,888	9,776	1,328	2,341

Source: Nepal Education in Figures 2009 and 2010 At- A-Glance. Ministry of Education, June, 2009, June, 2010, Scholarship section MOE (2010, 2011).

Table 23 presents the flow of students' intention to migrate to Australia. The number has been continuously increasing till 2008-09 (9,776), dropped to 1,328 in 2009-2010 and rose to optimistically 2,341. The main causes of decline in numbers are TIRE-4 programme of the UK and new emerging countries for international education. Similarly, for the last one decade and more, visa is issued by the Consular Section of Australian embassy based in New Delhi, India. Asked about the decline in the number of Nepalese students aspiring to go to Australia, Susan Grace, Ambassador of Australia to Nepal said that visa has not been tightened to the Nepalese students. The real students have been issued visa and the number of visa holders is expected to increase in the years to come. Table 24 portrays actual number of the Nepalese students who were granted visas in order to study higher education in Australia.

Table 24. Australian visa issued to the Nepalese students in Higher Education*

F/Y	2002 03	2003 04	2004 05	2005 06	2006 07	2007 08	2008 09	2009 10
No	43	37	136	364	1,624	2,154	1,518	543
Total	231	280	361	835	4,471	7,879	11,039	1,344

Source: Australian Government, Austrade through Brilliant Education Consultancy, Putali Sadak.

*Education has been categorized into secondary exchange, post graduate research, non-award, higher education etc. Students who were issued visa for aforementioned area in education are not included in this table.

Table 24 shows visa holder Nepalese students going to Australia for higher education. The highest numbers of students were issued visa for higher education in 2007-2008 and 2008-09. It is clear from the table that visa policy was tightened by Australian government in 2009-10 dropping to 1,344 in number.

However, Sidhu, 2006 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 39) points to considerable differences between the US, on the one hand, and Australia and the UK, on the other, in their reasons for wanting to develop international education and attract overseas students. In Australia and the UK, she argues, the international student is seen as an object of trade, as some one who makes a valuable contribution to export income so there has been significant decrease in state funding to universities. In other words, these two countries have earned billions of dollars from international students. In contrast, the writer is of the view that, in the US, the overseas student is constructed rather differently, not as a source of additional revenue but as prized human capital.

Area of Study

The main reason for Nepalese students' choice to go to foreign countries is the unavailability of choices of subject in Nepal. In addition to destination, subject area chosen by students adheres to importance. While applying for NOC at the MoE, students have to mention the subject for which they are supposed to study abroad. Generally, students choose the subject taking into consideration the global and local demand. Table 25 presents subject wise NOC issued at the MoE.

Table 25. Subjectwise NOC issued (2008 July to 2009 May) in percentage

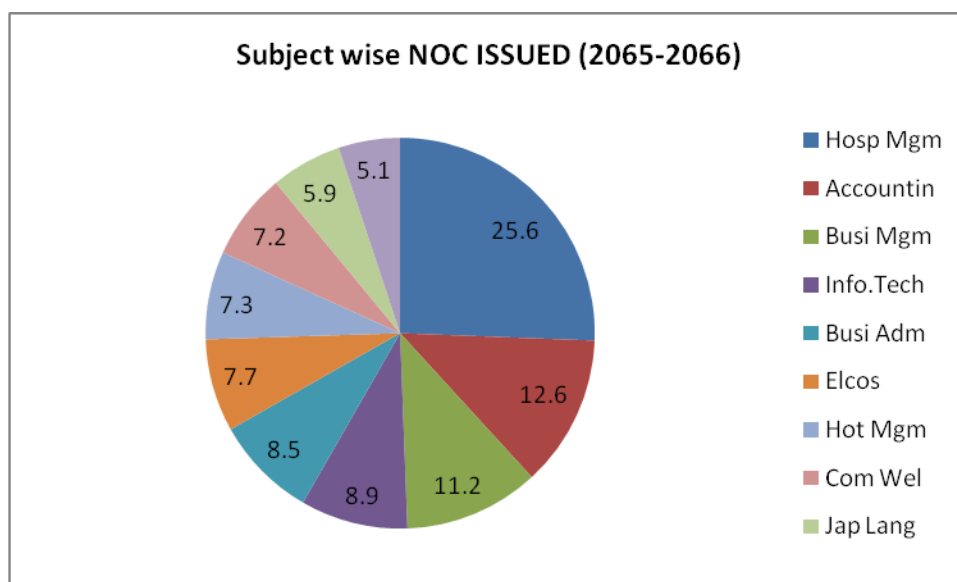
Faculty	Hospital Mgt	Account	Busines Mgt	IT	Busine Adm.	Elco	Hotel Mgt	Community. Welfare	Jap. lan	Nursin	Total %
Percent	25.6	12.6	11.2	8.9	8.5	7.7	7.3	7.2	5.9	5.1	100

Source : Nepal Education in Figures 2009 at a glance p.20, Ministry of Education (2009,2010)

IT: Information and technology. Elcos: English course. Mgt: Management, Jap Lang: Japanese Language, Nursin: Nursing, Adm: Administration

Table 25 indicates subjectwise explanation of potential students. Students preferred management group such as hospital management, business management, and hotel management as the best choice to study abroad. It covered 44 percent of the subject offered by the students followed by accounting and business administration (21 percent). Tourism and hotel management are the attraction of the Nepalese students because of job opportunities and its future sustainability in Nepal. About 9 percent of the students have selected information and technology as their choice subject. Similarly, community welfare, English language course, Japanese language and nursing are other preferable to students. Nursing subject has become very popular in Nepal because of its high demand in the global market. According to MoE, in the fiscal year 2009-2010, about 40, 24 and 16 percent of the students selected hospitability, hotel management and business management respectively. The data evidently show that majority of students selected management as their favourite area of study. The pimary data also supported this secondary data being management as number one choice of potential students. It can be diagramatically presented in figure 13.

Figure 13. Area of Study



Source : Nepal Education in Figures 2009 at a glance p.20, Ministry of Education (2009)

Elcs: English language course, Hot Mgm: Hotel Management, Com Wel : Community welfare, Jap Lang: Japanese Language

Figure 13 shows the subject that the potential students selected for studying abroad. More than one fourth (25.6 percent) of the students selected hospitable management followed by accounting (12.6 percent), business management (11.2 percent), information technology (8.9 percent), and business administration (8.5 percent). The data show that majority of the students' choices were highly demanded subject in national and international arena. There arises a question why do they go abroad to study abovementioned subject which is available in Nepal. Do they go for quality education or for earning as their hidden agenda in the name of education ?

Chapter Summary

This chapter answered the trends of student migration globally and nationally. Around 3.3 million international students study abroad and the main source countries are China, India, and S. Korea. China occupies 40 percent share of international education in the global market. Other

source countries are Japan, Malaysia, Pakistan, Veitnam, Bangladesh and Taiwan. Nepal is one of the source countries in the global education market. For example, Nepal became the 11th country sending students to the USA. It has now become evident that the countries from Asia send a large number of students abroad. The USA, UK, Australia, France, Germany, Canada and NewZealand are main attractive destinations for higher education. The USA has captured around 30 percent of the global education market earning billions of dollors from international education. So, these major destination countries occupy 70 percent of the global student migration by hosting international students. The emerging countries like Malaysia, Thailand, Singapore, India and China in Asia also host international students.

Nepalese students have travelled to more than 51 countries for studies. The best choice for them has become the USA, UK, and Australia. The USA also called “land of opportunities” is number one choice for Nepalese students. The dramatic increase in the number of Nepalese students to go to the UK under the PBS Tier-4 programme in 2009/10 academic year was a result of the UK’s government policy as a result of which more than 12 thousands Nepali students migrated to the UK. So, in this scenario, the number opting for the USA and Australia- the most popular destinations for Nepali students- decreased. However, the most popular destination for Nepalese students has been the USA followed by the UK and Australia. Although, students from 75 districts of Nepal planned to go to foreign countries, the highest numbers of students were from Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Chitwan and Kaski districts. There has been a sharp rise in the numbers of female students who were motivated to migrate to foreign countries. Management was the best choice of potential students.

Since migrant students are rapidly growing, different models and theories are associated with this phenomenon. The very popular model that discusses student migration is push-pull

model. In addition to this, social network theory and cultural capital have helped understand student migration. The push, pull and social capital influence students' motivation to go to foreign countries. Lack of employment opportunities and quality education (globally accepted degree), political instability, trends of going abroad (*bidesh jaane lahar*) in the origin and earning opportunities, quality and practical education in the destination are the main reasons for choosing foreign countries in pursuit of higher education.

In the globalized context, HE is seen as a commercial product so destination countries have captured the world market in the internationalization of higher education. Hence, it can be concluded that the trends of student migration globally and particularly in Nepal have been extraordinarily increasing. It is predicted that the trends of student migration would continue to increase in the future. The next chapter discusses the causes of student migration.

CHAPTER V

CAUSES OF NEPALESE STUDENT MIGRATION ABROAD

In chapter four, trends of student migration at the global and the Nepalese scenario were discussed based on the secondary data. The purpose of this chapter is to analyse causes of student migration from the perspectives of push-pull and network factors. The second research questions reads as “*What are the causes of student migration to foreign countries for higher education and how these causes can be explained from the perspectives of push-pull factors*”? In other words, determinants of student migration (push-pull and network factors) were examined on the basis of primary data. Since this research question was purely quantitative based on primary data that were collected from 407 respondents, some relevant statistical tools were applied in this chapter.

The data were collected from major source districts of Nepal namely Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Chitwan and Kaski. The survey questionnaire consisted of four parts. The first part consisted of information on the characteristics of respondents (student), the second part consisted of push-pull and social network factors, the third part composed of 30 Likert type rated as a five point scale such as strongly agree (1), agree (2), depends (3), disagree (4) and strongly disagree (5). The last part was related to open-ended question which mainly covered quality education, expectations and aspiration of potential students. Similarly, the survey instruments designed for the USA,UK, and Australia mainly covered demographic feature, socio-economic aspects, push-pull factors, and 33 Likert scales which were rated as strongly agree (1), agree (2), undecided (3), disagree

(4), and strongly disagree(5). This chapter has been sub-divided into two parts. The first part deals with descriptive statistical analysis of data and the second part discusses the inferential statistical analysis.

Descriptive Statistical Analysis

The information gathered through survey was analyzed with the help of tables, charts, percentage and mean. International migration can be seen as a function of economic forces (demand pull and supply push) and networks (Hollifield, 2008, p.195, Rashid, 2004, p.7). So, push-pull factors are associated with cost-benefit calculation because decisions to migrate are made by rational individual whereas sociologists have stressed the importance of social networks.

The push-pull model can also be applied to educational migration. Altbach, 1998, p. 240 (as cited in Li & Bray 2007, p. 793) presented what he called the push-pull model for international student mobility. In this chapter, push-pull factors, social network and personal characteristics of the students' namely demographic, socio-economic status, and academic ability, expectations and aspirations are analyzed. The expectations and aspirations of outgoing students are qualitatively analyzed in the next chapter.

Demographic and Socio-Economic Status of Students

Demographic (sex and age) and personal characteristics also influence migratory behavior of potential students. Male students are more likely to migrate than female students. Similarly, age also is an important variable for student migration. Higher the age, lower the migratory behavior and vice versa. Student from higher income family are more likely to migrate than lower income family. The demographic information of potential students is presented in table 26.

Table 26. Demographic information of potential migrant students of Nepal (n=406)

Country Variable		US	UK	Australia	New Zealand	Other	Total no	Percentage
Gender	Male	61	128	24	7	35	255	62.80
	Female	43	68	24	3	13	151	37.20
Age	Total	104	196	48	10	48	406	100
	18-21	79	133	29	7	23	271	66.75
	22-25	17	46	11	2	20	96	23.64
	26-29	5	8	3	0	2	18	4.44
	30 and above	3	9	5	1	3	21	5.17
Total (n)		104	196	48	10	48	406	100

Source: Field Survey 2009-10

Table 26 reveals the demographic feature of students. Of the total respondents (406), 62.80 percent of the students were male. Male has dominated among migrant students. However, there is an equal number of male and female planning to go to Australia. Consistent with this research, Bohra-Mishra (2010) conducting a survey in Chitwan, found that females are less likely to migrate for work and studies. In the fiscal year 2008-2009, 2009-2010, the percentage of female who took no objection letter to go abroad was 32 and 34 respectively. Hence, the range difference between primary and secondary data was 3.20 percent (37.20 -34).

There is an inverse relationship between age and migration tendency of students. As age increases, the number of migrant student decreases. Table 26 shows highest percentage (66.75) of the age group 18-21 planning to go abroad and migration tendency decreased as age increased. The literature supports the ties between age and migration with young adults in their 20s have higher migration rate (Heuer, 2004). Age selectivity is consistent with human capital model and thus the young have a relatively long time to

reap the returns associated with migration, Becker, 1964 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p.25). Similar research has supported this data relating to age. 'The OME survey, which covers the entire adult population, clearly shows that the wish to emigrate declines with age. In a student survey, 95 percent of the respondents are within the 17-21 age group and they are all at the same stage in life in terms of education and career' (Carling, 2001, p. 77). Therefore, aspiration to migrate to study abroad declines as age increases.

Socio-economic status is one of the determinants of student migration. Ethnicity, parents' income and occupation, and funding for education influence student mobility. Data presented in table 27 reveal socio-economic status of potential students.

Table 27. Socio-economic status of students (n=405)

Country Variable		USA	UK	Australi	New Zealand	Other	Total No	Percent	
Ethnicity	Brahmin	47	68	32	3	31	181	44.80	
	Chhetree	25	52	3	4	7	91	22.52	
	Newar	19	31	8	1	7	66	16.33	
	Dalit	0	2	2	0	0	4	1.00	
	Other*	13	42	2	2	3	62	15.34	
	Total	104	195	47	10	48	404	100	
Parental annual income(Lacs)	<100000	7	20	2	2	3	34	8.41	
	1-125000	18	57	12	3	9	99	24.50	
	125-300000	33	54	23	1	18	129	31.93	
	3-500000	24	28	4	4	5	65	16.09	
	5-1000000	13	22	6	0	8	49	12.12	
	>1000000	9	13	1	0	5	28	6.93	
	Total	104	194	48	10	48	404	100	
Parents occupa	Businessmen	44	67	23	4	13	151	37.28	
	Govt. Service	26	52	12	2	14	106	26.17	
	Farmer	8	38	2	2	9	59	14.60	
	Prof/Teacher	3	10	3	1	3	20	4.93	
	Doctor	0	0	1	0	1	2	0.49	
	Engineer	0	0	2	0	0	2	0.49	
	Other+	23	28	5	1	8	65	16.04	
	Total	104	195	48	10	48	405	100	
	Funding for education	Parent	76	143	32	6	22	279	68.88
		Earning	10	21	4	0	5	40	9.87
Scholarship		13	4	1	1	13	32	7.90	
Relative (abro		3	14	6	1	3	27	6.66	
Bank/F. Co.		1	10	3	1	1	16	3.95	
Other		1	4	1	1	4	11	2.72	
Total		104	196	47	10	48	405	100	

Source: Field Survey 2009-2010

*Magar, Tamang, Gurung, Rai, Limbu and Madhesi

+ Retired govt. service holder, army/police

Table 27 shows the socio-economic status of migrant students. Students from the Brahmin caste were the highest in number (44.80 percent) whereas only one percent of the Dalit student was motivated to study in foreign country. Clowers (1992) concluded that minority students were largely excluded from migration. In Nepal, Brahmin,

Chhetree, and Newar communities have more access to education and resources than the Dalit community. Magar, Tamang and Gurung students are ahead of other communities but only two students from Madhesi community had intention to go abroad. However, there was no respondent from the Muslim community.

Parental income is one of the important determinants of student migration. An increase in family income should increase migration (Tuckman, 1970). The basic range of parental income in the research tools is based on the World Bank's definition that has set minimum income of US dollar 2.0 per day. As table 27 shows that students from the lowest to the highest family income showed their intention to migrate to study. However, the highest percentage of family (around 32 percent) came from middle income group. It is generally seen that middle income families have sent their sons/daughters to foreign countries by selling land or taking loan from the Bank and finance company.

Students from business community (37.28 percent) followed by the Government service holder (26.17 percent) and farmer (14.60 percent) were potential migrant as shown in table 27. The number of students from doctor and engineer profession was very negligible (less than 1 percent). It seems that there is no relation between parental occupation (doctor and engineer) and migration. The highest percentage of potential student was from business community. Students have selected business as their parents' occupation even though their parents run a normal trade such as whole sale and retail trade, small store, and cold store. However, respondents came from a family of big business houses/ traders.

The cost of education is very important for educational migration. In response to question "who will bear the cost of your education when you go abroad", table 27 shows

that about 69 percent of students replied parents as main financier of education. This data prove authenticity when parents fund their sons'/daughters' education in the beginning (minimum for six months) but students begin to work and meet their educational and other costs upon arrival in the destination. Monro (2004) researched on Chinese students who migrated to the UK for studies and found that most Chinese students were parent-funded. Around ten percent of the students indicated their cost of education was met by earning abroad. Another previous research found that more than 54 percent of student interviewees were also receiving a financial contribution towards their education from their parents (Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.98).

Parental education influences student migration. Research shows that there is a positive correlation between numbers of years of parental education and number of years of education his/her child will receive. Generally, higher the level of parental education, higher the tendency of student migration. Students are more likely to migrate to study if parents have knowledge and experiences and have gone abroad. Table 28 indicates level of parents' education.

Table 28. Parents' qualification of migratory Nepali students (n=407)

Parental Edu.	Father		Mother	
	No	Percent	No	Percent
Under SLC	95	23.2	221	54.3
SLC	93	22.9	90	22.1
Plus 2	79	19.4	65	16
Bachelor	93	22.9	25	6.1
Master	43	10.6	6	1.5
PhD	4	1	-	-
Total	407	100	407	100

Source: Field Survey 2009-10

Table 28 shows the level of parental education. Parental education, according to research, also influences motivation for migration. More than 65 percent of fathers had

under-graduate (Under SLC, SLC and +2 combined) whereas 22.91 percent were graduated and 11.57 percent obtained post graduate (Master and PhD) degree. The level of educational attainment in the SLC was approximately same percentage for parents. However, fathers obtained more education than mothers. So, there is an inverse relation between parental level of education and student migration.

The previous research, however, has supported this data. According to Brooks and Waters, 2009b (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.100), postgraduate UK international students' parents have (on the whole) fewer formal qualifications and undergraduates have highly educated parents. The other researchers have shown divergent views. The proportion of the UK students who came from both parents educated to university level applied to study overseas (Brooks & Waters, 2011, pp. 98-99). Similarly, Rosenzweig and Stark (1997) found that students, whose parents have higher level of educational attainment, tend to migrate. Since potential students, whose fathers had a middle level of educational attainment (Under SLC, SLC and +2 combined), were motivated to go abroad, the earlier research did not support this data (65.51). The Graduate, Master and PhD holder fathers were only 34.49 percent.

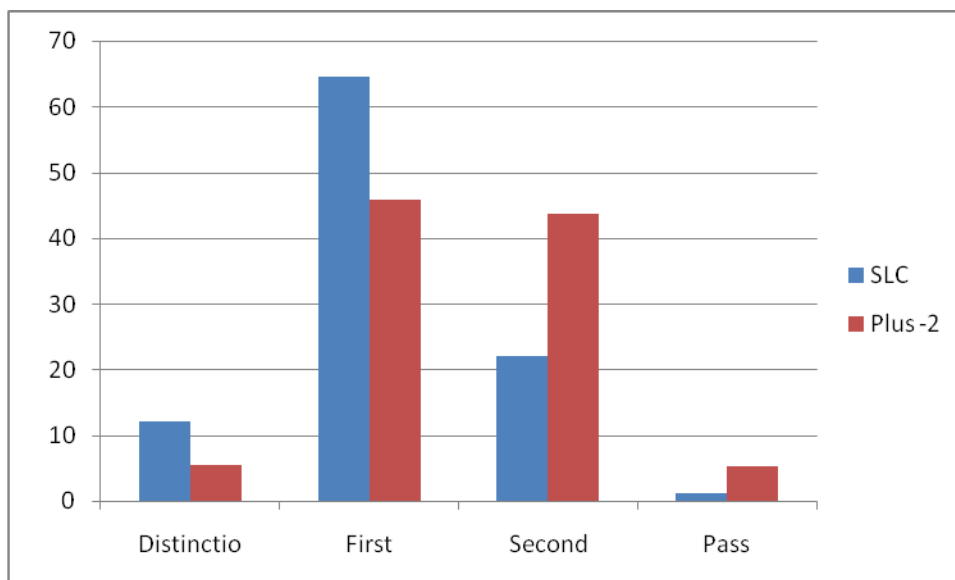
It can be summarized from the abovementioned demographic status that number of female students is on increasing trends for abroad study. However, they are particularly based in urban areas and have studied at private boarding schools. More than two third of the potential students were from age bracket (18-21) which is positive from the perspective of human capital. A student with low age can reap benefits for longer time if he is employed after completion of his studies. Regarding socio-economic status, the Brahmin community holds the first position sending students abroad followed by

Chhetree and Newar community. The highest percentage of students was found to be from the middle income families. In connection with parental occupation, the highest percentage was from businessmen followed by the Government service holders who chose to send their children to foreign countries. It is a normal process that parents bear initial costs of abroad study such as minimum one semesters' tuition fees, air fares, and cost of food and lodging. It was found that there was inverse correlation between parental level of education and migration. Lee (1965) pointed out that differential age, gender, and social class affect migration. Hence, it can be concluded that demographic and socio-economic aspects are important determinants of push factors of migration.

Academic Performances

The earlier researches show that higher the educational level of students, higher the migration rate. The best and the brightest students generally leave the country in search of further education leading to higher earning abroad. One of the push factors of migration is considered to be academic performances (distinction/first division with good marks) of motivated students to migrate to study. Figure 14 illustrates academic performances of potential students.

Figure 14. Academic performance of potential migrant students (n=407)



Source: Field Survey 2009-10

Fig.14 shows academic performances of potential students in the SLC and Plus 2 level of education. The highest number of students in the survey obtained first division in both level (64.6 and 45.8 percent in the SLC and Plus 2 respectively). The distinction holders were only 12 percent in the SLC and 5.4 percent in the certificate level. The number of distinction holders is less as compared to first and second division holders because high achievers students (distinction) go in for medical and engineering areas in Nepal. Generally, they go abroad after completion of their Bachelor degree such as medical doctors and engineers. About 77 percent and 51 percent of students who passed first division and distinction combined in the SLC and the certificate levels respectively were planning to go abroad. It has been supported by previous researches. According to Tuckman (as cited in Dean, Hunt, & Smith, 2006), the best and the brightest students are also the most likely to migrate out of state for college. In the words of Torantzky et al. 2001 (as cited in Heuer, 2004), migration was more likely for those who have a high

grade point average (GPA). Similarly, Findlay and King (2010) found statistically significant relationship between academic ability and propensity to study abroad (Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.101).

School Types and Students' Intention to Go Abroad

Students' choice to go abroad depends upon which type of school he/she has studied in. Students enrolled at private schools are likely to secure good marks and tend to migrate whereas students enrolled at Government and community schools are less likely to go abroad. Table 29 shows schools types and students' intention to go abroad.

Table 29. School types and students' intention to migrate to study (n=405)

Destination School Type	USA	UK	Australia	NZ	Others	Total	Percent
Govt. fund	8	57	17	4	13	99	24.44
Community	0	11	1	0	1	13	3.20
Private	96	127	30	6	33	292	72.1
Others	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.25
Total	104	195	48	10	48	405	100

Source: Field Survey, 2009-10.

Table 29 shows the types of schools from where potential students studied. A total of 292 (72 percent) students were from private boarding schools and 99 (24.44 percent) students belonged to government funded schools. More than 3 percent potential students from community schools planned to migrate to study. The data indicated that about three quarter respondents were from private schools. Students studying at the private schools achieve higher marks than government-funded and community schools as a result of which they are more likely to migrate.

It has been verified by previous research. According to Perry, 2001 (as cited in Heuer, 2004) those who attend private college are more likely to migrate following graduation than those who attend public secondary institutions. Those young people who had attended top private or independent schools were far more likely to consider studying

overseas than were state-school attendees, Brooks & Waters, 2009a (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 99).

Potential Students' Field of Studies

Students go to foreign countries in quest of knowledge in different fields. Researches show that migration matter as to which faculty a migrant student is attached to. Most of the students go abroad to study those subjects that are not available in Nepal. Before planning to go abroad, they think of global demand for the subject area. For instance, if the demand for management is high, they take management subject. Table 30 reveals the choice of faculties that a migrant student has taken in Plus 2.

Table 30. Area of studies:

Destination Area of study						(n=406)	
	USA	UK	Australia	New Zealand	Other countries	Total number	%
Management	41	83	21	3	19	167	41.13
Pure Science	38	43	8	4	17	110	27
Hotel.Mgt.	8	30	7	1	0	46	11.33
Engineering	9	4	0	0	3	16	3.94
Education	0	9	4	0	1	14	3.44
Economics	1	7	1	0	2	11	2.70
Nursing	0	1	1	0	2	4	0.98
Health	0	0	2	0	1	3	0.73
Agriculture	1	1	0	1	0	3	0.73
Forestry	0	0	1	0	0	1	0.24
Other*	6	18	3	1	3	31	7.64
Total	104	196	48	10	48	406	100

Source: Field Survey 2009-10

*Sociology, Psychology, English, Fashion design and Dental science

Table 30 shows faculties of outgoing students. The highest number of students who planned to go abroad is from management faculty. Out of 406 responses, 167 students have taken management subject followed by pure science (110), and tourism and hotel management (46). Students from education faculty are negligible in number (3.44

percent). Taylor, 1973 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, p.9) found that those in the school of education had the lowest migration rate. Similarly, the number of students who took engineering, health including nursing, agriculture and forestry is very negligible. Since majority of outgoing students have chosen management, science and hotel management as their major subject, the secondary data published by the MoE show that management (hospitality, business, and hotel management) is the best choice of students' to study abroad. Hence, secondary data supported primary data.

Push Factors (Causes of Student Migration)

As discussed earlier, the push-pull factors used in economics could also be applied to student mobility. The push-pull factors developed by Ravenstein (1885, 1889) and Lee (1965) are venerable model to explain student migration. Push factors are negative forces since it drives students out of country and pull factors are positive forces that attract students abroad. However, Li and Bray (2007, p. 795) have also explained the positive forces at home and negative forces abroad. It can be called reverse push-pull factors.

In this research, push and pull factors, as negative and positive forces at home and abroad, are analyzed respectively. The following discussion is based on part two of the questionnaire in which students were instructed to tick only one dominant reason for migration. Table 31 denotes push factors and preferred destinations.

Table 31. Push factors and preferred destinations (n=406)

Destination Variable	USA	UK	Australia	New Zealand	Other countries	Total	Percent
Low quality education	12	22	8	2	7	51	12.56
Low employment opportunity	18	54	12	1	6	91	22.42
Parents afford.	5	8	1	0	2	16	3.95
Lack of subjects	3	6	1	1	4	15	3.70
Pol.instability	24	19	4	1	9	57	14
Limited career opportunity	9	15	4	0	3	31	7.65
Bandha/Hartal	8	15	1	0	2	26	6.40
Person factors	12	32	7	2	7	60	14.78
Friend abroad	3	5	4	0	0	12	2.96
Nepal as low development	4	6	2	0	1	13	3.20
Other factors*	6	14	4	3	7	34	8.37
Total	104	196	48	10	48	406	100

Source: Field Survey 2009-2010

*Other factors include lack of modern lab, library, curricula, security and recreational facilities, excellent academic performance, discrimination against enrollment, traditional culture and prestige enhancement.

Note: Personal factors are neither push nor pull and friends/peers abroad can also be included in the pull factor. For the purpose of this study, descriptions of variables are annexed.

Data presented in table 31 reveal push factors (determinants of student migration) and the preferred destinations. Students are pushed by unfavorable condition in Nepal. Students were instructed to choose only one push factor out of 22 indicators supplied with the questionnaire. Questionnaire 21 reads “Which one of the following statements is the dominant reason that has forced or pushed you to go abroad for higher education”? The main purpose of question 21 was to find the only one dominant reason for students’ outflow. However, more or less same type of question was asked in the Lijert Scale in which they were free to select one out of five alternatives provided.

Table 31 shows that the dominant cause of migrants' intention to go abroad was low employment opportunities (earning) in Nepal. More than 22 percent (n=406) of the students supported this statement followed by personal factors (around 15 percent), political instability (14 percent), low quality education (around 13 percent), lack of career opportunity (around 8 percent), and Bandha and Hartal (6.40 percent). Similarly, around 4 percent of the students' parents encouraged them to study abroad for which they would spend for their sons'/daughters' education in foreign countries. More than 3 percent of the students wanted to go to foreign countries because Nepal has low level of development and they prefer highly developed economy. About 3 percent of the students selected foreign countries because their relatives and friends have already left Nepal and live abroad. More than 8 percent of students were planning to study in foreign countries because there was lack of modern lab, library, curricula, security, and recreational facilities. Similarly, excellent academic performance (higher marks secured), discrimination against enrollment, and prestige enhancement also push students out of country. All these factors are included as other factors in the table. It is interesting to note that no student selected causes like lack of experienced professors, discrimination against gender and scholarship in college as main determinant push factor. Hence, potential students selected 19 reasons that forced them to leave country. Five major causes for student migration are examined below.

Low Employment Opportunities

The number one dominant cause (22.42 percent) that the Nepalese students selected was low employment opportunities in Nepal. I have not come across any data of educated unemployment in Nepal. In Nepal, 2.5 million people of working age are completely

unemployed or semi-employed (Three years plan 2010/11-2012/13). According to report (CBS, 2009) on the Nepal Labour Force Survey (2008), unemployment rate increased slightly from 1.8 percent in 1998/99 to 2.1 percent in 2008. The youth unemployment rate was 3.5 percent for those aged 15-24 years. Nepal has witnessed high unemployment rate as a result of which thousands of students also opt for foreign countries. Therefore, the survey indicated that like labour migrant, students also planned to go to different countries considering unemployment in Nepal. For example, there is a positive relationship between unemployment and migration rate. High unemployment causes migration tendency to increase.

Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) found that economic factors (29 percent) was the most important determinant of students' intention to study abroad. Mansoor (2007) views unemployment as main push factor. Roisin and Anne (2004) referring to brain drain viewed that high unemployment among graduates in developing countries leads to increased migration. A higher unemployment rate of citizenry in the country is expected to have a positive effect on student migration (Thissen & Ederveen, 2006).

Since this study deals with education-related migration, there is a clear relationship between study and migration. The main purpose of the students is to study their choices of subjects at foreign educational institutions. Their first choice is related to obtain globally accepted degree. However, an employment opportunity has been at the backdrop of education. So, there is a direct relation between education and employment. Migration increases if employment opportunities increase in the destination. For example,

majority of the potential students aspire to go to the US because of globally accepted degree side by side employment opportunities.

Personal Factors

Table 31 shows that students ranked personal factors around 15 percent next to low employment opportunities. Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) also found 15 percent as personal factors of student mobility. He further stated that most of the factors like economic, educational, social, cultural and political were external forces which impacted on students' choices, but personal factors were internal to the students. Chik (1989) assessed the personal factors which influence the immigration plan of East and Southeast Asian students in the USA. According to him, personal factors include the minority status of students in their country of origin, spouses' attitude toward migration, and strength of family and professional ties.

Juhasz, Peto, Sanden, and Waaldijk (2003) in their research paper on educational migration in the European Union have stated that women's motives for study abroad were more personal and less explicitly educational. Alberts and Hazen (2005) also emphasized personal as one of the motivational factors. Lee (1965) identified personal factors such as a person's education, knowledge of destination and family ties.

In the Nepalese perspective, personal factors were not clearly identified by outgoing students. In the field survey, however, respondents ticked personal factors as the main dominant factor of migration in the multiple choices of questionnaires supplied to them. It was found that personal factors of students were basically related to their internal forces such as family ties and their attitude towards mobility, education and knowledge about destination. One of the participants in the interview viewed that he was ready to go

to study in foreign country because of his personal factor but he did not explain what his personal factor was. In reality, it is difficult to define and it differs from person to person. So, it is neither push nor pull factors of migration.

Political Instability

The motive for study abroad has resulted in a combination of factors in Nepal's context. Another main reason for student mobility has been political instability. In Nepal, 14 percent (dominant cause) students cited political instability as main motive for migrating. Nepal saw one decade insurgency and after the restoration of democracy in April, 2006, she has been in the process of peace building. However, there is still political instability and dissolution of the Constituent Assembly in May, 2012 that was entrusted to drafting constitution has further aggravated the political instability. There were more than 30 political parties but no party gained majority in the parliament. Political instability has frequently caused disturbances in teaching leading to strike and hartal thereby students have faced unscheduled educational calendar. Political stability creates conducive environment for overall development.

Low Quality Education

Students were inclined to go abroad due to low quality education in Nepal. This is also main determinant of students' outflow. Table 31 indicates that 12.56 percent of students ranked low quality education in Nepal as another main reason for migration to higher education.

No Career Opportunity

Data indicate that the reason for student migration was lack of career opportunity in Nepal. Table 31 shows that 7.65 percent of respondents had intention to migrate to study

because there was no career opportunity in Nepal. It is an appropriate to distinguish between career opportunity and employment opportunity. Career opportunities relate to future career/ advancement after completion of the study whereas employment or earning opportunities apply to earning or employment during study periods.

To sum up, push factors mainly focused on earning in order to obtain globally recognized degrees. However, students supported personal factors as main cause of migration. Political instability was one of the causes for mobility. The nation faced a decade long insurgency leading to fighting for a republican Government.

Causes of Student Migration (Pull Factors)

Pull factors attract students and are associated with positive side of destination.

Questionnaire 22 reads as “Which one of the following statements is the dominant reason that has attracted you (in destination like the USA, UK, Australia, Canada or any other country where you are planning to go) in order to study higher education ? The respondents were requested to tick only one out of 28 statements. The respondents have indicated various reasons why they wanted to go abroad. Table 32 reveals pull factors of migration.

Table 32. Pull factors and preferred destinations

Destination Variables	USA	UK	Australia	New Zealand	Other Countries	Total	Percent
Quality education	20	27	10	2	10	69	17
Education & earning	39	101	14	3	18	175	43.10
Earning opportunity	6	7	4	0	1	18	4.43
Career opportunity	11	34	8	1	5	59	14.53
Choices of subject	8	1	1	0	2	12	2.95
Relatives' support	3	4	4	0	0	11	2.70
Independent life	4	4	1	0	1	10	2.46
No Harat	1	2	2	1	0	6	1.48
Quality of life	2	1	1	1	1	6	1.48
Reputed university	2	2	1	1	0	6	1.48
Research facilities	0	1	0	1	4	6	1.48
Other factors	8	12	2	0	6	28	6.90
Total	104	196	48	10	48	406	100

Source: Field Survey 2009-2010

Note: Other factors include experience of going abroad, reformed curricula, scholarship, democratic govt. security, Green card, recreational facilities, expansion of horizon, good education environment.

Table 32 shows pull factors of student mobility. The dominant causes of potential students' intention to go abroad were education and earning. More than 43 percent of students preferred learning and earning (employment) followed by quality education (17 percent), career opportunity (around 15 percent), earning opportunity (4.43 percent), choice of subjects available (around 3 percent), relative support (around 3 percent), independent life (2.46 percent) and other reasons (around 7 percent). Less than 2 percent of students were attracted by quality of life, reputed universities, and advanced lab and research facilities in the destination. Other reasons are experience of going abroad,

reformed curricula, scholarship, democratic Government, security, green card, recreational facilities, expansion of horizon, and good education environment. The potential students selected 21 reasons that attracted them to migrate to study in foreign countries. The demarcation between career and earning/ employment opportunities has been established in push factors of migration. Some of the major causes of student migration are analyzed below.

Education and Earning as Main Cause of Student Migration

Student migration is driven by education as well as earning (employment). Generally, international students work in destinations in order to further their education. According to different literatures, international students especially from developing countries work and continue their education abroad. The benefits of earning as well as learning have become a boon to all students who are enrolled at college and university in the destination countries

Nepal with a percapita income of US \$ 735 (Economic Survey, 2011/12, p.xii) is a poor country. The major problem has been poverty and 25.4 percent of the population lives below poverty line (NPC, 2010-11/2012-13, P.14). Therefore, the country has to depend on the remittance income (for example, 330.9 billion Rs in the Fiscal Year 2010-11 which is 21.2 percent of the GDP: Economic Survey, 2011/12 p. xxii). Foreign aid is the major sources of national budget.

Political instability, low employment opportunities, low productivity, lack of modern technology in agriculture, low economic growth rate, energy crisis and labour issues thereby slow down industrial production, ineffective plan/policy, low foreign direct investment, high inflation rate, weak capital market, outflow of millions of youth

for overseas employment, closure (Bandh) and strikes, limited base of industrialization, low competitiveness in industrial and commercial sectors, imbalance between revenue and expenditure, and weak in the mobilization of resources are some of the major economic problems of Nepal.

Because of low percapita income, parents cannot bear full educational costs for abroad study. So, students are forced to study as well work in the destination. This finding has been echoed by Farrer (2007, 2009) who carried out a research on educational migration from China to Japan (Gibson & Kenzie, 2009, p.20).

Quality of Education

The researches show that student migration is generally stimulated by quality education in the destination. One of the main determinants that could influence student migration is quality of education. Every parent and student desire to have best and quality education. USA, UK, Australia and other OECD countries provide recognized degrees from renowned universities. This has been the main reason for attracting the students from around the world. However, it is difficult to measure quality. To get a globally recognized degree has been a pride for the potential Nepalese students.

Regarding quality of education, students were given to tick only one information of the five point Likert scale of questionnaires ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Similarly, in addition to open-ended question on quality education in the research tools, qualitative interview also covered this topic. In this section, the findings from quantitative data (survey) would be elaborated but the qualitative data are discussed in the next chapter.

It was found that 17 percent of the potential students rated quality education as main leading factor for migration. The percentage further goes up if scores of reputed universities and lab and research facilities (related to quality education) are added to the quality of education. Around 3 percent of students have selected reputed universities, lab and research facilities as pull factors of mobility. So, the data in table 32 reveal that one fifth of the potential students (20 percent) cited quality education as main determinant factor of migration in the destination.

It has been supported by earlier researches. Quality of teaching is a major factor stimulating students to study in developed countries (Baruch, Budhwar, & Khatri 2006). Similarly, Thissen and Ederveen (2006, p.16) and Dean, Hunt, and Smith (2006, p. 27) have found 20 percent and 77 percent of the motivated students responding quality education as main reason respectively. Anthias (2008) has highlighted the importance of quality of UK education as an important motivational factor for prospective Bangladeshi students. Kritz (2006) found that students go to foreign countries for quality education.

Career Opportunity

Lack of career opportunity in origin is the main motivational factor of students' mobility. So, students are pulled by the availability of career opportunities in destination. They aspire to migrate to study in foreign countries because of high possibilities of opportunities available in the destination. The third dominant pull factor of student mobility in field survey is career opportunity in destination. Table 32 shows that about 15 percent of the students responded career opportunity as main determinant of migration. In other words, it was found that the Nepalese students were attracted to go abroad for career opportunities. Juhasz, Peto, Sanden, and Waaldijk (2003) have mentioned that the

motive to study abroad was the desire to improve career opportunities in the European countries. Likewise, Thissen and Ederveen (2006) found that 14 percent of students rated career as main reason for student mobility.

Earning (Job) Opportunity

Migration in general is stimulated by economic factors. The earning opportunity means chances of employment as well as possibilities of higher wages in destination as compared to the origin. The main prediction of the Todarian model is that higher wages gap between home and destination countries should increase the migration rate. Table 32 shows that 18 students (4.43 percent) have responded earning opportunity as main cause of migration. Since this research is education-related migration, more than four percent of students' motives proved earning not learning as a determinant factor of migration.

Part-time job is very common to students in foreign countries. However, some research on student migration explains earning as a main motive. Job opportunities are one of the reasons that contribute to pull factor of migration (Iranfar, 1983; Hamad, 1989; Bose, 1999; Heuer 2004). Havens (1987) has concluded that students migrate to a state with the intention of seeking employment there upon graduation.

Choices of Subject Available

Students go to foreign countries to study those subjects which are not available in origin. In the survey, it was found that about 3 percent students decided to migrate to study due to non-availability of their choices of subjects in Nepal. This statement has been supported by Juhasz, Peto, Sanden, and Waaldijk (2003) who conducted research on educational migration for women in the European countries. The women students were

attracted to study another country because they wanted to take a course that was not available in their home country.

Independent life

People have variety of reasons to go abroad. This study is directly related to educational migration. Nevertheless, students preferred to go to foreign countries for independent and freedom. The survey result showed that ten students (2.46 percent out of 406 respondents) wanted to go abroad in order to enjoy an independent life.

To sum up, earlier researches were to some extent echoed by the present study. The aforementioned causes of student migration clearly predicted that the Nepalese students were pulled by both factors – earning and education simultaneously. Most of the students continue their education in part-time jobs. Their choice on learning and earning as number one dominant reason is naturally seen because there is a lack of employment opportunity in Nepal so they cannot continue their study without earning in the destination where there are high chances of employment opportunities. The data show that migrant students were not motivated to simply go to work. They were inclined to work as well as study. It has been substantiated by choosing quality education next to earning and learning. More than 60 percent of students cited studying and working combined with quality education as main reason for migration. Therefore, it is also called study to work migration. In Nepal, there is no provision for working and studying simultaneously.

Social Network Factor

Families, relatives and friends support in the migration process. One of the reasons for student mobility has been attributed to relatives/ friends and their support in foreign countries. Such type of social network helps in the migration process. More than 55 percent of the students (224 out of 407) strongly agreed or agreed that relatives' and friends' support played an important role in the migration. However, they gave less importance to social network while selecting only one dominant cause of migration. A large number of researches have been conducted on social network that facilitates migration process.

It has already been stated in the beginning that migration is determined by push-pull and network factors. According to Rashid (2004), the factors that encourage a migrant are grouped into three categories such as demand-pull, supply-push and network factors. Although, these three factors are employed in economic migration, many researchers have applied these factors to student migration as well. Social relationship and ties are called facilitator to student migration. Relatives and friends abroad help potential migrant in the form of information in the origin and food, shelter, job and financial assistance in the destination thereby lowering the costs of migration. Social network is considered to be very strong pull forces in destination. Personal relationships, such as families, friends and relatives, represent push and pull factor too. For a person whose spouse lives in another country, the family link acts as a pull factor to migrate there (Kelo & Wachter, 2004, p. 23). Table 33 shows social network factors and status of returnee.

Table 33. Social network factors* and status of returnee students

	Number	Percent	No of respondent
Relatives abroad	308	75.7	407
Support from them	275	67.7	406
Friends/Peers abroad	300	73.9	406
Support from them	237	58.8	403
Return to Nepal	352	87	404

Source: Field Survey, 2009-10. * Based on “Yes” “No” question

Table 33 reveals the role of social networks, support from the relatives and friends in the destination and status of returnee. Respondents were asked to tick “Yes” “No” questions regarding their relatives/friends and their support abroad. More than three fourth of the potential students had their relatives and friends abroad. Students expected support from them. About 68 percent of the respondents would get support from their relatives whereas 59 percent of the respondents would get support from their friends and peers. The data indicated that relatives’ support is expected 9 percentages more than the support from friends and peers when they reach destination.

Some of the researches have been discussed in order to validate this factor. Networks matter more for international migration (Davis, et al 2002, Anthias, 2008). Moretti (1999) views that probability of migrating to a destination country depends primarily on an already established network of relatives and friends. According to Brooks and Waters (2010), influences of social networks are kinship networks, friendship networks, and partner and other romantic relationship. Carling (2001, p.137) found that those who have close relatives abroad are more likely to wish to emigrate and at the same time more likely to succeed.

The questionnaire reads ‘Are you thinking to return to Nepal after completion of your studies’? A total of 352 out of 407 (87 percent) students replied that they would return to Nepal. Only 13 percent of the students want to stay in the destination. While collecting data in the survey and interview, majority of the students replied that they would come back to Nepal when they complete their studies. But in reality, the number of returnee is very low. Although, the respondents replied in the positive way, the chances of coming back home especially from the USA, Australia and Canada are low.

In the USA and Australia, there is a chance of permanent resident (PR) for foreigners. Unless there are employment opportunity and peace in the country, the chance of coming back to Nepal is very low. However, those students who have gone to the UK, other European countries and Japan, they are either compelled to return to Nepal or go to other countries. In these countries, they extend their studies rather than coming back to Nepal. During the qualitative interview, the returnee students responded that students from the elite or rich family (such as businessmen) come back to Nepal and students with middle income families want to settle in the destination.

There are innumerable researches on return rate of student migration. Baruch, Budhwar and Khatree (2006) found that Indian students were the least inclined to return home from the USA whereas students from China, Taiwan and Thailand showed greater inclination to return to their home countries. Only 30.5 percent of the foreign students intend to return home after the completion of their studies.

To sum up, the survey data show that network factor is made up strong ties especially to relatives in the migration decision of the Nepalese students. Although, students have their relatives and friends in the foreign countries approximately equally in

number, the support from friends/peers is less than the support from the relatives abroad. But, there is a divergent view in this case. For example, one of the current students in the USA viewed that his friends supported him more than his relatives' support. Regarding the returnee rate, majority of students have answered in the positive way meaning they would come back to Nepal. However, the returnee rate (documented data are not available) is low especially from the USA and Australia. The creation of employment opportunities and maintaining peace and stability can pave the way for conducive environment and check brain drain from Nepal.

Preferred Destinations

Students have preferred different countries as their destinations in the globalized context. Nepalese students were mostly motivated to go to developed economies. The majority of the students prefer to migrate to the USA, UK, Australia and other OECD countries. The data presented in table 34 reveal the destinations where prospective students planned to migrate to study.

Table 34. Preferred Destinations by outgoing students in 2009-10 (n=406)

S.N.	Name of the country	Number	Percentage
1	UK	196	48.30
2	USA	104	25.62
3	Australia	48	11.82
4	Canada	25	6.18
5	New Zealand	10	2.5
6	Finland	5	1.23
7	Norway	3	0.7
8	Denmark	2	0.4
9	Other*	13	3.2
Total		406	100

Source: Field Survey, 2009-10

*Note: Other countries included Europe (3 students), Japan, Cyprus, Israel, Netherlands, Ireland, and Germany (1 student each), country not mentioned (3 students), country not sure (1 student).

Table 34 shows that a total of 196 students (48.30 percent) preferred to migrate to the UK for further studies followed by the USA (25.6 percent), Australia (11.8 percent), Canada (6.18 percent), New Zealand (2.5 percent), Finland (1.23 percent), Norway (0.7 percent), Denmark (0.4 percent) and other (3.2 percent). The USA is still the most preferred destination for the Nepalese students. It is clear that primary data supported the secondary data in the case of the UK where the majority of students were inclined to go to the UK. Canada has been selected as the fourth destination. The table in the note shows that Japan is preferred in the Asian continent. Hence, majority of the students preferred the destinations like the UK, USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand because of Green Card / PR policy in the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand for the immigrant. Canada has become a new destination for Nepalese students. It is presented in a piechart below.

Figure 15. Motivation of the Nepalese students to go abroad (in percent)

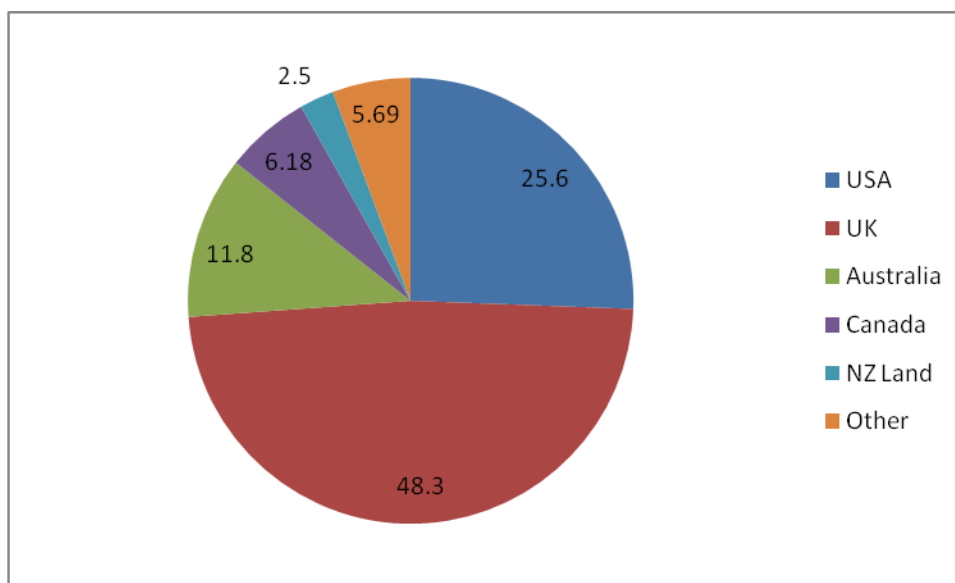


Figure 15 illustrates the number of students (in percent) planning to migrate to study in foreign countries. Although the USA is a dreamland of the Nepalese students for higher studies as well as employment opportunities, the UK attracted the majority of students (48 percent) in different areas in 2009-10. The pie-chart shows that the preferred destination to the USA is around 26 percent of potential students followed by Australia (12 percent).

Purpose of Migrating Abroad

Generally, there are two motives for migration namely economic (labour) and educational migration. Economic migration occurs when there is a wage difference between origin and destination as postulated by Todaro and Smith (2006). Educational migration, as the name suggests, is directly related to study abroad. Although the main purpose of student migration is to study in a foreign country, their hidden agenda might be earning in order to maintain their subsistence. Students, who go to foreign countries for studies on self-

finance, are compelled to work in order to further their education. Table 35 shows the purpose of student migration.

Table 35. Purpose of student migration

Purpose	Number	Percent
Study	325	80.4
Work	132	32.6
Study & Work	366	90.4

Source: Field Survey, 2009-10

Note: The percentages total more than 100 % due to multiple responses

Table 35 shows the motive for migration. A total of 325 (80.4 percent) students preferred to study rather than work whereas more than 90 percent of the respondents responded both study and work as motives for migration. However, 32.6 percent of outgoing students were only motivated to work. In other words, their intention was to work rather than to study. Students have to compulsorily get enrolled at colleges but their hidden agenda seems to be an economic motive.

According to the UK embassy in Kathmandu (as cited in the Himalayan Times) “five Nepali men who abused student visa to travel to the UK in order to work have been removed from the UK. The students were caught working illegally at a car wash in the town of Bury St Edmunds by the UK Boarder Agency officers. All the men had student visas and four of them were not studying. One man was studying but working much more than the permitted hour. UK Immigration Minister Damian Green was quoted as saying in the statement that attracting talented students from abroad is vital to the UK but we must clamp down on abuse and be more selective” (The Himalayan Times, February 4, 2011).

Comparative Analysis between Origin and Destination

In order to study educational migration, data were collected/generated from three types of students (respondents/participants). They were potential students, current students and returnee students. The survey questionnaires were distributed to the potential and current students but returnee students were interviewed in order to generate data. Hence, quantitative data were collected from the potential and current students. A comparison is made between potential and current students in table 36 below.

Table 36. Comparative analysis of major reasons for migration (percentage)

Potential students				Current students			
Push	%	Pull	%	Push	%	Pull	%
Lack of job opportunity	67.5	Job opportunity	69	Lack of job opportunity	95	Job opportunity	73.7
Lack of qua education	55.7	Quality education	82	Lack of quality education	58	Quality education	84
No choice of subjects	24	Choice of subjects offered	61	No choice of subjects	52.7	Choice of subject offered	73.7
Better educational performance	46	Edu. opportunity	80	Better educational performance	55	Edu. opportunity	89.5

Source: Field Survey 2008-2010. Note: qua: quality; edu: educational

Table 36 shows the comparison of main push- pull factors between potential and current students. The percentages shown in the table are based on the five point Likert scale of strongly agreed and agreed (combined). The majority of the potential and current students had more or less similar attitude on the causes of migration whether it is push or pull. The data match those ticked in the survey. For instances, both groups had more or less similar views on job opportunity (69 percent and 73.7 percent), quality education (82

and 84 percent) and lack of quality education (56 percent and 58 percent) for potential and current students respectively.

Around 56 percent of the potential students and 58 percent of the current students cited lack of quality education as main cause of migration. Potential and current students were pulled by educational opportunities (80 and 89.5 percent) and job opportunities (69 and 74 percent) and pushed by lack of job opportunities (67.5 and 95 percent). It was found that most of the current students viewed lack of job opportunities (95 percent) as main push factor of migration. The data, side by side, reveal that quality education and educational opportunities are other motivational factors for both groups of students. It is interesting to know that higher percentages of current students than potential students supported the abovementioned variables. The information showed true because the current students had their experiences whereas potential students expect and aspire in the future.

Relationship between Push and Pull Factors of Migration.

The research question two “*what are the causes of student migration to foreign countries for higher education and how these causes can be explained from the perspective of push-pull factors*” deals with the main causes of student migration. The causes of migration have been explained from the perspectives of push-pull factors. Similarly, social network factors (relatives/ friends abroad) also influence student mobility. Basically, push-pull and social networks are main theoretical frameworks of this study. Before conducting significant test, relationship between the push and pull factors (causes of student migration) are presented in tables 37 and 38 below. For example, there is a relationship between low quality education in Nepal and quality education in the

destination. It means students aspire to go to foreign countries because of low quality education in Nepal and to obtain quality education (globally accepted degrees) in foreign countries.

Table 37. Relationship between push and pull factors (n=407)

S.N	Variables	Low quality education	Quality Education	No lab, library	Facilities of lab, library	No choice subject	Choice subjects available	Few chances earning	Earning opportunities
1	Low qua. Education	1							
2	Quality Education	.146**	1						
3	No lab, library	.299**	.253*	1					
4	Facilities of lab, library	.140**	.318**	.321**	1				
5	No choice subject	.157**	.119*	.315**	.209**	1			
6	Choice subjects	.159**	.268**	.287**	.290**	.413**	1		
7	Few chances of earning	.200**	.088	.079	-.012	.035	.046	1	
8	Earning opportunities	.067	.037	.106*	.036	.060	.000	.379**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 37 shows the main push-pull factors that motivate the Nepalese students to go abroad. For example, the Pearson's correlation (r) of choices of subject available in the destination with no choice of subject available in Nepal stands at +. 41 which is moderate correlation. It means that there is an association between two variables because students plan to go to foreign countries due to the unavailability of their choices of subjects in Nepal. The results in the table show that few chances of earning in Nepal are positively associated with the earning opportunities abroad (+.38). Few chances of earning in Nepal stimulate them to migrate to foreign country for earning opportunities. Similarly, no lab, library facilities in Nepal and research facilities with scientific lab,

well-equipped library in destination are also associated with each other (+.32). These correlated statements are highly significant. It can be concluded that push and pull factors are correlated. Table 38 represents other push-pull factors of migration.

Table 38. Association with other factors of migration.

S.N. Variables	Friends/relatives have gone abroad	Relative/friends abroad support	No recreational facilities	Recreational facilities available
1. Friends/relatives have gone abroad	1			
2. Relatives/friends support abroad	.370** .000	1		
3. No recreational facilities inNepal	.205** .000	.077 .121	1	
4. Recreational facilities available in destination	.129** .009	.126* .011	.236** .000	1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 38 shows push-pull factor of other variables. Friends and relatives (social ties) also help in the migration process. In the table above, correlation between relatives/friends have already gone abroad and their support in the destination is positively associated with (r. 0.37) each other and significant which has been supported by the Wilcoxon test (table 41). Similarly, no recreational facilities available in Nepal are associated with (r. 0.23.6) recreational facilities available in the destination. The results are highly significant. It can be concluded that lack of recreational facilities in Nepal pushed students for the availability of such facilities in the destination.

The push-pull factors shown in table 37 and 38 are positively correlated. I have selected some of those positively related variables in order to test whether they are significant or not. The hypotheses have been developed in line with research question two in which causes of migration have been explained from the perspectives of push-pull and social network factors.

Test of Significance

Students go abroad due to different causes. The main causes are push and pull factors. The positively correlated figures in table 37 and 38 were chosen to test the hypotheses by employing the Kruskal Wallis (K-W) test, Wilcoxon test and Pearson's correlation test. The K-W test is a non-parametric alternative to the one-way analysis of variance F-test while the Wilcoxon test is a non-parametric alternative to the two-sample t-test. The research question two deals with the causes of student migration. So, the following hypotheses tests statistically help to draw conclusions.

Hypothesis 1:

Ho: There is no significant difference between male and female students in their perceptions towards push factors of migration.

H1: There is a significant difference between male and female students in their perceptions towards push factors of migration.

Test parameters:

Test statistics: K-W test (Because of the nature of population from which samples were drawn and variables expressed in ordinal form, this non-parametric or distribution free-test equivalent of one way analysis of variance F test is employed).

Alpha level: 95 %

Two –tailed test

Table 39. Push factors of migration.

Variables	Low quality education in Nepal	No lab, library and research facilities	No choice of subjects	Class disturbed/hartal	Few chances of earning	Parental income bears initial costs
Chi-Square	.462	.249	.308	1.692	.394	.920
Asymp.Sig	.497	.618	.579	.193	.530	.337

Note: Lab: Research laboratory

Table 39 shows the Kruskal Wallis test on potential male and female students regarding their perceptions towards causes (push factors) and migration behaviour. It is clear from the table that all variables are statistically insignificant at 0.05 significant level. In other words, it failed to reject the null hypothesis at 0.05 significant level. This means that respondents who were male were not different from those who were female in their perceptions regarding the causes of migration. Both male and female students expressed similar responses to go abroad. For example, both groups (male/female) accepted that there was low quality education in Nepal so they decided to go abroad for quality education in the destination. (Annex 8 for mean rank between male and female).

It was found that potential students cited push factors as main reasons for migration. Hence, the results support Lee's (1965) push-pull model which states that students decided to move because of push factors of migration like low quality education, low earning opportunities, unavailability of their choice of subjects, advanced research facilities and library and political instability leading to Hartal, bandha and strike as a result of which classes are frequently disturbed.

Hypothesis 2:

Ho: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of ethnic students towards pull factors of migration.

H1: There is a significant difference in the perceptions of ethnic students towards pull factors of migration.

Test Parameters

Test statistics: K-W test (Because of the nature of population from which samples were drawn and variables expressed in ordinal form, this non-parametric or distribution free-test equivalent of one way analysis of variance F test is employed).

Alpha level: 95 %

Two –tailed test.

Table 40. Pull factors of migration.

Variables	Job opportunities available	Educational opportunities	Quality education	Facilities of lab, research, lib, scholarship	Choice subjects available
Chi-Square	5.390	3.786	3.268	8.187	3.020
Asymp. Sig.	.250	.436	.514	.085	.554

Note: Lab: Research Laboratory. Lib: Library

Table 40 shows pull factors of student mobility based on ethnicity. The results are not statistically significant at 0.05 level. In other words, it failed to reject the null hypothesis at 0.05. Therefore, there is no significant difference of responses among the Brahmin, Chhetree, Newar, Dalit and other ethnic students regarding the pull factors of migration. All ethnic groups of students viewed similar responses because mean rank of the Brahmin, Chhetree and Newar on job opportunities in the destination is equal

(Annex-9). Students of these groups were found to have same attitude on the pull factors of migration. For example, all ethnic potential students stated education-related and economic-related variables as main attraction of the destination. It was found that students were attracted (pulled) by different causes like quality education, educational opportunities, job opportunities, educational facilities (lab, research, library, scholarship) and different disciplines. Hence, the results support Lee's (1965) push-pull model.

Hypothesis 3:

H0: Social network factors have no influence on migration process.

H1: Social network factors have influence on migration process.

Test Parameters

Test statistics: Wilcoxon (Because of the nature of population from which samples were drawn and variables expressed in ordinal form, this non parametric test is employed for two correlated samples).

Alpha level: 95 %

Two –tailed test.

Table 41. Social network factor and migration

	Relatives/families/ friends have gone abroad - Relatives/ families/ friends would support in the destinations
Z	-7.099 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Based on positive ranks. b Based on negative ranks.

Table 41 shows social network factor and its influence on migration. The table shows that the Z score is -7.099 and the result is significant at 0.05 level. In other words, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0.05 level of significant. It can be concluded that since relatives,

families and friends have gone abroad, they support in the destination. In other words, social network factors facilitate/ influence in the migration process (Annex-10).

Generally, potential students' relatives and friends, who have already gone to foreign country, encourage students to leave the country for destination. Friends are very strong connection among them. For example, the current students in their survey in the USA viewed that their friends rather than relatives supported them. If a student's class mate decides to go abroad, he/she is highly likely to migrate to study. In this case, horizontal advice (friends/ peers) is more effective than vertical advice (parents/ teachers). It was found that social capital helped and facilitated the migration tendency of students. Besides push and pull factors, student migration can be seen as a function of network factor. Hence, the results support the social network theory in linking sending and receiving societies, Massey, 1997, 1998 (as cited in Hollifield, 2008, p. 194).

Hypothesis: 4.

H₀: There is no significant relation between income and migration

H₁: There is a significant relation between income and migration.

Test Parameters

Test statistics: Karl Pearson's correlation coefficient (It is employed to measure the relationship between two variables).

Alpha level: 95 %

Two –tailed test.

Table 42. Relationship between parental income and migration. (n=406)

S.N.	Variables	Migration	Parental income
1	Migration	1	
2	Parental income	-.010	.846

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 42 shows the association between planning to migrate to foreign countries and parental income. As hypothesized, there is no positive relation between planning to migrate and parental income. In other words, it failed to reject the null hypothesis at 0.05 significant level. Therefore, there is no significant relation between parental income and migration tendency of the potential students.

It was found that income was not a determinant factor of migration even students of low and middle income families were also motivated to go abroad. Hence, the result did not support Tuckman's (1970) finding "an increase in family income (Y) should increase out-migration" in the context of Nepalese student migration.

Hypothesis 5:

H₀: There is no significant difference between age and migration behaviour.

H₁: There is a significant difference between age and migration behavior.

Test Parameters

Test statistics: K.W. test. (Because of the nature of population from which samples were drawn and variables expressed in ordinal form, this non-parametric or distribution free-test equivalent of one way analysis of variance F test is employed).

Alpha level: 95 %

Two –tailed test.

Table. 43. Difference between age and migration

Age brackets	No	Percent
18-21	271	66.6
22-25	96	23.6
26-29	18	4.4
30 and above	22	5.4
Total	407	100
Chi-Square 12.184		
Asymp. Sig. .007		

Table 43 shows the age groups, number of students, percent and the significant K-W test. The data reveal that two third of the students (66.6 %), who were from the age group of 18-21, planned to migrate to study. The lowest percentage (4.4) was from 26-29 years of age. The result indicates that there is an inverse relationship between age and migration tendency. The relationship between age and migration propensity is statistically significant at 0.05. In other words, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0.05. Therefore, there are significant differences between age and migration tendency. It means that migration tendency differs as age factor differs. Student migration is the result of an investment function of demand. Theoretically, if they migrate to foreign countries in order to invest in human capital at the earlier age, they can reap the return (benefits) longer time associated with migration, Becker, 1964 (as cited in Heuer, 2004). So, age is consistent with human capital theory since migration like education is also an investment in human capital. It was found that as age of student increases, migration decreases. In the table above, students, who were between the ages of 18-21, preferred to migrate more than students who were between the ages of 22-25 and above (Annex-11).

Hypothesis: 6.

H0: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of students' age towards causes of migration.

H1: There is a significant difference in the perceptions of students' age towards causes of migration.

Test Parameters

Test statistics: K-W. test.(Because of the nature of population from which samples were drawn and variables expressed in ordinal form, this non- parametric or distribution free-test equivalent of one way analysis of variance F test is employed).

Alpha level: 95 %

Two –tailed test.

Table 44. Causes of student migration on the basis of age factor.

Variables	Low quality education	Low earning	Job oppo. in the destination	Educational oppo. in destination	Work and study abroad
Chi-Sq.	5.334	.470	1.731	1.076	3.451
Asy.Sig.	.149	.925	.630	.783	.327

Note: Oppo: Opportunity

Table 44 shows the causes of migration based on age. All the variables are not statistically significant at 0.05 level. In other words, it failed to reject the null hypothesis at 0.05 significant level. Therefore, there are no significant differences between the age of different age brackets meaning respondents of the age groups of 18-21 are not different from the age groups of 22-25; 26-29; and 30 above in terms of causes of migration. In other words, students within the age brackets expressed similar responses. The similar

views of the age groups are proved by the mean rank of 211.05 and 211.67 of the age groups between 22-25, and 26-29. It was found that all age groups of students had similar attitudes towards the causes of migration.

From the significant test, it can be concluded that push pull and social network factors influence migration. The major reasons for migration such as few chances of earning opportunities and low quality education (push) in the origin and earning and educational opportunities (pull) in the destination were found to be statistically insignificant (0.05) meaning gender and ethnic groups showed similar responses. For example, they planned to go to foreign countries because of low quality education and low earning opportunities in the origin and quality education (globally accepted degrees) and job opportunities in the destination. Therefore, push pull theory support these findings.

Regarding the social capital, relatives and friends support in the migration process. So, finding supported the social network theory. There was an inverse relation between age and migration and all age groups expressed similar responses on the causes of migration. For example, all age groups of students preferred to work and study in the destination as main motivational factor of migration. Finally, higher parental income was not a determinant factor of migration.

t test (Independent Sample Test)

A comparative t-test was conducted between the potential students (Nepal) and current students (abroad). The data were analyzed by grouping 1 for Nepal and 2 for abroad (USA/UK/ Australia). The main purpose of this test was to know mean differences between two samples of Nepal and abroad. The mean scores of the variables between

Nepal and abroad are presented with a view to comparing each other. The ranges of mean scores are interpreted as strongly agree 1 -1.7; agree, 1.8-2.5; undecided 2.6-3.4; disagree 3.5-4.2; strongly disagree 4.3-5 (Belbase, 1981, p.47).

Education-Related Push Factors between Potential and Current Students

Nepalese students leave the country because of push factors that are linked with education in the origin. In order to know the mean differences, mean, and significant, the education-related push factors were compared between the potential and current students.

The responses by the potential and current students are presented in table 45 below.

Table. 45. Comparative analysis of education-related push factors

Causes of migration		n	Mean	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Differenc
Low quality education.	Nepal	406	2.43	-1.721	442	.086	-.308
	Abroad	38	2.74	-1.529	42.374	.134	-.308
Better academic performance	Nepal	405	2.73	.105	441	.917	.018
	Abroad	38	2.71	.097	43.073	.923	.018
High edu. expectation aspiration	Nepal	406	2.32	-1.629	442	.104	-.256
	Abroad	38	2.58	-1.307	41.158	.199	-.256
No choice subjects	Nepal	406	3.50	3.064	442	.002	.634
	Abroad	38	2.87	3.311	45.767	.002	.634
No lab, equip, library	Nepal	406	2.80	-.808	442	.420	-.173
	Abroad	38	2.97	-.821	44.518	.416	-.173
Class disturbed	Nepal	406	2.02	.259	442	.796	.044
	Abroad	38	1.97	.235	42.652	.815	.044
Discrimination against enrolment, scholarship	Nepal	405	2.86	1.681	441	.093	.338
	Abroad	38	2.53	1.534	42.753	.132	.338
Fully depend on Edu.consultancy.	Nepal	405	3.31	7.734	441	.000	1.443
	Abroad	38	1.87	8.936	47.425	.000	1.443

Table 45 shows mean, mean differences and significant test between the respondents of potential and current students. The data presented in the table reveal that the mean values differ from 1.87 to 3.31 on fully depend on educational consultancy and

from 2.71 to 2.73 on better academic performances of the students so the mean differences are 1.443 and .018 respectively. So, students' views of dependence on educational consultancy differed between current and potential students but potential and current students expressed similar responses on their better academic performances. Regarding the significant value, low quality education, better academic performances, high expectation and aspiration, no laboratory equipment, library, class disturbances, and discrimination against scholarship are not statistically significant since all p values are more than 0.05 at 95 percent confidence level. It means that there are no significant differences of perception of current and potential students. In other words, they had similar views on the causes of student migration. However, no choice of subjects available in Nepal (0.05 at 95 percent confidence level and mean difference .634) and fully depend on educational consultancy (0.05 at 95 percent confidence level and mean difference 1.443) are statistically significant. meaning there are differences of responses between current and potential students on those two statements. Hence, the t test results confirmed that the motives for going abroad seemed to be similarity between the two groups and there has been no significant difference in the mean between the two groups.

Economic-Related Push Factors between Current and Potential Students.

Students are pushed by economic status of the parents and low chances of employment. The data presented in table 46 reveal the causes of migration relating to economic factors.

Table 46. Comparative analysis of economic related push factors

Economic related push-factors		n	Mean	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Low chances of earning in Nepal	Nepal	406	2.23	2.598	442	.010	.468
	Abroad	38	1.76	3.384	51.2	.001	.468
Parents bear all expenditure	Nepal	406	3.09	-3.834	442	.000	-.780
	Abroad	38	3.87	-3.930	44.6	.000	-.780
Increase parental income not determinant	Nepal	406	2.67	4.030	442	.000	.746
	Abroad	38	1.92	5.192	50.8	.000	.746

Table 46 shows the economic-related push factors of migration. The results indicate that current students supported low chances of earning in Nepal and an increase in family income will not result in migration because it has lowest mean (1.76 and 1.92 respectively). In other words, unlike potential students, current students fully supported these economic factors. Regarding the “parents bear all expenditure”, the current students did not support (mean 3.87 falls under disagree) this statement because they work and study side by side. Generally, parents tend to spend the educational costs (air fare, one semester tuition fees and pocket expenses) for six months. After six months onward, students have to work in order to continue their education. The previous research states that an increase in parental income leads to migration. The survey results confirmed that higher parental income did not result in migration. For instance, students of middle income families were also planning to go abroad. The table shows that all statements are statistically significant meaning the two groups of students, therefore, have significant differences of perception on economic factors of migration.

Political, Cultural and Social Network Factor of Migration

In addition to study and work, there are other causes of student mobility. These factors have also influenced on mobility of students. Table 47 illustrates other causes of migration.

Table 47. Political, cultural and social network factors

Statements		n	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean Difference
Political instability not deciding factor	Nepal	406	3.20	-1.015	442	.311	-.217
	Abroad	38	3.42	-1.010	44.115	.318	-.217
Nepal low devt. and traditional culture	Nepal	406	2.98	-2.224	442	.027	-.465
	Abroad	38	3.45	-2.201	44.032	.033	-.465
All friends have gone abroad	Nepal	405	3.19	.271	441	.787	.056
	Abroad	38	3.13	.273	44.340	.786	.056
No recreational facilities in Nepal	Nepal	405	2.92	1.293	441	.197	.261
	Abroad	38	2.66	1.209	43.116	.233	.261

Table 47 shows mean, mean differences and significant values of other push factors of migration. The mean scores for all variables are almost convergent. For example, the statement “All friends have gone abroad” has mean value of 3.13 and 3.19 for abroad and Nepal respectively.

However, both groups of students (Nepal and abroad) have neither agreed nor disagreed (undecided) the statements in the interpretation of the five point Likert scale. It indicates that current and potential students followed their friends who have already migrated. During qualitative interview, one of the participants viewed that he was planning to go to the UK because his college-mate has already left Nepal for the same destination. It is a kind of psychological phenomenon. In other words, both groups of students supported each others' view since the values are not statistically significant.

The negative statement “political instability is not a deciding factor” has a mean of 3.20 and 3.42 in the case of Nepal and abroad respectively. Both groups supported that political instability was not a deciding factor for student migration. The results clearly show that both groups of students have similar responses. For example, one of the main reasons for migration is social network factors in which relatives/friends, who have already gone abroad, help in the process of migration. The potential and current students cited social networks as major reason for their mobility. However, the result of “Nepal low development and traditional culture” shows statistically significant value which indicates that there are differences of responses.

Education-Related Pull Factors of Migration

Students are motivated to go to foreign countries for different opportunities. The negative factors (push) caused them to look for foreign countries for educational opportunities. Table 48 shows different pull factors that are directly related to higher education.

Table 48. Education-related pull factors of migration

Pull factors		n	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean Differen ces
Career opportunity	Nepal	404	1.87	-.380	440	.704	-.050
	Abroad	38	1.92	-.317	41.594	.753	-.050
Educational opportunity	Nepal	404	1.92	.361	440	.718	.052
	Abroad	38	1.87	.333	42.917	.741	.052
Choice subjects	Nepal	404	2.42	2.121	440	.034	.368
	Abroad	38	2.05	2.252	45.428	.029	.368
Quality edu. attracted	Nepal	405	1.98	.028	441	.978	.004
	Abroad	38	1.97	.024	42.262	.981	.004
Quality education did not attract	Nepal	405	3.64	-1.034	441	.302	-.198
	Abroad	38	3.84	-1.209	47.747	.233	-.198
Facilities of research, laboratory	Nepal	405	2.06	-.150	441	.881	-.022
	Abroad	38	2.08	-.110	40.312	.913	-.022

Table 48 shows the mean, mean differences and significant values of education-related pull factors of migration. Two groups of students' mean score for all pull variables is nearly equal meaning students studying in the foreign countries and students planning to leave Nepal have similar perception on those variables. As in the table above, potential students (Nepal) and current students (abroad) have exactly expressed same views on quality education. It is interesting to see that mean scores of quality education for the responses of potential and current students stand at 1.98 and 1.97 respectively and mean difference .004. The data visibly clarify that both groups of students have common responses leading to the fact that foreign countries attracted them for quality education

(one of the main reasons for migration). Furthermore, they supported this cause of student mobility since the Likert scale “agree” falls on the range of 1.8 – 2.5.

Educational and career opportunities show the mean values being very close to each other. This becomes clear from the response of both groups of students –potential and current-that attribute the tendency for growing migration to career and educational opportunities. Its mean difference is very nominal. Hence, all the mean differences shown in table vividly testify that the attitudinal test through the Likert scale seemed similarity between already migrated students (current) and motivated students (potential) to migrate to different countries. All statements except “choice subject available” are not statistically significant. It indicates respondents with career opportunities, educational opportunities, quality education, and facilities of laboratory, research, library and scholarship are not different in terms of educational migration. Both groups demonstrated similar views. The choice of subject available is statistically significant (0.05) meaning differences of responses. It means that potential and current students had no similar view on this statement.

Economic-Related Pull Factors of Migration

In addition to educational factors, student migration is also linked with economic motives. Students plan to go to foreign countries with a view to earning for continuing their education. The economic-related pull factors are presented in table 49 below.

Table 49. Economic-related pull factors of migration

Eco-related pull factors		n	Mean	t	df	Sig.2-tailed	Mean Differen
Job opportunity	Nepal	405	2.24	-1.131	441	.259	-.182
	Abroad	38	2.42	-1.129	44.204	.265	-.182
Job opportunity did not attract	Nepal	405	2.21	-2.989	441	.003	-.498
	Abroad	38	2.71	-2.392	41.144	.021	-.498
Education and employment	Nepal	405	1.66	-7.684	441	.000	-1.051
	Abroad	38	2.71	-5.372	39.934	.000	-1.051
Earning on student visa	Nepal	405	3.23	-1.969	441	.050	-.402
	Abroad	38	3.63	-1.858	43.257	.070	-.402

The economic-related statements (variables) are summarized in table 49. The mean values, mean differences, and significant values between Nepal and abroad are shown in the table. The mean score of job opportunities between Nepal and abroad stands at 2.24 and 2.42 respectively and mean difference -.182. It means both groups of respondents have almost ticked similar questionnaires. Regarding work and study, potential students strongly supported that they wanted to go abroad for earning and learning. The potential students fully accepted twin motives (education and earning) as a main reason for migration. The mean score for this is 1.66 which they strongly agreed whereas the current students neither agreed nor disagreed because mean value is 2.71. The data show that ‘earning on student visa’ has a mean of 3.23 and 3.63 for Nepal and abroad respectively meaning neutral and disagreed in the interpretation of the Likert scale. This indicated that they did not intend to earn in the name of education.

Education and employment as main reason for migration carry higher mean differences than job opportunities which have lower mean differences. Looking at the significant test, all variables except job opportunities are statistically significant. It is

obvious that there are differences of opinion between potential and current students. For example, the majority of students in the origin accepted that they were motivated to go abroad for two reasons: education and earning which is statistically significant meaning perception of current students did not match with potential students.

There is a close relation between study and work. Students work in order to further their study. Similarly, they study in order to develop human capital thereby leading to higher income from education (investment). Hence, work is inevitable to those students who come from a middle income family like ours. Earning and learning play an important role in student migration. These two factors have stimulated both groups of students to migrate to study abroad. Nevertheless, job opportunities available is not statistically significant meaning there is no difference of responses between potential and current students. Table 50 reveals other pull factors of migration.

Table 50. Other pull factors of migration.

Other pull factors		n	Mean	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Relatives support	Nepal	405	2.68	-4.476	441	.000	-.874
	Abroad	38	3.55	-4.543	44.506	.000	-.874
Free democratic society	Nepal	405	2.60	-2.028	441	.043	-.374
	Abroad	38	2.97	-1.961	43.653	.056	-.374
The Western society attracted	Nepal	405	2.98	1.334	441	.183	.246
	Abroad	38	2.74	1.177	42.290	.246	.246
Relative did not support	Nepal	404	3.58	1.907	440	.057	.371
	Abroad	38	3.21	1.496	40.943	.142	.371

Table 50 shows mean, mean difference and significant value of other causes of student migration. The mean scores of relatives' support and free democratic society indicate that potential and current students' views differed since it is significant (0.05).

Similarly, the current students remained undecided on “the Western society, safety” (mean 2.74), and “relatives/ peers did not support” (mean 3.21). From the interpretation of the Likert scale, the current students neither supported nor rejected these statements. The mean difference shown in the table for the attraction of the Western society is .246 which is very nominal differences meaning both groups of students have similar responses. In other words, it is not statistically significant (0.05 level) which proves that there are no differences of perception between current and potential students. Both groups of students supported the Western society in the destination.

From the t test analysis, mean and mean differences indicated that potential and current students had same responses relating to causes of migration (for example, mean value for quality education in foreign countries is 1.97 and 1.98 for current and potential student respectively and mean difference for both group is .004). The t test results confirmed that the major causes of migration lead to the outflow of potential and current students. Finally, the results also showed that both groups of students demonstrated their similar views on education-related push-pull factors. So, findings were supported by push-pull model.

Chapter Summary

This chapter, analyzing push-pull factors, discussed the causes of Nepalese student migration. Push factors in the Nepalese context included lack of quality education, employment opportunities, and career opportunities, choices of subject and modern lab, library and research facilities. Furthermore, political instability, Bandha/Hartal, and parental income are other push factors. Similarly, pull factors included quality and globally accepted degrees, earning opportunities, education and earning opportunities,

career opportunities, availability of choices of subject, support from relatives and friends abroad, quality of life, and scientific laboratory and research facilities.

From the descriptive analysis, it was found that number of female students (37.2 percent) is on the rise, potential students from the Brahmin community hold the first position (around 45 percent) sending students to foreign countries, two third of the respondents represented from 18-21 age groups, more than 41 percent of the students were from management faculty, and there was an inverse relation between parental level of education and migration. The USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand and Canada are the most preferred destinations to Nepalese students. More than 90 percent of the potential students favoured work and study abroad.

It was found from the significant test that push-pull factors and social capital influenced migration. Social network factor and migration and age and migration behaviour were found significant at 0.05 level. Similarly, gender and ethnic students demonstrated similar responses. In other words, there was no significant difference between male, female and ethnic students in their perceptions towards push and pull factors of migration (insignificant at 0.05). Migration tendency differed with age so there was an inverse relation between age and migration. All age groups had similar attitudes towards the causes of migration (insignificant at 0.05) and income was not a determinant factor of migration. The t-test results show that both groups of students cited push and pull factors as main causes of migration. To sum up, the findings supported push pull theory and social network theory. The next chapter discusses the expectations and aspirations of potential, current and returnee students.

CHAPTER VI

EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS, ASPIRATIONS AND PERCEPTION OF
POTENTIAL, CURRENT AND RETURNEE STUDENTS

Chapter five analyzed the causes of student migration and mainly focused on push-pull factors which are external forces. But, personal characteristics of the students also influence their intention to go abroad such as motivation, aspirations and expectations. Li and Bray (2007, p. 794) have explained personal characteristics which include socio-economic status, academic ability, gender, age, motivation, and aspirations.

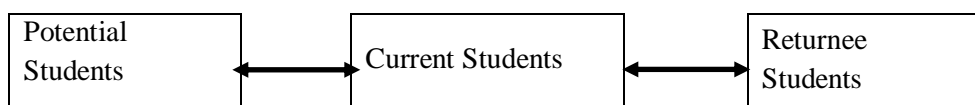
This chapter, mainly based on qualitative research, addresses the expectations, aspirations and perception of student migration to foreign countries. The purpose related to this chapter is to explore the expectations, aspirations and perceptions of the potential, current and, returnee students. The research question three reads as “*How do potential, current and returnee students perceive their educational aspirations, expectations and perception of going abroad for higher education?*” For this, data were generated by the survey research (open ended questions) and in-depth semi-structured interviews with potential, current and returnee students.

Although some studies use the words aspirations and expectations interchangeably, Yowell, 2002 (as cited in Feuer, 2009) has defined aspirations as an individual’s hopes or dreams for the future, while expectations are an individual’s understanding of what is most likely to happen in the future. Expectations are sometimes distinguished from aspirations in theory, with the former stipulated to refer

to realistic appraisal rather than idealistic goals, nonetheless, almost all empirical research has utilized the same straight-forward operationalization for both concepts (Morgan,2006). Therefore, the twin words indicate optimistic future plans of the migrant students.

The survey questions (open ended) read as “*What are your aspirations in your life in the context of going abroad for higher education?*” and “*What are your expectations from higher education abroad?*” Similarly, in the five point Likert Scale, the survey question such as “My expectations and aspirations are very high in connection with the educational migration” was asked for their agreement or neutral or disagreement. In this chapter, both expectations and aspirations are used interchangeably. However, in some specific theme, it is discussed separately. Firstly, aspirations and expectations of the potential students, secondly of the current students, thirdly of the returnee’ students and lastly their perception and others’ views of returnee were separately analyzed. Similarly, open-ended questions of the survey related to aspirations and expectations were also analyzed. Therefore, data taken from an in-depth interview and responses by the students through open ended answers have been analyzed by blending them. Figure 16 shows the status of students.

Figure 16. Status of students



Regarding the student migration, students were divided into three categories such as potential, current and returnee students. Before analyzing the views of three categories of students separately, potential students’ major expectations and aspirations expressed in the open-ended answers of the survey are presented in the table below.

Table 51. Expectations and aspirations of potential students

Areas of the themes	Aspirations	Expectations
Twin motives	- Learning and earning	- Learning and earning
Educational - motive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Quality / practical education - International Degree - Apply knowledge/experiences in Nepal - Broad subject areas - Educational opportunity - To broaden horizon of knowledge - Research opportunities - To explore the world - To study a chosen field - To get higher scores - Self-dependent - To know hidden potentialities - Want to be a software engineer - Improvement in English - To complete degree and earning - Good and friendly educational environment - New knowledge (cannot be found in Nepal) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Quality education - International Degree - Peaceful study (no strike) - To show Nepalese potential - Confidence build up - Increase knowledge and expand horizon - Compete with international students - Specialization in any subject - Learning modern technology - Improve quality education in Nepal - Disseminate knowledge in home country - Investment in human capital - Interaction with international students - To be skilled in a particular field - To be a well- educated person - Proud of degree - English improvement

Economic-motive	- Employment opportunities	- Job opportunities
	- Career opportunities	- High standard of living
		- Career development
		- To see the development
Social-motive	- Independent life/ free society	- Prestige
	- Prestige	
	- Fulfill parents' dream	
	- Quality of life/ High living standard	
Cultural-motive	- To know foreign culture and tradition	- To know foreign culture
Others	- New experiences	- Bright future/secured life
	- Return to native country	- PR/Green card
	- To do something for Nepal	- Personality development
	- Green card/PR	- To be a great person
	- Good environment	- Name and fame
	- To be a successful	- Positive thinking/responses
	- To be a great man	- Fulfill my desires/aim
	- Freedom	- To be successful in life
	- To face challenges	- Fulfillment of dreams
	- Personality development	
	- Self-confident	
New theme	- Craze for going abroad	

Source: Researcher's creation

Table 51 shows the aspirations and expectations of potential students who expressed in the open-ended questions of the survey. Aspirations and expectations carried maximum number of education-related themes. It denotes that they were highly

motivated to further their education. The data that the students expressed on quality education and learning and earning opportunities supported the quantitative data.

The table shows that many themes emerged. Some of the themes are common in both aspirations and expectations such as earning and learning, quality education, and employment opportunities. However, some of the unique themes expressed by students are: explore the world, know hidden potentialities, new experiences, become a great man, fulfill parents' dream, do something for Nepal, and positive thinking/responses. It seemed that potential students expressed high aspirations like exploring the world and their hidden potentialities and wanted to feel new experiences in foreign countries. Furthermore, they expressed their essence to return to Nepal and serve the motherland. The main objective of education is positive thinking which they expected from foreign learning. Hence, from the above table, two things emerged: positive aspirations and expectations (Possible self theory) and high aspirations and expectations.

A new theme "*Craze for going abroad*" emerged from the qualitative interviews that students were found to be on a whim or craze for going to foreign countries. Due to different circumstances like political, economical, educational and psychological effects, students showed their behavior to go abroad. The new theme promoted their educational aspirations further. The UK bound students are example in this case (see case study7).

Educational Aspirations and Expectations of Potential Students

Potential students have educational expectations and aspirations in the context of going abroad. They prefer to go to foreign countries in the hope of securing better future and career opportunities such as globally accepted degrees, employment opportunities and

quality of life. Some of the students who were planning to go abroad said that their high aspirations and expectations to go abroad resulted in the migration trend.

Prabhakar Gajurel said, *“I am very optimistic about the future. My expectations and aspirations, to some extent influenced by my parents, are to get a degree in the foreign country”* (Field Note, August, 10, 2008).

This statement clearly reflects the educational expectations and aspirations with optimistic future plan. His expectation and aspiration were limited to getting a degree from foreign country. Prabhakar viewed that he was influenced by his parents to get a foreign degree. In reality, foreign degree is saleable in Nepal. In this context, Brooks and Waters (2011, p. 12) contended that “in this growing market, internationally-recognized qualifications assume an important role”. In the same way, Bourdieu’s cultural capital can be conceptualized from an overseas education.

Similar view has been expressed by Binita Shrestha of Kathmandu. Her aspiration is to get an academic qualification from foreign university expecting better future. Both of the participants expected and aspired to go to foreign country for educational degree. Rameshwor Choudhary of Mahottari viewed that;

“I expect I would educate my family and my aspiration is to go to Australia”(Field Note, May 19, 2009).

This statement indicates that Rameshwor’s aspiration is to go to Australia and educate his family. During the interview, he was very serious in order to educate his family. However, some of the respondents’ aspirations and expectations were different from each other. For example, Anuradha K.C. stated *“My expectation is to get employment*

(earning) in the UK and aspirations are study and earning in the same country” (Field Note, May 19, 2009).

Anuradha’s view is very common for every migrant student. She distinguished between expectation and aspiration. She accorded first priority to earning (economic motive) which is very common for every Nepalese student. It is said that education has become a ticket to go abroad and real purpose has been earning. Her aspiration is stimulated by the twin objectives of studying and earning. In the same way, Santosh Shrestha of Gorkha expressed,

“I am planning to migrate to the UK because of liberal policy of the UK government under the Tier-4 programme. My expectation is practical use of learning from higher education and aspiration in the beginning was to be a pilot but now to be a business manager. Parents and peer on the one hand and media and educational consultancies on the other were influential factors for me” (Field Note, May 19, 2009).

Santosh has raised four themes regarding the mobility. Firstly, the policy of the UK government was liberal due to tier-4 programme in which visa was simplified for student. So, he was planning to go to the UK. Secondly, his expectation was to apply the knowledge that he gains in foreign country. Mostly, education is imparted in Nepal theoretically. So, in the open ended question, the majority of the students have cited the importance of practical education. Thirdly, he wants to be a business manager. This is the age of business and more than half of prospective students in the survey were from business/management faculty. Lastly, his influential factors were not only parents but also peers, media and ECs. The buorgeoining educational consultancies inspired him to go abroad. In this connection, Brooks and Waters (2011 p. 8) view ‘young people are

undoubtedly caught up in the continual circulation of global culture through the media, movies, fashion and the internet”.

Students’ motivation to go to foreign countries meant for research facilities and choices of subjects which are not available in Nepal. For example, Amar Shiwakoti of Dolkha was interested in research and he wanted to strengthen his research capability. After the US visa was issued to him, he was very happy and said:

“My aspiration is that I would be involved in a pharmacy and establish separate entity in the USA. So far my expectation is concerned, I would like to be attached with a Professor in the beginning and continue my research” (Field Note, August 01, 2009).

Amar is very interested in research relating to pharmacy science. He wants to establish a separate entity in foreign country. As discussed in the previous chapter, many students have cited research facilities as main cause of migration. In Nepal, there is no such facilities so many talented and the best students have been settled in the USA and involved in the research groups. In this case, push-pull factor supports his view.

Ananda Acharya of Hetauda was also interested in Pharmacy. He was very happy because he was granted visa after he had been denied for the first time. He planned to go to the USA for a reputed degree. His aspiration is to graduate in pharmacy and come back to Nepal to work as a clinical pharmacist. About the expectations from higher education, he replied that he wanted to be unique from other people. The aforementioned expressions of some of the prospective students on aspirations and expectations have given some reflections of the essences of motivation. Hence, the qualitative data support the push-pull model and links with the possible selves theory. Thematically, students’ views have been interpreted below.

Aspiration for Higher Education (Quality Education)

Education-related aspirations include mobility of students in foreign universities in order to get higher education. They aspire to have globally recognized foreign degrees abroad. Before migrating to study abroad, students make plans and aspirations for what they will do in the destinations. They dream of better future, become optimistic as a result of which their motivational behavior results in the migratory trends. Since students' socio-economic status, gender, academic performances, parental expectations shape their aspirations, most of the students have expressed education-related aspirations. For instance, the majority of the students in the survey expressed that their expectations and aspirations were very high (rated strongly agree and agree in the Likert scale). Their expressions indicate the strong desire of the students to migrate to study in foreign countries. The total themes that the students expressed their aspirations were sixty three which was thematically divided into six groups. They were educational, economic, social, political, career opportunities, education and earning. In addition to these, there were other aspirations as well. One student aspired to be a competitive in the world market.

The aspiring students cited education related aspirations such as quality education, globally recognized degree, practical education, higher education, and application of higher education, skill development and return to Nepal, education-friendly environment, scholarship, reputed university and advanced research facilities. They expressed twenty seven such types of education- related aspirations that were directly related to further their education. Aspirations related to quality education were expressed by the majority of the students. Many students migrate to study in foreign countries for the sake of quality education. It seemed that globally recognized degree at the reputed

universities equipped with advanced research facilities with scholarship led to high aspiration of the motivated students.

One of the participants said, *“My educational aspiration is to go to foreign countries to get enrolled at the best university and get a degree which is saleable in the global market”*. He linked quality education with overseas degree which is saleable. Now a days, best company demands candidate with an overseas qualification. According to Waters, 2008 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011 p. 65), for the majority of students, a university degree is the ultimate goal.

Aspiration for Earning and learning

Learning and earning- twin objectives of students- have gathered more responses from qualitative interview and open-ended question. Nepalese students aspire to have learning and earning in the foreign countries. It is also called work to study migration. Some of the students in the survey expressed both education and earning as their aspirations. They had strong desire to continue their education with earning side by side. Learning and earning are very common to most of the migrant students since they pay for tuition fees and maintain their expenditure by working abroad.

One of the participants clearly stated;

“I would not have thought of migrating to study abroad if earning opportunities were not available there so my aspirations are first earning and then learning”. This statement indicates that s/he aspires to earn and learning as main aspiration. Nevertheless, first priority has been given to earning rather than learning. Students are motivated by pull factor since earning and learning opportunities are available in the destination. In this connection, Findlay et al.2006 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011,p. 85) argue that

mobility cultures increasingly shape the motivations, aspirations and behaviours of students, encouraging many to experience foreign places through travel and for study or work reasons. Such values are culturally derived.

Aspiration for Career Opportunities

Career opportunities indicate future prospects for higher education followed by employment opportunities and a qualitative person. Students' aspirations vary under career opportunities like secured future, quality of life, to be a successful and qualitative person. A suitable good job after completion of their education was the aspirations that the potential students expressed before going abroad. For example, one of the participants said;

“My main aspiration for going abroad is career opportunities in the destination”. This view reflects aspiration of a potential student who is planning to go abroad. It is also called “career oriented “motives (Brooks & Waters, 2011,p.84). The interpretation of her/his statement is directly related to improving future employment prospective, and better education.

Aspiration for Social Capital

Social factors influence students' motivation to migrate to study. Students want to know about the country, culture, society, to make friends, mixed with different people, sharing experiences, to have prestige and good respect. Similarly, they want to see advanced society of the destination. They aspire to have their relatives abroad in order to connect social ties. Other aspirations that they expressed in an open-ended question in the survey included good political condition, to do something for the country, fulfill parents' dream, to face challenges, want to migrate for (PR/Green card), to be a great man, and fulfilling

dream into reality. One of the students replied; “*I aspire to go to foreign country to support my family*”. This statement is linked with supporting the family in the origin by earning in foreign country. Students planned to go abroad in search of earning rather than learning.

Aspiration for Economic Motive

Potential students had strong desire to earn in the foreign countries. The aspiring /aspirant students expressed earning opportunities, better living standard, to get job in Nepal after completion of degree abroad, support family, save money and to be a businessman as their aspirations. Economic motive was the main reason for their aspiration since most of the students stated job opportunities (earning) as their second priority after quality education. It indicates that education related aspiration was the dominant one. Hence, the economic-related aspirations supported the economic-based theory of migration. One of the potential students expressed; “*I am planning to go abroad with a view to earning because without earning I cannot continue my education*”.

The statement vividly explains earning as a motive for migration. In reality, the main objective of student is to study in the foreign country since s/he has been granted study visa. However, unlike other European and American students, Nepalese students’ motive for earning plays an important role. The majority of students wanted to further their education by working in the destination. Hence, earning was a hidden agenda of students.

Educational Expectations of Potential Students

Expectations to study in foreign countries are common among the Nepali youths. It is a future perspective from the outgoing students’ side. The potential students have

expressed the similar views on educational expectations as that of aspirations. Most of the students have cited quality education, earning, globally accepted degrees, career opportunities (bright future), practical knowledge, better standard of living, higher degree, peaceful environment, social prestige, personality development and to utilize knowledge in Nepal as their expectations. One of the students stated quality job, quality knowledge and revelation of hidden potentialities as his expectations. The theme of expectation that the students expressed stands seventy three.

In the focus group discussions, one of the students stated; “*Ma juna sicchya padhera Nepalmaa phaaidda hunccha tehi padhna bidesh jaane* (I will go to foreign country in order to study that subject which is useful to Nepal). Subject area is very crucial factor for student mobility. The above expression reveals that s/he is planning to study that subject which attracts high demand in the origin so that he could earn a lot of money after his return to Nepal. In other words, students want return from their education. Referring to push factors, one of the students in a pitiable condition said,

“*Deshmaa raamro bhaidiyako bhaye bidesh kahi padhna jadainathyo*” (No body would go abroad in order to study if there was conducive environment in Nepal).

The above statement exemplifies that the country is on the verge of miserable condition. Since Nepal is in the transitional phase, political instability and security problems have been common as a result of which student migrants as well as labour migrants leave the country for foreign soil. It indicates that had there been good educational environment, educational infrastructure development, political stability and peace in the country, nobody would opt for foreign country. This data support the push factor of migration.

To conclude, potential students' future plan, motivation, perception, aspirations and expectations were expressed positively. In this research, expectations and aspirations, however, are not clearly demarcated. The analysis showed that higher the aspirations and expectations, higher the migration motivation. It was found that potential students equally expressed expectations and aspirations. However, they expressed education-related aspiration and expectation more than the economic-related aspiration and expectation. The main themes they expressed were quality education, earning, earning and learning, career opportunities, and utilization of subjects they had studied abroad, to impart and share knowledge to each others. They viewed that they would not have made a plan to go abroad if the conditions like employment opportunities, and quality education (practical-based knowledge) were fulfilled and political stability established in Nepal.

Aspirations and Expectations of Current Students

Four students were selected for an in-depth interview in May 2008, in the USA where I visited in course of data collection. Mr. Nabin Basnyat at the Harvard University expressed his view that he had expected to study in the USA so his expectations were fulfilled. Radha Thapa, an undergraduate student at San Jacinto community college Houston, did not dream of coming to the USA for her studies. Her aspiration was to be a medical doctor but could not pass in the medical examination. So, there was no option in Nepal. She said;

“In the beginning, my aspiration was to join in the medical field. But, I could not pass in the entrance examination, so I decided to come to the USA to study my interest areas. To come to the USA was a struggle for me since I was denied visa for the first time”.

Radha wanted to go in for medical science in Nepal but could not succeed. Then, she tried her luck to move to the USA. She was so committed to leaving the country since she applied for visa second time also. Like Radha Thapa, many students struggle to go abroad. Some of the students change their attitude if visa is denied to them. They either go to another country or change the subject and study in Nepal. Some of the students in the interviews expressed that they preferred to be a medical doctor but could not get through and changed their subject.

Similarly, Mahendra Baral, an undergraduate student at San Jacinto community college Houston, has also expressed similar view. He said;

“I was planning to go in for medical field since I was one of the best students in Nepal scoring the distinction marks. Unluckily, I could not get through and decided to come to the USA. Although, my expectations and aspirations have not been fulfilled yet, one day it would be fulfilled”.

The above statement is further supported by Santosh Khatree enrolled at North Lake Community college, Texas.

“My first priority was to be a medical doctor but could not pass the examination so migration to higher education was my only option for me. Although, my expectations and aspirations are not fulfilled yet, I am fully confident that it would be fulfilled after graduation. Until and unless we are graduated, our expectations will not be fulfilled”
(Field Note, May 17, 2008).

The views expressed by three different students indicate the reality in Nepal. Out of four interviewees students, three current students had aspirations and expectations to join in the medical field in Nepal. Generally, majority of students with distinction marks expect

to study medical sciences. If they cannot pass, they plan either to go abroad or change the subject to further their study in Nepal. A student, who scores high percentage, is enrolled at the medical science in Nepal. After their unsuccessful attempt in the medical field, they are motivated to go abroad. It can be concluded that the best and talented students were creamed off by destination countries resulting in brain drain. For example, many medical doctors educated in Nepal have left the country especially in the US with a view to studying Master in Medicine and do not return to Nepal. I tracked down Mr, Santosh Khatri in Irving, Texas and re-interviewed in May, 2012. He responded that his expectations and aspirations were not fulfilled although he was recently graduated from the University of Texas, Arlington. He emphasized that his aspirations and expectations will be fulfilled if he is employed in the USA.

Current students' intentions have been supported by intentions of potential students. Likewise, current students studying in three countries (USA, UK, and Australia) expressed to acquire quality education and to get employment easily. Therefore, academic and economic factors chiefly dominated students' future expectations. In other words, data supported pull factors. In chapter five, a t-test was done and results showed that both groups of students had similar attitude on the causes of migration. The qualitative data supported quantitative data. Regarding educational aspirations of the students studying in the destinations, many current students cited positive responses. The main aspirations that the current students expressed were strong desire to study in the reputed universities, to achieve a position, to be competitive in the world market (academically talented), to improve standard of living and social status. From the above analyses, it seemed that aspirations of the students were education-related whereas expectations focused on earning rather than learning.

Current students were administered the questionnaire survey to write down their aspirations and expectations and taken an in-depth interview on this matter. When field survey was conducted in the USA in 2008, the majority of the current students expressed that their aspirations and expectations were partially fulfilled. However, students' attitude showed divergent views of the USA, on the one hand, and the UK, on the other, during their e- survey in 2010-2011. Since the main motive behind going to the UK was to study, most of the students studying in the UK expressed that their expectations and aspirations were fulfilled. Three students viewed in the positive way and analysis showed that their expectations and aspirations were to mainly study and get a recognized degree.

Asked about the fulfillments of expectations and aspirations, Durga Sherpa an MBA student at the University of Wales in the UK said *"Absolutely fulfilled. I found it the way I had thought about it before. Priority is to my study"*. Another respondent said *"My aim is to study and it is going well. The main reason is to get an international degree"*. Leela Lama, an MBA student said *"Yes, it has been fulfilled because I came here (UK) to study and doing well"*. From the above statement, it is clear that the UK-bound students were committed to studying and getting a degree. However, Ramesh Nakarmi based in the UK expressed his view in another way. He focused more on cultural factor than educational factor. He said,

"My expectations and aspirations are not fulfilled. It is just different from what we had an imagination about UK before I landed here. Different level of life style, way of working culture is the main things which I did not experience before. Normally, what we see in news, movies and get information is just surface one."

The views of the Nepalese students studying in the USA were, however, not similar to those students studying in the UK. Three Nepalese students living in the USA

narrated that their expectations and aspirations were not yet fulfilled since they have not completed their courses. Naresh Dhakal, majoring in accounting in Texas said *“My aim is to get a bachelor degree and work in a good company to earn attractive money”*.

Prabhakar Gajurel who was also an interviewee in Nepal as a potential student and currently based in Oklohama community college said:

“My expectations and aspirations are not fulfilled now. First of all, my aspiration was to get a visa to the US. It has been fulfilled. I want secured future. My goal is to complete education, getting a degree and then citizenship. So, there is no long way to go”

The statement expressed by Prabhakar indicates partial fulfillment of aspirations. He was issued US visa which he considered to have fulfilled his desire. He was optimistic of the fulfillments of his desires since he expressed that there was no long way to go. However, his ultimate objective has been degree-holder and to settle in the USA permanently. The majority of students bound for the USA do not return to Nepal and try to have green card there. Damodar Acharya’s expectation was to earn a degree in bio-technology from the University of Texas in order to develop his career in the future. In this connection, he stated,

“My expectations and aspirations are not definitely fulfilled. My goal is to acquire Bachelor Degree and good job in a good company and not a clerk again”.

Damodar’s statement clearly indicates first acquiring Bachelor degree and then employment in a good and reputed company. He dislikes working as a clerk because the majority of the students in the USA (especially in Texas) work in the gas station and earn US \$7-10 /hour. So, they desire to work in a reputed company after graduation.

Seven other students studying in the USA stated that their aspirations and expectations were not fulfilled because they have not achieved the things that they had dreamt of and have not been graduated yet. They have not mentioned in the open-ended survey questionnaires about their dream. The analysis of the US-based students' aspirations and expectations indicates the unfulfilled ambitions which they think would be fulfilled after graduation in the future. Basically, the motivational factor for the US-based Nepalese students is to graduate at any cost.

Students based in Australia also expressed their aspirations and expectations through electronic mail. Regarding their expectations, the majority of the students supported education and earning. Other students followed to acquire quality education and earning easily. They expressed their strong desire to study in a reputed university, to be competitive in the world market and to improve standard of living as their aspirations. Most of the students got their expectations and aspirations fulfilled. Hence, education and earning were found to be a determinant factor of student migration.

Returnee Students' Aspirations and Expectations

I collected data from students who returned to Nepal after their degree was completed. In this connection, Uddhav Gajurel put his opinion on the fulfillment of the aspirations and expectations. He said:

“I had aspiration and expectation of completing my education before my departure to the USA. I completed my Bachelor and Master degree from Michigan State University and Ohio University respectively. I returned to Nepal and got a job at a commercial Bank in Kathmandu. So, my aspirations and expectations have been fulfilled” (Field Note, Nov 20, 2010).

The above statement expressed by Uddhav testifies to the fact that any foreign degree holder has high potential of getting a job in the private sector which is flourishing in Nepal. An MBA holder from foreign a country can grab the opportunity of employment in commercial bank in Nepal. His aspirations and expectations have been fulfilled. In this connection, accumulation of cultural capital (to get a foreign degree and cash it) can be linked with his overseas degree which has been converted into economic capital, Bourdieu, 1986 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011) being employed in the Bank. Similar view has been expressed by Amar Shah. After joining a private commercial bank as an executive director, he stated;

“I am satisfied with my career in Nepal. I could have got a good job in the USA if I had stayed there. I was offered an attractive salary as well. I returned to Nepal to serve my country although my relatives still live in the USA. I must say my desires were fulfilled”

The statement indicates that he was confident of getting a job in Nepal and the love for motherland. In this case, the social network is weak because he was detached from his relatives in the USA. His desires were fulfilled because he was awarded BBA degree from the USA and Master degree from New Delhi and returned to Nepal in spite of many opportunities available in the destination. The accumulation of cultural capital (converted into economic capital) with an investment in human capital has brought about an attractive salary for Amar Shah.

Other returnee students had similar views. A returnee from the UK, Beerendra Singh Pradhan and another returnee from Canada Ajaya Malla said that they had high aspirations and expectations before going to the destination. Their expectations and aspirations were fulfilled. Both of them did Master Degree from respective countries and

returned to Nepal optimistically. Qualitative data have been presented in a quantizing form in the table below.

Table 52. Expectations and Aspirations of potential, current and returnee students

Status	Expectations			Fulfilled	Aspirations			
	Low	Medium	High		Low	Medium	High	Fulfilled
Potential students			√	-			√	-
Current students (USA)			√	Partially Fulfilled*			√	Partially fulfilled
Current students (UK/Australi)			√	Fulfilled^			√	Fulfilled
Returnee students			√	Fulfilled+			√	Fulfilled

Source: Researcher's own creation

*Getting visa and enrolled in college ^ Getting visa + Acquired overseas degree and employed

Table 52 shows the comparative analysis of the level of aspirations and expectations of potential, current and returnee students. The table denotes that all types of students had higher aspirations and expectations before they migrated to different countries.

Regarding the fulfillments of aspirations and expectations, the current students of the USA stated that their aspirations and expectations have partially been fulfilled because they got the visa and were enrolled in universities. In the course of the interview, they expressed that their aspirations and expectations would be fulfilled only after the completion of their studies. However, the current students of the UK and Australia viewed that their expectations and aspirations were fulfilled limiting to getting a visa. It is clear that the current students of the US had more ambitious plan than that of UK and Australia. The returnee students got their aspirations and expectations fulfilled since they

achieved their mission (to get a degree and employment). The majority of returnee students were found to be employed in reputed institutions. Hence, possible self theory can be linked with expectations and aspirations.

The high aspirations and expectations viewed by the Nepalese students have been supported by the previous research abroad. Par and Mok 1995 (as cited in Rebecca, Zlatko & Mark n.d.) found that students from Asian background had the highest aspirations, while students of New Zealand background had the lowest. Majoribanks, 2002 (as cited in Rebecca, Zlatko & Mark n.d.) also found similar research outcomes, and found that adolescents from Asia, the Middle East and Southern Europe had higher aspirations than general population of Australia.

Perception of Potential, Current and Returnee Students

After the analyses of expectations and aspirations of three categories of students, their perception on student migration is analyzed below. How do they perceive is the main agenda. So, perception of potential, current and returnee student mobility is discussed below.

Perception of Potential Students

Perception of potential students indicates their migratory behavior. In this connection, potential students were taken in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and some case studies developed.

Causes of Student Migration

In the previous chapter, causes of student migration were analyzed quantitatively. How do participants perceive student migration qualitatively is the main issue in this section? In order to unearth the causes of student migration and their aspirations, expectations as

well as perception, twelve students were separately interviewed at different times in the origin. Out of twelve students, four were granted visa and remaining had applied for visa. The majority of interviewees stated that they were motivated to go abroad in order to learn and earn. Students were motivated to migrate to study because of push and pull factors. They were lured to go to foreign countries in order to get opportunities (pull/positive factors) and were forced to leave the country because of push/negative factors. In this connection, Pravakar stated;

‘ I am very happy because I got the visa to go to enroll at the Oklohama State University in the USA which I preferred because of quality education, recognized degree, research-based education, pasture land and independent life. Nepal is characterized by conflict, strike, and underdeveloped. My parents could spend for my education in the medical science but I selected the USA because many students are gravitating to the USA and some of my relatives are based there. There is no certainty to return to Nepal (Field Note, August 10, 2008).

He cited the causes of student migration. Pravakar wanted to migrate to the USA where quality education with recognized degree, research-based education, and land of opportunities are available. The main push-factors are conflict, insecurity, strike and underdeveloped country. He further stated that he followed the earlier students’ path in course of going to the USA.

Amar Shiwakoti and Atul Acharya (both visa holders of the USA), planning to study pharmacy, have expressed the similar views. They preferred to go to the USA because of globally accepted degree and research facilities in the Pharmacy. Amar was

awarded scholarship whereas Atul decided to go to the USA on self-finance. Atul expressed;

‘ I preferred the USA because of quality education, globally accepted degree and research facilities. The main reason for going to the USA is lack of quality education and preferable subject on the one hand and employment opportunities on the other. Higher education in Nepal needs to be designed in such a way so that we can grab employment opportunities, equal priority should be given to other disciplines and reservation for the Brahmin as well’ (Field Note, August 01, 2009).

The above expression revealed that Atul aspired to migrate to the USA because of lack of quality education and employment opportunities in Nepal and for better education and employment opportunities in the USA. He, however, suggested reform in higher education so that ample opportunities could be created in the country. In Nepal, aftermath of the Second Janaandolan (People’ Revolution) in 2006, there has been reservation/ quota in employment and college admission such as medical studies. There is a reservation for the students of indigeneous, Dalit, Madhesi, women, and geographically backward areas. However, the Brahmins and Chhetree are not privileged to the reservation. So, Atul voiced the reservation issues. Potential students have expressed different reasons for migration. They expressed in an in-depth interview and focus group discussion. Some of the push and pull factors are presented below.

Low Employment Opportunities

Employment is the main source of income. Everybody thinks of employment opportunities as a form of career opportunities. The main reason for going abroad is lack of employment in the origin and opportunities in the destination. Even students’ choice of

subject depends upon the opportunity of employment in the future. Nepal has low base of employment opportunities. So, most of the participants in interview viewed lack of employment opportunities as main cause of migration. In this connection, Naveen Basnet said;

“I am planning to migrate to the UK because of lack of earning in Nepal”.

Similar views have been expressed by four students. In Nepal, the number of educated unemployed is increasing every year since there are very little chances of employment. So, lack of employment has resulted in the outflow of Nepali youths abroad.

Political Instability:

Nepal experienced a decade long insurgency as a result the post-Jana Aandolan period has seen many changes in the government. For example, even the constitution of Nepal could not be drafted on time by the Constituent Assembly. Political instability has created many problems in the country such as insecurity, looting, kidnapping and intimidating. In this connection, Naveen Basnet viewed political instability as one of the reasons for migration. He stated:

“Raajnaitik asthirtale gardaa deshmaa padhna mana laagena” (I could not study due to political instability of the country). Similar views have been expressed by two other students. The above statement indicates that students are compelled to go abroad due to the weak and political instability in the country. It also hampers the educational system resulting in the politicization of higher education.

Politicized Educational System

Education should be free from politics. However, it is exception to Nepal. Higher education in Nepal is very unstable and unpredictable. Strikes, Hartal, disturbances,

unionism in the colleges are common as a result of which examinations are not held on time. Therefore, in order to complete the prescribed courses, many Nepalese students have enrolled at the Indian educational institutions. Bidya Shrestha, Prem Kumar Sharma and Rameshwor Chaudhary have supported this view.

Psychological Concern of the Parents:

In many cases, students are persuaded to go abroad by their parents. Generally, it has become a trend to send their youths to foreign countries as a “family project”. One of the participants stated:

‘My father advised me to follow the paths of my uncle’s son Naresh who has already left the country. He (father) told me that he would spend some money for my education that would yield returns when I start working in the foreign country’.

The above statement concerns demonstration effect in the society, investment in education and its return. Parents want to send their youths to foreign countries though they have limited income sources. However, they expect early returns by investing negligible amount of money in their youths’ education abroad. A psychological effect is rooted in the Nepalese society in case of students’ mobility. For example, if parents’ relatives’ or neighbours’ son/daughter go abroad, they also send their youths in the same way. In this situation, potential student migration is stimulated by psychological effects. The most important point that the participants raised was globalization process which caused massive outflows of students in the globalized world.

Low Quality Education

Many students were of the opinion that low quality education and theory-based knowledge are the main causes of migration. One of the students said: *“Fees are charged*

but there is neither quality education nor regular classes". This saying generally applies to the public schools and colleges where classes are not run regularly. Moreover, due to strike and Bandha, classes are frequently disturbed and as a result time overrun in the examination has become a normal phenomenon. Regarding quality education, one of the students argued that there was quality of education at KU but poor people cannot afford for education. The mission of the KU has been to impart quality education. Maharajgunj medical college and Pulchowk engineering college under TU are renowned for their excellent teaching. The views expressed by earlier students were, however, different on quality education and one participant stated: "*Nepalma gunastaryukta sikshya bhayepani samayemaa parichhyaa hudaina*"(Although there is quality of education in Nepal, examinations are not conducted on time). The above expression indicates that students have placed more concern on timely examination than quality education. Hence, low quality education in Nepal led to student migration.

Educational Costs

In Nepal, parents cannot bear educational expenditure. Costs of education have risen. So, parents want their youngsters (to be) gone abroad in order to avoid the costs of education in the origin. In this connection, one of the students at the FGD expressed; "*Bubaa aamaako bhaar kam garna bidesh jaana khojeko. Buba amale saat aath lakh kharcha garera bides pathaye bhane lageko kharcha kam garera Nepalma pathauchhou ra haamro laagi lagaani garnu parena*" (I am planning to migrate to foreign country to lessen the burden of the parents. If our parents send us to study abroad by spending NRs seven hundred /eight hundred thousands, we would repay back the money by working in foreign countries and there is no need to invest in education for us further). The above

expression is interpreted in this way. Students are eager to migrate to study in order to relieve their parents of educational costs. After they are employed, they are determined to send back the money that they have to carry before leaving Nepal. In such a situation, parents need not invest in the education of their youngsters. Two issues are clearly observed in the discussion. Firstly, remittances are generated to some extent and secondly parents' burden is minimized once and for all in the case of investment in education if they send their youths to foreign countries by spending money at a time.

Work and Study Opportunity

Students go abroad for different reasons. Going abroad for earning and learning is very common for the Nepalese students. They earn in order to further their study. Parents hardly bear whole costs of education in the foreign countries. So, this is called work to study migration. In this connection, one of the interviewees stated: "*Nepalma kaam garera padhchhu bhanda paaidaina tara bidesma paainchha*". (We cannot study by working in Nepal but it is possible abroad). This statement clearly reflects the lack of employment in Nepal and opportunities available in the destination. Bidya Shrestha, a visa holder to go to the UK, expressed;

"My first priority is to earn and then study since I have to carry money to the UK after borrowing from the relatives for whom I have to repay back (Field Note, May 18, 2009).

Interestingly, she was motivated to firstly earning and studying. Like her, many students have gone abroad for earning and learning by borrowing or selling lands in the origin. One of the students stated;

"Kaam nagarne padhna maatra jaaneho bhane kahi pani jaadainathyo (Nobody would go abroad only for studies, If work is prohibited).

The above statement shows the real picture of the migratory behavior of students. Students were motivated to migrate to foreign countries for two reasons namely work and study. It has been supported by outgoing students. They viewed: “*Dherai kamaauna gayekaa chhan thorai padhna gayekaa chhan*” (Many students have gone abroad for earnings and some have migrated to the foreign country for learning). This is similar to the previous statement that the majority of the students are inclined to working rather than studying. The above statement testifies that students’ purpose of migration was to make money in order to pay back. Farrer (2009) has termed such types of students as “coin raking” students. According to him, studying was a front while making money was the real motivation in actual practice. However, the majority of students have entered the UK with the purpose of pursuing an education and career opportunities.

Similar view has been expressed by Nabeen Basnet. He stated;

“*. Ma kamauchhu ra padchhu. Maile Nepalmaa dukha garchhu bhanda thaau chhaina tara bideshma dukha garchhu bhanda thau chha. Malai gunastar sikchhya bhanda kamaai badhi mahattopurna lagchha* (I will earn and study. There are no avenues in Nepal to work but there are ample opportunities in foreign countries. Earning is more important for me than quality of education (Field Note, May 18, 2009).

Naveen made a heartbreaking statement and emphasized more on earning that was the main motive behind going to the UK. He wanted both earning and learning. But, in Nepal, there is hardly any provision for earning as well as learning whereas in the destination any student is entitled to work and study simultaneously. In the FGD, expression of ‘*Usale garna sakchha bhane maile pani garna sakchhu*’ (if he can do, I

also can do) reveals the motivation of students to go to foreign countries. A case study of Naveen Basnet is presented in the box below.

Case study: one

Highly motivated to go abroad

Naveen Basnet comes from Ramechhap. He passed the SLC and Plus-2 in the first division and works at an educational consultancy in Kathmandu. In an interview, he expressed the words of feeling of sadness and said *“There are no avenues in Nepal to work but there are ample opportunities in foreign countries”*. He pointed out push factors, pull factors and social network factors (reasons for migration) of migration. Political condition of Nepal is not favourable and life is not secured. The main reasons for migration were lack of earning, load-shedding and price rise. In the positive side, there were opportunities in the destination, which included earning, learning, freedom and peace and tranquility. He was fully motivated to go to foreign countries by hook or crook. Naveen stated;

“Although, my parents are unable to bear the costs of education in foreign countries, I am dedicated to studying by working there. Some of my colleagues have already left the country, some have been issued visa. Can’t I”? My friends in the UK would help me if I am in need of money, shelter or any other support. His statement, therefore, vividly explains push-pull and social network factors of students’ migration.

To conclude, Naveen was fed up with political instability, question of safety and unfavourable educational environment of the country. So, he was motivated to opt for educational opportunities in the destination.

Earning and learning as a main reason for migration was also supported by another potential student. Anuradha K.C. who stated that she was planning to go to the UK because of easier visa processing. The main reason for going to the UK was frequent

strike and Bandha in Nepal. She said “*Bideshmaa dukha bujhinchha*” (One will know the difficulty in the foreign country).

Shiva Pokhrel aspiring to go to the UK also expected earning as well as learning in the destination. Had there been peace and earning in Nepal, he would not have thought of migrating to study abroad. He said: “*Gharmaa dukha bhayekole bidesh jaana khojeko*” (I am planning to go abroad since there is difficulty at home). He emphasized on the low economic condition of the family. Poverty is pervasive in Nepal. It was found from the survey that students belonging to the middle income families also were prompted to go to foreign countries. Parents also encourage their youths to go to foreign country in order to escape from spending on the education of their children.

Job Opportunity

Earning opportunity is one of the pull factors of migration. Generally, labour migration is associated with the earning. However, student migration is also directly linked with the employment. Nepalese students would not have migrated to study abroad, had there been no earning opportunities in the destination. Narayan Baral viewed that employment was the main reason for migration. He said;

“I aspire to go to the UK in order to earn rather than learn”. He further states in a pathetic way “Nepalma padhai anusar ko rojgari paye ko bidesh janchha”? (Who will go abroad if one gets employment in Nepal on the basis of qualification? (Field Note, Sep.15, 2009). Focusing more on economic motive than education, he was of the view that employment (earnings) was the main reason for migrating to the UK. Baral firmly expressed his view that he would not go abroad if he were employed. He wanted to work

in the name of students' visa. Therefore, his hidden agenda was to earn in the UK by getting enrollment at college.

Shankar Shrestha also expects better earning after completion of his studies. He stated;

“I expect my career opportunities favourable when I complete my degree. I hope to be employed at the destination after my best performances.” Shankar's hopes and desires are expected to convert into reality and pave the way for employment opportunities.

Practical Education/Quality Education

Practical education provides career development and employment opportunities. Many students in the open-ended question of the survey cited practical education as a quality education. In other words, practical education is one of the components of quality education. One of the students (Shankar Shrestha) expected practical use of learning from higher education in the UK where he intends to go to. He was also vexed with the unfavorable condition of the country. The interviewee clearly indicated that his primary motive was to get a Degree (education not earning). Pravakar also accepted this view and said that his motive for going abroad was quality education. From the above qualitative data, it is clear that push-pull theory is strong in this study.

Social Ties

Social network plays an important role in the migration process. Relatives and friends living in the destination facilitate the potential migrants in the form of shelter, food, information and college admission. It is one of the main pull factors of migration.

Narayan Baral selected the UK where his relatives live in. In this connection, he stated;

“I decided to go to London to further my education because my relatives live there”.

Relative in the destination indicates strong social ties that motivated him to choose the UK. Hence, social network theory is strong in this case. A case study is presented in the box below.

Case study-two

Low family earning leads to migration

After the US embassy denied visa, Rameshwor Choudhary of Mahottary was trying his luck to go to Australia to study IT. He said: “*Doctor padhna dherai kharcha lagchha maile mero jindagima kamauna sakne guarantee chaina*” Studying medical education results in huge expenditure which I cannot earn in my life). Therefore, instead of studying MBBS, he decided to migrate to Australia. According to him, the push factors were prestige (status concern/psychological effect), strike, political instability and pull factors were value for foreign degree and expansion of mind horizon. Securing first division in the science discipline of Plus-2, his aspiration to be a doctor was shattered and he opted for going abroad due to financial difficulty.

In conclusion, students with excellent performances are compelled to migrate to study due to poor economic condition. Rameshwor could not study his interested subject (medical science) because of poor financial condition of his parents and was forced to opt for foreign country as a migrant student.

It is interesting from the FGDs that the main reasons for student migration were similar to those of responses from interviews and survey. Therefore, the data collected from the survey were supported by the data generated from the focus group discussions and an indepth interview. Many students indicated that they had their relatives/ friends in foreign countries and expected support from them. It means results do support social network theory.

Studying Abroad in the Eyes of Potential Students

The Himalayan Times (Sep14, 2011) carried interviews of six potential students about their attraction to studying abroad. All the students emphasized on quality education, job opportunities and secure future. Expressing his views, Ashish Pandey said;

“Going to other countries for higher education is good for one’s career. Once you complete your Bachelors’ and Masters’ from universities or colleges in other countries, you will get a number of job opportunities. In case of Nepal, even those who hold Masters’ degree hardly find a job. In addition, our education system is affected by politics because of which students are forced to go to other countries to pursue their education” (as cited in the Himalayan Times).

Ashish is fully committed to going abroad because of career opportunities and guarantee of job(pull factors) and lack of quality education and politicization of education system (push factors) as a result of which students are compelled to studying abroad. Regarding the quality, he has clearly stated that students with Master degree in Nepal cannot find a job whereas job opportunities are plenty for the same student with Master degree from foreign countries. Depoliticization of education system and improving quality education is urgently needed in Nepal. Other students have also viewed similar expression such as lack of job opportunities, instability in the government and low quality education, influences of politics as negative factors and job opportunities, quality education, secure future as positive factors. Srijana Tamang, however, expressed in another way. She is against going abroad since there are good colleges providing quality education in Nepal. She said;

“Students should not go to other countries just because their parents pressurize them to do so”. This statement clearly gives the real picture of the parents. In Nepal, parents pressurize their sons/daughters to go abroad as a form of psycho-effect which means they want social status in the society by sending their youths to foreign countries.

The responses expressed by six students above are similar to those of potential students of the survey. Hence, it can be concluded that the data from the survey have been supported by the qualitative data collected by the media. The next sub-chapter discusses the views of current students.

Current Students’ View

Current students are those who are studying in destination countries. Four current students studying in the USA were selected as a sample for an interview. They were interviewed when I visited some universities and colleges in the USA. For example, one scholarship awardee from the Harvard and three other participants studying at the community colleges in Dallas and Houston of Texas participated in an interview.

Land of Opportunities

Students go abroad in search of opportunities that include educational (scholarship, quality education, choices of subject, availability of modern library and research facilities) earning and career development. Such types of opportunities are hardly available in the origin. In this connection, Naveen Basnet quoted” *One of the main reasons for selecting the USA is opportunities available. One can find good opportunity in the USA but not in other countries. Similarly, one can find better education for future opportunity. So, I opted for the US University for my career development”*.

Naveen, a Harvard University awardee, has focused on opportunities and career development.

The USA is called the “*Land of opportunities*” or “*Pasture Land*”. He migrated to America in order to get opportunity and better learning. Similar expressions were made by Radha Thapa, Mahendra Baral and Santosh Khatree who viewed the USA as a land of opportunities. They stated that every student could grab the opportunities.

Most of the potential students in the survey responded that they were planning to go abroad for different opportunities. Some students in the survey preferred career development as their main motive for abroad study. Thus, current students are satisfied with their studies and they are attracted because of opportunities available in the destination. However, it is common for Nepalese students in foreign countries to finish a four year degree in five to eight years because they have to work in order to help finance their education and considerable percentage of these people do not return to Nepal; all this is a result of our inability to provide the education that they seek (Republica, March 14, 2011). Since the data collected from current students in an in-depth interview have been validated by the quantitative data, the push-pull model and cultural capital can be applied to this theme. A case study of Radha Thapa is presented below.

Case study three

Unavailability of an interested subject forced Radha to migrate

Radha Thapa, an undergraduate student enrolled at San Jacinto community college Houston in 2008, did not dream of coming to the USA for her studies. Her aspiration was to be a medical doctor but could not pass in the medical examination. So, there was no option in Nepal. She decided to go to the USA. She was denied visa for the first time and attempted in the second time. She said:

“I would say some positive aspects of student migration. Firstly, I am independent because I like freedom. Secondly, we know the diversities of cultures of different countries. Thirdly, living costs are cheaper here in Texas even than in Nepal. Fourthly, the USA is a place of different opportunities. Lastly, teachers are friendly and better teaching than in Nepal.”

Although, her expectations and aspirations are not fulfilled. However, she is fully confident that her life would be better after being graduated. *“I will have the right to work legally when I finish my graduation”*. She did not work when she was in North Alabama. *“I migrated to Texas where I have got a job that has helped me maintain my educational expenses. My parents do not send money to me. I have stood on my feet”*.

Her statement clearly indicated that she would not have migrated to the USA, had she got the opportunity to study medical science. So, unavailability of choice of subject in the origin resulted in student mobility.

When I tracked down her in Houston and re-interviewed in May 20, 2012, she expressed her desire to return to Nepal and live with her family. She changed her subject and opted for Nursing and she is about to graduate in the near future thus leading to the fulfillment of her expectations and aspirations.

In real situation, she would not return to Nepal but look for opportunities in the USA since medical field is one of the attractive jobs because many doctors and nurses go to the USA for higher salaries and other benefits.

Some of the migrant students have made better academic achievement. Many students do not complete their studies on time since they have to work and stand on their own feet. So, it takes 5-6 years to be graduated. Even some students never complete their studies and work without attending colleges. Mahendra Baral is such a student who

completed his graduation within four years and paid all the money he had taken loan in order to study in the USA. A case study of Mahendra Baral is presented below.

Case study four

Success story of a migrant student

Mahendra Baral was a brilliant student. He passed the SLC and I.Sc with distinction. He was planning to study medical science in Nepal but decided to migrate to study in the US.

“My first priority was to be a doctor so I had no dream of coming to the USA. Since I was unable to get medical scholarship, I decided to come to the USA where freedom and independence are available”. So, he was granted the US visa and was enrolled at the University of North Alabama.

He had to meet his educational expenditure in the USA by taking loan. After completion of the first semester, he moved into Texas where many Nepalese students have been studying as well as working. An undergraduate student at San Jacinto community college, Houston, he got part time job at a gas station. He told the researcher that every student must work hard. He said: “

Yekaichoti padhna ra kaam garna sajilo chhaina tara surumaa gharbaata kehi paisa lyayeko thiyo ahile aaphaile kaam garera padheko chhu” (It is not easy to study and work simultaneously but in the beginning I had carried some money from home now I work and study).

Like other students in the USA, he has been earning as well as learning. Within three years, he remitted money amounting to NRs 0.5 million to pay the loan that he had taken in Nepal. Being a student, he also earns and sends money to his parents regularly. He is very happy and satisfied with his work. On top of that, recognition of degree globally and good chances of career development are other positive factors that prompted him to migrate to the USA for higher studies. About the social ties, he said: ‘*Ghar paribaar chhadnu paryo*’ (I have to miss the family). He suggested bright future for the student. His expectation and aspiration are not fulfilled yet. He is fully confident that one day it would be fulfilled. To conclude, Baral’s success story may be an inspiration to other Nepali students. He completed his degree without any financial burden to the parents. He earned both degree and money. (Based on field Note, May, 2008).

The success story of Mahendra Baral has been a lesson for all migrant students. He not only met his expenditure in the destination but also sent money back to Nepal. Furthermore, he graduated within four years.

Returnee Students' Views

Reverse brain drain in China and India have been creating headlines making us wonder why the same is not happening in our country. A recent research stated that out of hundred people who returned to China, eighty four returned because of more opportunities in China. Similarly, seventy two people returned to India due to its increasing opportunities. Thus, it is not peoples' sentiments but opportunities that play a significant role in reverse brain drain (The Himalayan Times, September 19, 2010).

Accurate data of the returnee students can hardly be found in Nepal. Everybody accepts that most of the youth studying or working in the Western countries including the US and Japan do not return to Nepal. However, five returnee students were contacted for interviews in order to explore their views since they completed education and came back to Nepal.

Demand for Higher Education

Since this research deals with demand side factors of migration, students' demand for higher education (investment theory of demand) abroad has resulted in the outflow of students. Nepalese students' demand for higher education in foreign countries was the main reason for student mobility. Linking these words, Uddhav Gajurel stated;

“I had selected America in order to study high demand subject as well as better education. The academically excellent students who were educated at Rato Bangla, Budanilakantha, and Malpi schools went to foreign countries in search of better

education and career opportunities. After completing my studies, I returned to Nepal because my parents were financially sound. Other students who belonged to better family background also have returned to Nepal (Field Note, Dec20, 2010).

The above statement makes clear that Uddhav went to the USA in search of quality education in high demand subject. In Nepal, in many faculties, choices of subjects are not offered to students who are forced to leave the country. The products of the best schools generally go abroad. In the survey, it was found that 72 percent of potential students were from private schools. So, students educated at Malpi, Ratobangla, Budhanilakantha and Shuvatara are more likely than public school to migrate to study abroad. Causes of return might be different. Uddhav (employed in the banking sector) viewed that the youths of big house have returned to Nepal because of social attachment. If opportunities are available, students are likely to return. Generally, students with low economic status do not return and students coming from big house traders return and conduct their business. Had he not come from an affluent family, he would not have returned to Nepal. He viewed that even doctors and engineers have migrated abroad leading to brain drain. Uddhav's statement indicates that returnee students are those who come from a better off family.

He said that no returnee was unemployed but there is no authentic data. He has given the solutions such as economic prosperity, curriculum reformed in Public Service Commission (English medium) in order to attract the best and brightest students. During the interview, he accepted that Nepal has no globally accepted degree, more theory than practical education, strike, frequently disturbed classes, detachment from the family and expensive education. Similarly, influences of the Western society, chances of

employment, liberal economic policy and an independent life attract the students in the destination. The abovementioned causes of student migration were also expressed by the potential and current students as well. His data supported the push-pull theory. Hence, investment theory of demand applies to this issue.

Social Attachment

Social factor is very important for students. Some of the students have returned to Nepal because of social factors like homesickness, to look after their home affairs, being the only son and families' pressure to get marry. Moreover, some returnee students have access to social and cultural capital. Regarding the social values, Beerendra Pradhan stated;

“I returned to Nepal to look after my parents who are old. After my return, I hope, I would do something for my country. It is not difficult to go to foreign countries but returning to Nepal is very difficult. We have to think several times and its pros and cons before returning here. There is very low earning in Nepal. However, mental satisfaction is very important. I have returned with certificate and optimistic view and hope that I would get a Job immediately” (Field Note, Dec, 24, 2010).

After completion of the degree, Beerendra Pradhan returned to Nepal from the UK to look after his old parents. This is a social obligation of any Nepali to take care of old parents. He returned to Nepal hoping to get employment. As a matter of fact, those students who earn in the destination hardly return to their native lands because Nepal lacks employment opportunities that is high chances in the destination. From the expression of Beerendra Pradhan, it is evident that he was optimistic of getting a job in future and would be satisfied even with the lower income in Nepal. He talked about

mental satisfaction because he can serve the parents as well as the nation and apply practical knowledge to Nepal.

Not all current students are like Beerendra who returned to Nepal to serve the country and society. He stated that many Nepalese have done an excellent job in the foreign countries. For example, Surya Subedi has established his reputation in the UK serving as one of the members of advisory body of the government of the United Kingdom. Terming Nepalese students' trends to go to UK as '*Bidesh Jane lahar*' "(It is a craze for going abroad), he said that about 90 percent of the students in the UK do not study but work. He cited push factors of migration as "Saathi Bhaai ko lahar", political instability and unemployment and pull factors as quality of education, earning, future career and independence life. Beerendra Pradhan opined two categories of students namely (a) they do not return but earn (b) they study and try to be employed if they did not get employment, return to Nepal. It clearly denotes from the statement of Beerendra that Nepalese students do not return to Nepal if they are employed.

Coin Rakers Students

Many students aspire to go to foreign countries in the name of education which has become a ticket to enter into destination with a view to earning. In the preceding discussion, one of the potential students said that he would not have migrated to foreign countries if earning opportunities were not available in the destination. In this connection, Ajaya Malla viewed;

"I completed my studies in Canada and came back to Nepal. After returning home, I thought I would do something for my country. There were 2 types of migrant students namely students with well-to-do families and brilliant students. Such types of

students fall 10-20 percent and remaining students do not study and work there and send remittance like the labour migrants. The US bound students hardly return but come to Nepal with a view to marrying and go back for earning” (Field Note Dec 24,2010).

Being optimistic, Ajaya Malla returned to Nepal. He categorized migrant students into two types: the first type coming from either rich families or being intellectually gifted, and the second kind being those whose primary purpose is not to study but to earn in foreign countries. In some countries, they simply get enrolled at the colleges but never attend the classes. Students living in the destination do not send substantial amount of remittances instead they maintain their life happily. However, some students who pay more attention to work than study send remittances. He suggested that students from lower social strata should stay abroad (stick to destination) and send remittances. Ajaya further expressed that the USA based students come to Nepal for marriage purpose and go back. In this case, pull factors of migration is stronger than push factors because students are attracted by the opportunities in the destination.

Paradigm Shift

Changes in the system leads to overall improvements of the country. Status quo is the negative side of the development. So, a paradigm shift is inevitable for new thinkings, attitudes and behavior of the people. Nepal lags behind in the development because of status quo nature of the country. In this scenario, Ajaya states: “*Nepalma paddatiko bikaash garnu parchha* (We should develop the system in Nepal). System and bureaucracy should be changed in tune with the global perspectives. System change leads to economic growth and development that causes the creation of opportunities and finally motivates student to return to Nepal.” (Field Note Dec 24, 2010).

The above expression indicates that Nepal needs to change in bureaucracy and system in association with the global perspectives. Our bureaucracy known as permanent government, on the one hand, is traditional and status quo and on the other, weak in service delivery to the people. Paradigm shift results in the sequential changes in the whole system and ultimately brings in opportunities creation in the country. As a result, it attracts foreign-based Nepalese students like that of China and India. If opportunities are available, students would return to Nepal. Talented students must return to Nepal (up to 5-10 percent) and work as a skilled manpower. However, they do not like to join the government service because of the lack of system. Ajaya gave a new vision to attract the Nepalese students who are contributing to the economy of the destination countries in the form of brain gain. Hence, Nepal needs to reverse the trends of brain drain so that Nepal may gain from her skilled manpower.

Canada was not a destination country until 2000. Because of strict visa policy, only real students migrated to Canada. After 9/11 attack in New York, students were attracted to Canada in order to get PR and cross into the USA. He said that load shedding, political instability, hartal, kidnapping were negative factors of migration which led to non-return tendency of the Nepalese students. Therefore, political stability is the best solution to create a conducive environment for an overall development of the country followed by an increase in the numbers of returnee. Hence, he referred to push factor.

Mero Bhabisya (My Future)

Students prefer to go abroad for their future career development. Career development has been their main reason for mobility. In the previous section, students' motivations, expectations and aspirations were analyzed. Most of the responses covered future desires,

hopes, ambitions and bright future (positive selves). So, student migration is associated with “Mero Bhabishya”. In this connection, Amar Shah responded;

“The outflow of students is a positive matter. Students get exposure to different cultures, languages, systems and even earn money. Students go abroad for their own future. So, they are conscious of “Mero Bhabishya” (My future). Each student thinks of dark future when he is in Nepal’. *Yubaaharule Nepaalko Bhabisya Dekhnu parne tara ushle Nepaalko bhabishya Dekheko Chaaina*” (Youth should foresee the future of Nepal, but they have not seen bright future in Nepal). (Field Note, Jan11, 2011).

Amar shah encourages the Nepalese students to go to foreign countries where they can gain knowledges as well as earn money for their livelihood. Actually, Amar has particularly focused on “my future” which indicates that Nepali students prefer foreign countries for the sake of their future life by investing at the present time. Since migration is an investment for the future, a young migrant can reap the benefits more than the old one. He referred to dark future in Nepal in the sense that there was a very low chance of career development. In other words, few employment opportunities have resulted in the outflow of students as well as unskilled labour massively. In the same way, youth have not seen the bright future of Nepal. Actually, they should forsee the future of Nepal. It can be paraphrased as the youth prefer to go abroad speculating dark future of Nepal. So, it is a serious implication for Nepal.

Brain Trade

It is known as commercialization of higher education. From the Nepalese perspectives, student migration is a brain trade since they go to developed countries that earn billions of dollars in the name of higher education. Regarding this theme, Amar shah stated;

“Aafule khauwana nasakne, arule khwayema dinu parchha (If you can not feed, let others feed). Countries like the USA, UK, and Australia have earned a lot of money from international students who are enrolled at Colleges and Universities (commercialization of higher education). (Field Note, Jan11, 2011).

Amar Shah’s responses go like this. If Nepal cannot provide any opportunities to the students, they (students) should be allowed to go abroad. Higher education is treated like a commercial product which can be bought. Those who pay for higher education are enrolled in the private colleges. The major education services providers have earned billions of US dollars by enrolling international students. In the WTO parlance, it is called trade in higher education services in the name of consumption abroad (Mode-2). They (USA, UK, Australia and other students receiving countries) have 100 percent win situation by hosting international students. Amar’s view indicates that because of globalizing world, any country can earn by hosting international students and Nepal is not exception. So, students can migrate to study in any country of the globe. It can be concluded that Nepal needs to attract international students in Buddhism, philosophy, culture and other disciplines.

Employment Opportunities

Students were equally attracted by earnings. Many students also work in the destination more than the prescribed time (for example 20 hrs/week) to maintain their livelihood. From the survey, it was found that most of the students were pushed because of lack of employment opportunities in origin and pulled by employment opportunities in the destination. Amar Shah further states;

“Students were attracted by employment opportunities (legally or illegally). About 80 percent of the students go abroad in search of employment. (Field Note, Jan11, 2011).

Students are inclined to go to foreign countries not only for study but also for employment opportunities. In addition to study, they are entitled to work as well. Amar has hinted at the illegal works in which students are involved in. From the above statement it is clear that only 20 percent of students were real students and remaining students actually do not attend the classes and look for employment. These issues have been proved from the UK scandal (see case study 7). In the survey, many students stated that employment opportunity was the main pull factor of migration.

Quality Education

Students’ choice of abroad study is associated with quality education. One of the main causes of student migration to foreign countries is quality education. Although Pulchowk Engineering college, Maharajgunj and Dharan Medical colleges and KU impart quality education in Nepal, the majority schools and colleges are questioned by parents in connection with quality education. Referring to quality education, Amar said;

‘The top, genius and brilliant students go abroad in search of quality education and they should come back to Nepal by gaining knowledge for the betterment of the future if situation is favourable’.

The above statement indicates that only the brilliant students go abroad in search of quality education. However, even middle level students also are inclined to go to foreign countries and they cite quality education as the main cause. Therefore, not only the real students with best performances but also mediocre students aspire to migrate to study. He advises the students to return to Nepal for the betterment of the future if

situation is favourable. The favourable condition of Nepal attracts the outgoing students and the number of returnee students increases. The main cause of migration, according to Amar Shah, is stated to be lack of quality education which can be linked with push factor.

Brain Drain

The general meaning of “*brain drain*” is the movement of highly skilled person to developed countries in order to settle permanently. It is said that students studying in the USA, Australia and Canada do not return to Nepal after completion of their studies. In this connection, Amar Shah said: “*Each and every Nepali can earn name and fame in Nepal. However, second generation does not return to Nepal. Age is an important variable for going abroad. If a person crosses 40, he can do nothing in foreign countries*”.

The above expression has clearly indicated that students are unlikely to return to Nepal. He has raised two issues namely social prestige in origin and age that is associated with migration. Actually, anybody can be recognized as a reputed person if he returns to Nepal after completing his studies in the destination. Similarly, age is an important determinant of students’ mobility. As age increases, the tendency of migration decreases. Therefore, there is an inverse relationship between age and migration. Early migration means a migrant can reap more benefits.

Generally, both groups range between the ages of 20 to 30 years old. In the survey, it was found that 66 percent of potential students were between the ages of 18-21 years and, 30 years old just above 5 percent. Hence, Amar’s statement on the relationship between age and migration has been supported by this research and previous researches. Li et al.1996 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011 p. 59), compared the ‘migration

intention' of Hong Kong students, one group studying in Hong Kong and other in the UK. They found that 80 percent of total respondents intended to return to/ remain in Hong Kong following graduation from university.

Employment Status of Returnee Students

Whether returnee students have been employed or not is an interesting question. It has already been clarified that the number of returnee students is very low and unrecorded.

About the employment status of returnee students, Amar Shah categorically stated;

“I was offered a handsome salary in the USA but returned to Nepal to serve my motherland. Now, I am employed at a prestigious commercial bank as a chief executive. Most of returnee students work at commercial banks and some have run their own business”

Amar seems to assert that no returnee is unemployed. It has become a good sign that foreign-educated degree-holders are doing their best after returning to Nepal. He could have got a good position in the USA but returned after completing his studies. However, one pertinent question arises. Can Nepal offer employment to all those who return? The answer is simple in the negative way. Employment opportunities can be generated step by step if the political stability and peace is maintained in Nepal. Otherwise, she cannot absorb all returnee students since Nepal has limited sectors that can offer employment. The contribution of the public sector (through Public Service Commission) and private sectors to generate employment is very negligible.

The majority of students in Waters' (2008) study of HongKong immigrants in Canada returned to Hong Kong following their graduation, to seek work in the local

labour market (Brooks & Waters, 2011 p. 59). An overseas qualification does often lead to substantial labour market rewards (Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 11).

International Education Hub

Because of natural beauty, and diverse ethnic cultures, Nepal can possess the potentiality of international education hub for the study of cultures, tourism and religion. Moreover, Nepal has pleasant climate to attract international students. In connection with this, Amar shah proudly stated;

“An investment in educational infrastructure (physical capital) and human capital is suggested so that many foreign students could come to Nepal for studies since Nepal by the gift of nature has pleasant physical and environment condition as well as weather in order to attract them. However, investment in human capital takes longer time to reap the benefits. The world education can be offered in Nepal without going abroad”.

The above expression by Amar indicates that Nepal can offer the quality education of world renowned educational institutions at a cheaper price. Again, Nepal can be benefitted from the foreign currency brought by the international students so as to meet the deficit in the balance of payment due to outflow of the Nepalese students. Moreover, Nepal has pleasant weather and best to live in topographically. He gave an example of Manipal medical college in Pokhara where anybody can notice the changes (development) nearby college. So, Amar’s vision can be materialized if peace and tranquility prevail in the country and huge investment is made in the infrastructure of educational sectors eventhough a major chunk of the budget goes to education sector. A success story of a returnee student is presented in the box below.

Case study-five

Success story of a returnee student

Mr Amar Shah did BBA from George Washington University, USA and MBA from New Delhi. He comes of a highly privileged and diplomatic family. From the very beginning, he was a genius student and went to the USA for higher studies. After completing his education, he returned to Nepal and joined the banking sector. He holds the post of Chief of a commercial Bank of Nepal. He was offered a prestigious job abroad but returned to Nepal to serve the motherland expecting that he would do better in Nepal. He cheerfully expressed : “*Bideshmaa padhera gyaan aarjan garepacchi aafno deshmaa aayera tyo gyanlai laagu garnu parchha*” (After gaining knowledge abroad, we should return to Nepal and apply our knowledge and skills that we learnt).

His brother and relatives live in the USA but Mr Shah rejected many opportunities in the foreign countries and ventured into the commercial sectors in Nepal that led him to the highest echelon. Since 90 percent of students have been especially migrated to the USA and Australia, Mr Shah, however, returned to Nepal and proved to be a successful Manager of a commercial Bank. So, his wishes have been fulfilled. His suggestions like creating opportunities, commercialization of higher education (to attract foreign students), checking brain drain and investment in education would certainly create a conducive environment in Nepal as a result of which many students would return.

Not all students do settle in foreign countries has been proved from Shah’s return to Nepal. His success story would stimulate other non-returnee students to return and contribute to the nation. (Based on field note, Jan 11, 2011).

Returnee Student from Parental Perspectives

The number of students leaving Nepal for foreign countries can be found from Scholarship Section of the MoE and respective embassies. However, the number of returnee is not recorded yet so it is difficult to know the data for returnee students.

Parents had expressed their concerns about the return of their youngsters. Saraswotee expressed: “*Should peace prevail in the country, students would return to Nepal.*

However, employment opportunities ought to be created”. She linked peace and employment opportunities with returnee students. Conflicts and lack of security have

pushed the students as well as labour migrants out of country. In this connection, Dhiraj Adhikari viewed;

“There are three categories of the Nepalese students. Firstly, those who do not have any property in Nepal and will not return to Nepal. Secondly, the students of families of elite groups and business houses will return and have returned to Nepal and run their business here. Finally, our sons/daughters are in a fix in this matter. They compare between Nepal and abroad. However, the bottom line is that if there are chances of getting employment and security in Nepal, they would certainly return to Nepal. He cited the example of Indians who have returned to India because of economic boom and favourable condition”.

Dhiraj has categorically classified returnee into three groups out of which only well off families would return to Nepal. He, however, stated that employment opportunities and peace in the origin attract the students as in India and China where economies have boomed and research shows that many Indian and Chinese nationals have returned to their respective countries.

Students of the wealthy families return to Nepal after completing their studies. It has been validated by returnee students who were interviewed. He further states;

“Men generally need social prestige/recognition as mentioned by Maslow in his hierarchy of needs. So, the Nepalese students seek social prestige which they cannot achieve in foreign country. It means they return to Nepal after they have achieved all physical facilities in the long run”.

Citing the example of Maslow in his hierarchy of needs, Dhiraj Adhikari was confident that Nepalese students would return to Nepal and will have social prestige in

the society which they cannot find abroad. For example, the Non-resident Nepalese (NRNs) also frequently visit Nepal and serve the nation even from foreign countries. It can be concluded that students of middle level families do not return to Nepal immediately after their studies are completed but return later in order to achieve prestige in the society. In this regard, Raghu Nath Nepal said;

“Most of the students do not return to Nepal especially from the USA which is called ‘Land of Opportunities’. It is a brain drain. There are hardly some returnees to name a few such as Sabin Joshi, Deepak Bhandari, and Anil shah.”

Since the USA is called the land of opportunities, Raghunath confidently said that students from the USA do not return to Nepal. For this, he termed as brain drain. There were very few students who returned. However, he named a few returnees namely Sabin Joshi, Deepak Bhandari, and Anil shah who are from well off families. Anil shah is an Executive Director of a commercial bank of Nepal.

Returnee Students from Others’ Perspective:

Adhikary (2009) interviewed three students who returned to Nepal. The students viewed that they were returning to Nepal expecting an optimistic condition in the future despite existing desperate situation on the one hand and on the other vexed with boring and single life of the foreign countries. Pukar Malla, a PhD holder from Kernel University of the USA said that there were problems of attitude in Nepal. Another student Sagar, an engineer, said that if he had settled in the USA, he would have become a CEO of a company but would never have got self-satisfaction. However, he would have missed the open and wide world and the well managed life in the USA. There is neither open space nor a peaceful place to think of new idea so there is shortage of people who think out new

ideas in Kathmandu. Tsering Sherpa, a student of the Harvard University said that social relations would definitely pull a lot of students back to Nepal where networks and contacts play a major role. Nepali students from upper social strata may come back but others may choose to stay back as they may not have such wide reach in Nepal (The Himalayan Times, Aug15, 2010).

It can be concluded that talented students also are returning to Nepal in the hope of better future. However, a challenging job would be the major motivational factor for some students to come back to Nepal. For the returnees, social as well as economic factors play a leading role. Some of the students admitted that Nepal had potentials in all area. Returnee students have to think several times to come back to Nepal such as adaptation to Nepal after a long time abroad, risk of high paying career opportunities (The Himalayan Times, Aug15,2010). Political stability, creating conducive environment, economic development and reform in educational system are effective measures to pull Nepalese students back to Nepal.

Study Abroad in the BBC“Saajha Sabaal”

The BBC ‘Saajha Sabaal’ was aired on October 03, 2010 in Kathmandu in the Kantipur Television. The discourse covered the Nepalese students’ trends and motivation and problems faced by students in foreign countries. The programme was attended by Professors, NRNs and students and the Nepalese political leaders. All the participants viewed that the main reasons for going abroad (push) were lack of employment, career opportunities, and peace in the country. Similarly, load-shedding has also aggravated students to leave the country whereas opportunities, dream of the USA are the pull factors. Prof. Shiva Gautam of the Harvard University viewed that there was brain gain

rather than brain drain since one can serve the motherland by living in the USA. He said that students would gain knowledge even in Nepal. He, however, stated that there were no research facilities. He said, '*Students evaluate me in the USA*'.

Similarly, Uttam babu Shrestha opined that brain drain was common. One student said, '*I do not like to return to Nepal*'. Bhuvan, Dr. Shyam Karki (NRNs) demanded dual citizenship for them so that they would serve the country. According to C.P. Mainali, (Nepal CPM, Male), after the peace and constitution is drafted, Nepalese living abroad would return to Nepal. They cited Mahabir Pun who returned to Nepal. It can be concluded that opportunities, conducive environment and peace got the place for discussion so that Nepal could be benefitted from brain gain and economic gain.

Another "Saajha Sabaal" on the BBC was aired on 05 June, 2011 in London and identified some problems of the Nepalese students who were living in the UK in order to study. The problems were changes of disciplines, misguided by ECs in Nepal, lack of quality education at the private colleges of the UK; the Nepalese Mission was reluctant to help the students in getting refund from private institutions. Some viewed "*Anusandhaan nagari bideshmaa aauda dukha painchha*" (Students get into difficulties if they come to the UK without any information).

It means that students should know the status of the country, colleges, and the subject area and employment opportunities prior to leaving abroad. One of the students said that colleges deliberately get students failed for the sake of money. Very few students cited their success story and most of the students were not happy with their private colleges, study and unavailability of employment. Eak Narayan Pandey of Nawalparashi said "*Maile chha mahina samma aadha pet Khayera padhe, kaam paina*."

Ahile bis ghanta kaam payeko chhu “(I was unemployed for six months in the UK and I could not get sufficient food. Now, I am happy because I work for 20 hours per week). Dr. Padma Simkhada, Raju Thapa (advocate) and Mahendra Kandel (MD of a private college) answered the queries raised by the students. It was found that students selected the UK for study and earning. They viewed that student could migrate to study in any part of the world because of globalization.

In addition to the “Saajha Sabal”, ECAN higher education and career fair, 2010, ECAN educational fair (18-21 Aug, 2011) and UK education fair (Feb, 10-11, 2012) were held in Kathmandu in order to attract potential students for overseas study. I visited all the fairs and conducted an interview with the potential students. I observed their behaviours and discussed with them their planning to migrate to study. All the fairs aimed at the gateway to the world education.

Chapter Summary

Aspirations, expectations, and perception of potential, current and returnee students influence the motivation of students to go to foreign countries. Aspirations of the potential students were mainly analyzed in terms of study, work and both. The education-related aspirations included quality education, globally-recognized degrees, practical education, application of higher education, education-friendly environment, reputed university and advanced research facilities. The aspirations were mostly linked with the pull factors. Similarly, economic and social-related aspirations cited by the students were earning opportunities, better living standard, and supporting family.

Potential students expressed expectations and aspirations equally. The major expectations expressed by potential students are economic-motives (job opportunities

and career development); education-related motives (quality education associated with globally recognized degree, research facilities, choice of subjects and to explore hidden potentialities), and social and cultural motives. Current students specially focused on the opportunities available in the destinations. Returnee students enumerated reasons for migration such as increasing demand for higher education, coin rakers students, employment opportunities and quality education. They stated that students who come from high social strata and business community return to native land and students with middle level family stay in the destination and send remittances. The returnee students who were interviewed said that they were employed in the banking sectors. It was suggested that Nepal can be an international educational hub for international students. If the economy booms like that of China and India, the number of returnee students is likely to increase in Nepal. In addition to aspirations and expectations, perception of students were assessed in terms of push-pull factors such as quality education, research-based education, and land of opportunities as pull factors and conflict, insecurity, hartal, and low employment opportunities as push factors.

It was found that potential students' expectations and aspirations were yet to be fulfilled, current students' partially fulfilled and returnee students' completely fulfilled. The analyses showed that higher the aspirations and expectations, higher the chances of migration trends.

Finally, it was found that all types of students (potential, current and returnee) had high aspirations and expectations leading to motivation of migration. However, the fulfillment of aspirations and expectations differed. Par and Mok, 1995 (as cited in Rebecca, Zlatko & Mark, n.d) found that students from the Asian background had the

highest aspirations. The BBC “Saajhaa Sabaal” conducted a programme focusing on the current Nepalese students who were studying in the UK. The expressions of potential and returnee students published in the national newspapers have also been discussed in this chapter. The next chapter discusses others’ perception on student migration.

CHAPTER VII

OTHERS' PERCEPTION ON STUDENT MIGRATION

Chapter six analyzed the expectations, aspirations and perception of potential, current and returnee students from the standpoint of push pull factors of student migration. This chapter addresses the opinion of policy makers, parents and managing directors of educational consultancies. The purpose related to this chapter is to explore the perception of policy makers, parents and managing directors of educational consultancy concerning student migration. For this, the research question four reads as *“How do policy makers, parents and managing directors of educational consultancies (others' perception) observe student migration in the Nepalese context?”* Policy makers, parents and Managing Directors of educational consultancies are closely related to this research question so in-depth interviews were conducted in order to generate data on student migration.

Perception of Policy Makers/ Educationists

Government high officials of National Planning Commission, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Commerce and Supplies, Higher Secondary Education Board, Nepal Rastra Bank and University Grant Commission were involved as research participants. The views expressed by policy makers are analyzed thematically.

Opportunities as Main Reason for Migration

One of the main reasons for migration is stated to be opportunities. Students go abroad for opportunities that include education as well as employment, meeting international

students and for broad horizon. In this connection, one of the Members of National Planning Commission strongly said;

“The Nepalese students prefer to go to foreign countries for better education and opportunities which they lack in Nepal. Students go to the USA, Europe and Australia not only for education but also for opportunities” (Field note Feb 14, 2010). He further stated that lack of opportunities pushed the students abroad. This statement was also supported by a senior government official at the Ministry of Commerce and Supplies. He viewed opportunities as the main reason for student mobility. He fully supported student outflow and said that education was being expanded so they go for better education. It is true that lack of opportunities push the students and opportunities motivate students to migrate to study in the foreign countries. The pull factors support this theme since opportunities are the driving force of overseas study.

Quality Education

Parents have sent their son/daughter to foreign countries for quality education. About 13 percent of students in the survey claimed quality education as the main motivational factor for their outflow. Regarding quality education, Vice-chairman of the Higher Secondary Education Board said;

“Generally, developed countries provide quality education. We do not have quality education” (Field Note, March 25, 2010). Secretary at the Ministry of Education viewed that quality was the satisfaction of the students. If Nepalese students stay in Nepal, then this is the indicator of quality but this is not the case. Nepalese students do not see any future in Nepal because of political instability and rampant job scarcity. He, however, pointed out that there was no guarantee of quality of education in a foreign

country as well. So, it has become urgent to impart quality education to the students. The senior government official also accepted that there was no quality education in Nepal. The Governor of Nepal Rastra Bank, however, accepted that there was quality in some areas especially in technical education but poor quality in Humanities and Management. Similarly, there was low quality in teaching which should be made grade A.

A government official at the Scholarship Section of Ministry of Education, however, partially supported the view of the Governor and said; *“I am fully confident that quality education is not the major determinant of student migration”*. He said that there were other factors that stimulate students to go abroad. In this connection, an official of the UGC expressed that cream and the best students opt for quality education in foreign countries. He frankly stated that KU imparts quality education. However, TU handles 1,72,594 students whereas KU handles only 4,137 students (Eco.Survey 2009-10) then, how can we compare TU with KU regarding quality education. His statement indicates that to impart quality education, the number of students should be manageable. As an officer of the UGC, he focused on quality and employment aspects of student migration.

Although, quality education is interpreted in two different views, it has been ultimately accepted that Nepal lacks quality education in tune with international standard. Nevertheless, KU boasts of providing quality education. Earlier researchers found that quality education was a motivational factor of migration. For example, Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) viewed quality of teaching was a major factor stimulating students to study in developed countries. The above statement has been supported by Tuckman (as cited in Dean, Hunt, and Smith, 2006) who found the availability and quality of specific academic programme mattered highly among college students.

Employment Opportunities

Lack of employment opportunity was the main cause of the Nepalese student migration. Students were attracted to the destination countries with a view to getting employment. In this connection, an official at the MoE stated that the main reason for migration was lack of job opportunities in Nepal. Secretary at the MoE viewed: “*Shikshyaa ko pramukh udeshya kaam garnu nai ho*’ (The end result of education is to work). The statement indicates that working in foreign countries is natural and students should be employed in order to further their education. He further stated;

‘Had there been a better educational system backed by job availability in Nepal, students might not have moved to foreign countries. The consultancies earn by sending students to foreign countries in the name of employment guarantee. So, average students also are flocking to go abroad with a view to earning’.

The senior government official accepted the unavailability of job in Nepal and gave the example of educational consultancies through which the majority of students process their documents for study abroad programme. In reality, vexed with the unavailability of employment in Nepal, students believed in the sweet words of the consultancies for the employment guarantee in the UK, and, as a result, got into trouble when they landed there in 2009/10. Emphasizing the employment opportunities he said; “*Rastrale kaam dina sakena bhane maanishharu bidesh janchhan*” (People will go abroad if nation could not provide employment opportunities).

Going abroad for studies has been like a fashion and situation brought about by time, so he does not like to coin the word brain drain for students’ outflow. The official outrightly stated that students go abroad in search of employment opportunities rather

than studying. Therefore, going abroad for employment has been considered to be natural in the case of Nepal. An official of the UGC also emphasized on earning and said that the main reason for students' migration was lack of employment opportunities and political instability in Nepal and expressed employment opportunities as pull factors of migration.

The Secretary at the Ministry of Commerce and Supplies viewed employment like this: *“Uniharu Nepaalmaa berojgaari hunchhan tara bideshmaa rojgari paaunchhan bhane yo sakaaratmak pani ho* “(They are unemployed here, if they are employed in foreign countries, it is positive as well). His statement showed positive thinking about student migration and supported the trends of students going abroad. As a matter of fact, if students invest in education by working in foreign countries, it results in positive aspect in the longrun and benefits to both sending and receiving countries through remittances and brain gain respectively.

The Governor of Nepal Rastra Bank viewed; *“Jati bidyaarathi baahira gayekaa chhan padhna gayekaa chhoinan yo guarantee ho”* (It is guaranteed that all students who have gone abroad are not really students). He further stated that it was normal to go abroad on student visa. Students cannot pay the tuition fees and other expenses so they work. He also accepted that migrant students' motivation was first earning and learning was only a ticket to stay in the destination. Hence, he accepted that students' motivation to go to foreign countries is not only education but also working. Students were motivated by economic factors related to pull model.

Earning and Learning

Work and study, a twin purpose, is very common for the majority of Nepali students in foreign countries. One of the potential students during an interview viewed that he was planning to go abroad because work and study opportunities were available in the destination. But, such opportunities were not available in Nepal. Regarding this theme, policymakers have expressed their views. An official at the MoE said;

“The main reasons for migration were Bandha/strike, lack of job opportunities, and disturbances of classes frequently. So, they are motivated to migrate to earning and learning in the destination”.

The official stated the push and pull factors of migration. Students were pushed by strike, disturbances of class, and lack of job opportunities and pulled by earning and learning. Work to study migration lessens the burden of the parents who were supposed to send money in the destination. Similar view has been expressed by top official of HSEB. He said: *“Earning and learning were the first priority of the migrant students”.*

The statement made by top official reveals that students were motivated to migrate to earn and learn. They placed number one priority on work and then study. It is clear that without earning, it is not generally possible for them to continue their education in the destination. A senior official at the MoE also joined this view. The official of the UGC also supported the views that were expressed by previous policy makers on this theme and said;

“The number of students opting for education and earning is low and high respectively. If five hundred students went abroad, only two students study. To get enrolled at foreign colleges for them is mandatory (in order to continue the visa and be

legalized), actually they work on student visa. Moreover, they do not return to Nepal because of social security problem, political instability in origin, high earning capacity and quality of life style in the destination” (Field Note, Jan 20,2011).

The official emphasized on earning and categorically stated that most of the students prefer working and very small number of students study. The tag of student is their ticket to work legally as per the rules of the concerned country. He also cited some negative factors of migration that pushed them and positive factors of migration that pulled them. Hence, it is true that students work in foreign countries on student visa. Generally, they work and study in the USA, UK, Australia, Canada, Japan and NewZealand.

Hidden Agenda of Students

Students opting for foreign countries may have their hidden agenda that they want to fulfill when they reach there. In this connection, Secretary at the MoE said;

‘Working is a hidden agenda of students’.

The statement is profound. Education and work simultaneously go together. Students work to support their tuition fees and other educational expenses. Therefore, he supported the trends of students’ outflow in the globalized context and earning as a hidden agenda of the students. As a matter of fact, every student’s hidden agenda is work so as to earn their livelihood and meet the college fees. Therefore, every policymaker has supported this theme directly or indirectly. Farrer (2007, 2009) in her research found Chinese student migration to Japan namely non-academically intended “coin-rakers” (education as a ticket to enter the borders in low wage labour market and studying was a front and making money was the real motivation).

Brain Drain

Brain drain is the outflow of talented and educated manpower in order to settle permanently. It has become a great loss to most developing countries. Some researchers prefer to name it as brain migration. All policy makers during the interview have raised this theme. In this regard, the NPC Member having accepted brain drain as a problem cited with example;

“Unless Nepal improves its own situation in terms of security, economic prosperity, brain drain remains as a problem. It was the case with China, India and Malaysia which made it reverse. So, Chinese and Indian returned to their respective countries after their economies’ recovery and progress”.

He further stated;

“What can our nation get if students, to whom the government has spent on their education up to Plus 2, plan to migrate to higher studies? The best and talent students are lured by foreign countries (especially, USA/UK/Australia to name a few) so they gain but we lost the brightest students”.

The statement made by the NPC Member claims lack of security and economic prosperity in the country. In reality, Nepal experienced a decade long insurgency followed by political instability as a result of which a democratic constitution has not been drafted yet. Had there been guarantee of security, employment opportunities and good educational environment, students would not opt for going abroad. Many educated Chinese and Indian people had left the country in search of high salary and standard of living. These two giant economies have achieved double economic growth which attracted their people from foreign countries. So, the people of these countries have

started returning to their native land. He further stated that it was foolishness to invest to the best students who will not stay in Nepal and go to foreign country and settle there. Similarly, secretary at the Ministry of Commerce also has raised the issue of brain drain and suggested creating opportunities in the country so that they would come back to Nepal. He viewed;

“Most of the students who have been migrated to especially the USA and Australia do not return to Nepal after completion of their studies as a result of which Nepal has been losing skilled manpower in the form of brain drain. The students of wealthy families’ return to Nepal. However, sons/daughters of the middle level families’ generally do not return. For this, opportunities should be created so that they would come back to Nepal. For instances, tourism/ hotel management can generate employment opportunities”.

The policy maker suggesting to check the brain drain stated that most of the students bound for the USA and Australia do not return to Nepal after completing their studies. So, he has raised the issue of brain drain from Nepal since Nepal is still unable to curtail it. He divided the parental status into wealthy and middle level, the formers’ sons/daughters return to Nepal and laterers’ sons/daughters’ do not return to Nepal. This statement can be validated from the returnees’ responses when they were interviewed. They stated that the students of rich families returned whereas the students of middle level families did not return. Economically, it has been a great loss to the nation.

The Government official at MoE was of the view that after completion of their studies, they return to Nepal provided the nation attracts them. He suggested that Government should make a policy in such a way that they would be tempted to return to

Nepal. For this, human resource planning is necessary in order to attract them. For example, NRNs frequently come to Nepal because of their motherland's love. Vice-chairman of HSEB also supports the above views on brain drain. He stated;

“Medical ra engineering maa chhatra britti diyera padhaainchha tara u bideshmaa nai janchha, rajyele roknu parthyo, rajyele lagani garyo tara u sachhyam bhayera gayeko bhanchha”(Students are awarded with scholarship in medical and engineering but they go abroad. The state could have retained them. The state invested in his/her education but their version is that they are competent and went abroad).

In reality, Government invests in the education of migrant students but they go to foreign countries without giving any return to the state. So, it is said that a receiving country gets the benefits without a single penny investment in their education. It has been termed as *“brain gain”*.

The Governor of NRB has joined the above statement pleading for regulating the outgoing students. He said that the outflow of talented students had caused a loss to the nation. So, Government could also control the exodus of students to whom the state had invested in. He, however, viewed that a student can transfer his knowledge and skills back to their country of origin by residing in foreign countries as well.

His statement indicates that some students return to Nepal. He raised three issues firstly, brain drain as a loss to the nation, secondly limiting the number of students to go abroad and lastly state losses not only brain drain but also brain gain/ circulation.

Similarly, an official at UGC accepted brain drain and said;

‘Students securing 90 percent marks go to the USA and do job as a doctor and securing 60 percent marks, they work in Nepal. Talented, cream and quality people do

not live in Nepal. It is a big loss for Nepal. Quality of service is poor and going to be degraded in Nepal. A student with distinction marks holder can give more quality service than 2nd class student but former students migrate abroad then we are deprived of services given by that of distinction holder students” (Field Note, Jan 20, 2011).

The official of the UGC has really sketched the real picture of the nation. The highly skilled people work in foreign countries. So, the service provided by skilled manpower (passed in 2nd or pass division) has also been often questioned in quality of service. Hence, the official views the best and talented student migration as a loss to the nation. The Secretary at MoE, however, put opposite views and said that he did not like to coin the word “brain drain” for students’ migration.

The previous researches have been conducted by applying the brain drain theory. Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006) have stated that the Western societies cream off the best potential students from the developing countries and when they stay they add human capital to their host countries. Anthias (2008) has referred to the ‘brain drain’ as a theoretical framework and has stated that student migration has also been often viewed as a category of skilled migration which constitutes a loss of human capital for developing countries.

The loss of skilled people in the form of brain drain has been seen as brain gain and brain circulation these days. The Governor during an interview viewed that the outflow of students does not result in brain drain but brain circulation. In this globalized world, no country can check the flow of students who can contribute to the nation from abroad. For instance, some of the Nepalese students have achieved an excellent educational performance (especially in the USA) that has established the name and fame

of Nepal in the international arena. Very talented Nepalese students have got employment at the NASA. They have transferred knowledge and skill and sent remittances as well.

Hence, there is also a bright side of the brain drain.

Migration as a Global Phenomenon

This is the age of globalization and migration is associated with it since migration is the movement across national boarder. Similarly, migration for higher education has been common because of globalization process. Hence, globalization, migration and higher education are interlinked. In this connection, one of the members of NPC observed;

‘Ahileko samayemaa haami kasailai pani bidesh jaana baata rokna sakdainou’

We cannot prevent anybody from going abroad because of the globalized world (Field note Feb 14, 2010). NPC Member strongly put his view that student migration is inevitable in the globalized world. Due to the globalization process, there are high chances of mobility leading to brain drain.

The expression of policy maker signals the inevitability of student migration in the globalized world. Similar view has been expressed by the Governor of Nepal Rastra Bank who termed student migration as a natural process because no country can specialize in education in any field. An official at the MoE stated that students go abroad for foreign degree and want to be saleable in the international market. He said that exposure to international market was also another reason for migration. He viewed that abroad study was a right of student. It means we cannot prevent them from going abroad. Similarly, the Secretary of MoE viewed;

“Globalization was the main reason for student mobility. The concept of ‘global citizen’ has come forward. It is a part of globalization or it is a global phenomenon. Going abroad is also a personal choice”.

The above expression by senior government official endorses that student migration is a part of globalization since every person is a global citizen today. In other words, migration is a global phenomenon and natural as well. The flow of students can not be controlled in this global village. For example, after the 1990’s when the Nepalese Government adopted the liberalization and privatization policy in the globalized context, the number of students to opt for higher education in foreign countries has increased dramatically.

Commercialization of Higher Education

In this age of privatization, liberalization and globalization, higher education has been seen as a business. Globalization of education has been commoditization of institution of higher learning. Bassette (2006) explores that higher education is viewed as a private good to be paid for by the student. In this connection, one of the Members of NPC expressed: *“Higher education is a private property. Those who cannot afford for education opt for an open university”.* He further stated: *“In this knowledge society, it is natural that higher education is like something you can sell and buy. He has supported the privatization/ commercialization of higher education which is like a good and service that any person can buy and consume it.”*

The above statement indicates that higher education is treated as a commercial product that can be bought and sold. Those who are from higher social status go to private colleges that sell the services. Vice Chairman of HSEB viewed higher education

as an industry. The Governor of NRB stated education as a trade in services like trade in goods. He viewed commercialization of higher education. Student migration, (expenses on education as an investment for the future) is known as mode two (consumption abroad) in the trade in higher education services under the WTO.

The Secretary at Ministry of Commerce and Supplies emphasized on education service trade through value added which ultimately results in positive impact in the economy. So, knowledge economy plays an important role in the society. Regarding Mode 2 (consumption abroad) in trade in higher education services, he gave his opinion that Nepal should attract foreign students like India where world renowned Oxford/Harvard Universities' branches would be established (institution mobility-mode-3) with the same courses of studies, as a result, students would get the foreign degree at low costs. For this, Nepal has to change its education system by giving top priority to private schools.

From the above statement, it can be concluded that higher education, considered to be a low rate of return as compared to primary and secondary education, can be bought like any other commercial goods. In the name of trade in higher education services, receiving countries (exporter of education services/ import international students) earn billions of dollars by enrolling international students (importer of education services).

Higher Education Policy

A broad guideline endorsed by the Government relating to a particular area is known as policy. Higher education policy guides the activities and ways relating to higher education. One of the Members of NPC viewed that there was no higher education policy in Nepal. He further stated that higher education should be commercialized so a good

higher education policy followed by an Umbrella Act is necessary to regulate Universities. Similarly, one of the Government officials at MoE paralled the same view. Vice-chairman of HSEB boldly viewed;

“We did not have road map due to lack of a long term higher education policy which needs what(vision), where (destination), why(to regulate higher education) and how (strategy). The country needs prospective higher education policy. It must be innovative and resource based. Higher education policy should be comprehensive and commitment of all political parties (common document). It should be consistent with other education policy”.

He also accepted that there was no longterm higher education policy that should address the questions of what, where, why and how. It is clear that resources are needed to implement HE policy on the one hand and implementability on the other. The policy should be acceptable to all political parties in order to effectively implement it. He cited the example of SSRP that has lost its credibility. So, higher education policy should be a common document. Therefore, he emphasized the urgent need of higher education policy. The views expressed by him necessitated the longterm higher education policy in order to develop and facilitate higher education system based on demand-driven.

The Secretary of MoE, however, accepted the fragmented HE policy and stated;

“Higher Education Policy of the Government has been fragmented such as in periodic Plan document and Education Act. It does not exist in one form. So, this is a high time for formulating this policy in an integrated form concerning all these issues. The main problem of higher education in Nepal was highly politicized and corrupt behaviors of students’ union. It is the result of privatization in education”.

The Secretary of Education clearly put his view on policy which exists but in a fragmented way. It has become an urgent to integrate it into one. He, however, was against the behaviours of students' union and privatization of education. It is clear that he supported the social security measures especially in education and health. In this regard, the Secretary at Ministry of Commerce and Supplies suggested such a higher education policy that would attract foreign students in Nepal so that she would have positive balance of trade in higher education services. Hence, he viewed higher education as a service trade angle.

From the qualitative interviews with senior Government officials, it is evident that higher education policy, Job creation and attracting foreign students in the origin were the main issues. One of the officials said that there was higher education policy in the scattered form which should be brought in a combined form. Nepal did not grab the opportunity of commercialization of higher education services due to lack of policy and willpower of the politicians and bureaucrats. For example, students from foreign countries (Bangladesh) have been enrolled at KU. So, Nepal can become a hub for international studies on Buddhism and the Himalayas.

In conclusion, they viewed that Nepal needed policy and investment to attract foreign students. For example, the University of Buddhism can attract thousands of foreign students from different Buddhist countries if attractions are provided to them. It is clear that there is no separate higher education policy like other policies such as Industrial Policy or Tourism Policy. However, National Plan Documents, Education Act and SSRP are policies that guide higher education. So, all scattered policies relating to higher education should be brought together and made a concrete HE policy.

Human Resources Planning

Human resource planning is the process of determining manpower requirements for a country. In other words, it is forecasted how many doctors, engineers, scientists, administrators and other skilled persons a country needs. Regarding this theme, an official at MoE strongly suggests human resources planning with sectoral coordination of the Ministries of Education, Finance and NPC. The Vice Chairman of HSEB stated that there should be a manpower projection. A similar view has been expressed by the Secretary of MoE and suggested human resources development in the country. The Secretary of MoCS stated;

“Human resources development policy as well as higher education policy are urgently needed to attract foreign students in Nepal so that Nepal would have positive balance in trade in higher education services” (Field Note, Jan 28, 2011).

The Secretary said that Nepal jointly needed human resources policy and higher education policy in order to attract foreign students in Nepal. With the arrival of foreign students, Nepal also will earn foreign currency. From the above expressions of the policy makers, the need of human resources planning has been felt in the country urgently. She neither has an Umbrella Act to regulate higher education nor human resources planning to forecast the demand and supply of skilled manpower.

In Nepal, manpower planning is hardly done in the Government offices. The NPC has established a Human Resources Division in order to plan the skilled person for the development of the country. After a gap of long periods, demand and supply of skilled manpower (especially- doctors, nurses, engineers, and scientists) have been projected for the three years plan periods (The Three Years Plan 2010-11/2012-13, pp.69- 70).

Parents' Perception

Parental view plays an important role in this research because of their involvement in the migration process. How do they perceive student migration since they influence the migratory behavior of their youths? Some of the parents did not support student migration whereas some parents fully supported this because they have chances of visiting foreign country frequently. They further viewed that safety and security for their sons/daughters are guaranteed in the destination.

Security and Threat

Nepal experienced a decade long insurgency as a result of which security has been one of the grave issues. Intimidation, donation, abduction and murder are stated to be common. Because of lack of security, there is very nominal foreign direct investment and domestic investment also is negligible leading to slow economic growth. On the issue of security and threat, Saraswotee Baral expressed the view:

‘College gayekaa chhuraa chhoree bhare gharmaa pharkera aaunchhan aaudainan tungo chhaina yo deshmaa’ (There is no certainty in Nepal that our college-goer son/daughter would return home in the evening).

Her expression seems to be very grave so she stated that because of lack of security in Nepal, all her youngsters (two sons and a daughter) have been studying in Australia. She viewed that Australia is safe for them. Sarawotee's expression reflected real situation of Nepal. She was fully confident that their future would be bright in the destination. For this, she had compromised and wished them safe in foreign countries. So, she was ready to die for their costs as well. Her husband also supported her in this matter.

Dhiraj Adhikary and Raghunath Nepal also joined her and said that conflict and insurgency were main reasons for going abroad. However, Sharada Poudel of Chitwan did not see the conflict as the main problem and expressed a divergent view and said that she did not actually encourage her son to go to the USA. Nevertheless, security and safety problem in Nepal caused student migration. It can be concluded that most of the parents' concern was security problem in Nepal and, as a result of which, the outflow of migrant students continued.

Unemployment

The main push factor of migration is lack of employment opportunities in Nepal. Student migrants as well as labour migrants have left the country because of lack of employment opportunities in Nepal. Referring to unemployment, Sharada Poudel stated;

“Yahaa kaam chhaina, system chhaina” (There is no work and system in Nepal).

She clearly viewed that there was no employment opportunity and system in Nepal.

Were there availability of jobs in Nepal, students would hardly go abroad. She further stated;

“ Paisaa kamaayera Nepalmaa pharkera aaune”(Earn money and return to Nepal). She emphasized on economic motive rather than education. She was very grave about the mobility of the brightest and the best students who have gone abroad and suggested that industries should be established so that employment would be generated. She wished her another son to remain in Nepal instead of going to foreign countries. Other parents like Raghunath Nepal and Ishwor Bashyal accepting rising unemployment in Nepal stated that the main reason for student migration was lack of job opportunity. Ishwor Bashyal quoted Dr. Daya Nanda Bajracharya as saying that Nepalese students should stay in

foreign countries by accepting any job rather than coming to Nepal. This statement shows rampant unemployment situation in Nepal.

Bidesh Jaane Lahar (Tendency of Going Abroad)

It has been common to go abroad in order to study. The trends of going abroad can be noticed if anybody visits the Ministry of education where potential students, aspiring to go to foreign countries, line up to take NOC. Such types of trends have led to rise in the number of students every year. In this connection, Saraswotee Baral stated student migration as a “*Dekhasekhee bidesh jaane lahar*” (Trends of going abroad by looking at other). The expression indicates that students go to foreign countries not really for studies. A similar view has been expressed by Ishwor Bashyal who said student mobility as “*Bidesh Jaane lahar*” (A trend of going abroad). In this connection, Mitchel, 1997 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011) has described as the “self-fashioning” of Chinese elites, providing embodied cultural capital, including children into the mores of a cosmopolitan middle- class lifestyle. This expression reveals that every student wants to go to foreign countries. There are some specific causes of migration but “*Bidesh jaane lahar*” is a psychological effect among students and parents from the push factor side. Similarly, Dhiraj stated,

“We learned from books, teachers, parents and senior citizens (vertical) but these days students learn (gain knowledge) from the horizontal source i.e. peer groups. They follow their friends more than their parents”.

Generally, students follow the path of their peers and believe in them so the fashion of going abroad is one of the reasons for supporting their friends. They learn about the foreign countries from their friends. That is why many students’ choice of

studying in foreign countries can be attached with the Nepali proverb of “*lahai lahai maa laagnu*” (To follow unknown path). Many students during an interview expressed that they were thinking to migrate to study because all their relatives/friends were also going to the destination. Similarly, Raghunath Nepal has linked “*Bidesh jaane lahar*” with the crazy mind of the students to see the world. Theoretically, push factor and social network supported the data.

Globalization

Globalization and student migration are synonymously discussed. Both are linked with each other. It has been stated that migration is a result of globalization. Migration is one of the components of globalization. For example, the rate of migration increased after the 1980’s. Student migration is, however, not limited to any particular country but has extended to all countries globally. In this connection, Adhikari viewed;

“The student mobility is a result of globalization. In this globalized world, we are in the borderless society. There are many potentialities of development in Nepal like banking, tourism, hotel management, hydropower and herbal plantation”.

He attributed students’ mobility to globalization because Nepal can get the benefits of the globalized world. Because of boarderless economy, she can develop the potential areas like tourism, hydropower and other service sectors (in this case higher education). Adhikari further added;

. ‘Changes in society are due to the globalization process. It is also an opportunity for the career development of our youngsters. ‘Haami gaaumaa baseko bhaye kehi hudoinathyo’ (Had we lived in the countryside, we could do nothing).

His statement revealed that every change in the society was brought in by the globalization process which has created the opportunities for outgoing students. In reality, the number of the Nepalese students' outflow has increased dramatically due to the globalized world. The people from rural areas move to town, then capital city and lastly international cities. Adhikari's view clearly indicated that people should move to cities in order to progress and enjoy happy life. He further stated; "*Nepaalko bazaarlaai maatra herera shikshya dinu hudaina. Ahile bishwobyapikaran ko jamaana aayekochha*" (We should not impart education by taking into account Nepal's market. This is the age of globalization). The above statement has given the lesson that Nepal should prepare skilled manpower according to the needs of the global market. Furthermore, syllabus also should be changed in tune with the global demand. So, introduction of new subjects, new syllabus, choices of subjects and skilled teachers are today's demand.

Psychological Cost

Psychological costs, also known as non-economic costs, include missing friends, families and homely surrounding. For example, if students go abroad, they are separated from their families, and, as a result, they miss parents and other member of families, friends and surrounding. Similarly, parents miss their sons. In extreme cases, psychological cost exceeds economic cost. However, non-economic cost is difficult to measure. Home sickness is normal for students who are away from home. Most of the parents during an interview said that they missed their children. However, they managed to adjust to the situation easily in the name of their youths' progress and prosperity or career opportunities. One of the parents said that she daily chats with her daughter as well as sons on laptop in order to lessen the psychological costs. Similarly, Dhiraj Adhikari said,

“We should try our best to minimize social damage and be flexible, meet our son/daughter in the USA from time to time in order to maintain our social ties. We have to promote them and counseling is very necessary.”

The above statement gives the lesson of minimizing social damage, meeting the youths in the destination in order to minimize the social cost, and encouraging and counseling the youngsters. But, these suggestions can only be applied when the parents are better off and educated.

Quality Education/Globally Accepted Degree

About two third of the parents in the interviews have raised the issue of quality education. They supported that their daughters/sons have been migrated to study because of lack of quality education in the origin and the availability of quality education in the destination. Adhikari was of the view that there was no globally accepted degree in Nepal. However, quality is being improved. Raghunath Nepal accepted that there was lack of quality education in Nepal. So, students go abroad for quality education and globally accepted degrees.

He, however, said that it was a completely wrong choice of the parents to send their youths to foreign countries before graduation. He cited the example of Maharajgunj medical and Pulchowk engineering colleges where quality education is better than the third Grade College of the USA. Nevertheless, he was of the view that there were very limited educational institutions that provide quality education in Nepal.

He suggested that Nepal should establish quality education institutions which can also attract students from the South Asian countries because of conducive environment (good climate) from Ilam to Dadeldhura in the name of education tourism. Hence,

Raghunath Nepal wanted to improve quality education in order to initially attract at least the students from the South Asian countries (Mode-2), establishment of the branches of world renowned educational institutions (Mode-3). Ishwor Bashyal, however, viewed from another perspectives about quality education. He stated that schools claimed to provide quality education to the students but parents did not believe it. He is right in the sense that every Nepali educational institution especially private school and college claim to provide quality education but the degrees awarded by them are not globally recognized. So, students's choice for foreign countries to study is linked with quality education with globally accepted degrees. In this connection, Brooks and Waters (2011, p. 109) viewed that a degree from a recognized British or North American university represents valuable cultural capital.

Brain Drain

If educated and skilled people go abroad from developing country to developed county for permanent settlement with employment, it is called brain drain. In this situation, the receiving country (developed) benefits from the educated manpower and sending country (developing) loses both educated manpower and resources that they invested in their education. Raghunath Nepal accepted brain drain since students do not return to Nepal. He cited the example of his son Pramod Nepal who has been living in the USA for the last 20 years. Other parents also supported Raghu Nath's view about the brain drain. It is a burning issue because thousands of students have migrated but the returnee rate is very negligible. Moreover, there are no records for those students who return to Nepal after completing their studies in the destination. A case study of a happy parents whose all youngsters live in Australia is presented in box 6 below.

Case study six

Cheerful Parents

Sharaswoti Baral has been living with her husband in Baneshwor, Kathmandu. She is a housewife and her husband works as an officer in a Govt-owned corporation. She is from a well off family with many Moujaa (land) in Janakpur. Her two sons and a daughter have already migrated to study in Australia. She has visited Australia two times. Although she has been living with her husband without daughter and sons, she is happy.

Sketching grave security condition of Nepal, She said; “*Haameeharu marepani chhora chhoree bideshmaa basebhane uniharu baachchhan*” (Even if we die, our sons and daughter living in foreign country would be alive). Her expression reflects the grave situation of the country. However, she remembers her youngsters especially during festivals and she lies on the bed. Actually, this psychological cost (missing the family) can not be offset with physical amenities. If she feels homesick, she opens the laptop and chats with her sons and daughter.

During one hour interview, she was not in a pensive mood for being alone with no sons and daughter in Nepal. She was happy and proud of her sons and daughter. She stated that there was a chance of going to Australia again if her sons and daughter settle there. She wishes her youngsters coming to Nepal from time to time.

To conclude, the case reflected the real situation of Nepal where security has been a big issue. Saraswoti’s social prestige, remittances sent by her youngsters and her broad horizon after visiting Australia would certainly benefit her and society as a whole. However, social costs to her can not be measured.

Consequential of student migration

Devghat in Chitwan district is famous for Briddhaashram. Briddhashram is such a place where elderly people are looked after. Those parents, whose youngsters are not living with them, opt for such a place to live in. In the Nepalese society, son is supposed to serve the parents when they become old.

According to Wagle (2011), the trend of students mobility shows that the home of migrated students has become a place for ‘*Briddhashram*’ (home for the elderly people). The Nepalese society has been completely changed from joint family to nuclear family and now to Briddhashram due to students’ movement. Parents live in their house lonely. One of the parents (Dhiraj Adhikari) revealed;

“In the extreme case, elite families have managed the “Briddhaashram” for their parents at Devghat in Chitwan. Like in the Western society, I have also booked for an apartment in Lalitpur. Therefore, the Nepalese life style has completely changed due to the students’ mobility”.

The expression by Adhikari reveals the changed social situation in Nepal. Generally, sons are far away from the parents who are forced to look for an alternative measure that is “Briddhaashram”. Since Dhiraj Adhikari’s only one son has been living in the USA, he (Dhiraj) is moving to the apartment house in Lalitpur. In the Western society, elderly people live in a big apartment because their sons do not live with them after a certain periods of their age. He further states;

“Student migration has resulted in new problems as we are alone in Nepal. On the one hand, they cannot get our affection, on the other “Haamro kahi saahaaraa chhoina (We are helpless). Since we do not have social security measures, it has further aggravated our social ties.

Like other families (whose sons/daughters are in foreign countries), the Adhikary family also is feeling loneliness and stated that their son lacked love and care from them and there was no body to take care of them. He gave an example of the Western and some developed society with social security measures. Regarding the family separation,

Raghunath Nepal cited an example and stated that former Chief Secretary of the Government of Nepal lives in an apartment due to loneliness at home. Generally, isolation, frustration, depression, and monotonous among the parents have been noticed because there is no one to take care of them during the old age.

Ishwor Bashyal said;

“Haamilai aayera paala bhandaa unihareuko pragati rokinne bho. Teshaila Nepalmaa aayera basa bhanna saktainou. Haamile chhoraalaai bidesh gayepani samaye samaye maa Nepal aana sallaha dinchhou. (If they live in Nepal and take care of us, their progress might be stopped. So, we cannot force our youths to live in Nepal because there is no job opportunities. However, we advise our son to go to foreign countries and come to Nepal from time to time).

The above statement made by Ishwor clearly reveals that parents are very much conscious of their son's career opportunity and advised him to come to Nepal frequently in order to offset the psychological costs. In other words, Ishwor heartily supported his son's mobility with a view to developing his career and bright future. From the social point of view, family is a source of power especially in Nepal. Sons/daughters take care of their parents; children are reared and brought up in a joint family. Moreover, social network/social capital is very important.

Perception of Managing Directors of Educational Consultancies (ECs)

Educational consultancies are registered in Nepal with a view to providing proper information, guidance and counselling to students and guardians who are planning to send their children abroad for further education (ECAN, 2009). Educational consultancies play a very sensitive role as they work as a bridge between local students and their

destination to study in a foreign land (NECA, 2009). So, the objective of ECs is to serve as a link between Nepali students seeking education and universities abroad. These consultancies are responsible for arranging documentations, ticketing and job in the destination. Generally, there are two wings in every EC such as academic (to conduct languages classes) and counselling. It is estimated that more than 90 percent of the students go abroad through ECs.

Role of ECs

ECs (a student counselling service) provide counsel service to students willing to pursue study in national and foreign Universities and colleges. Citing the role of ECs, the Director of Sheffield Educational Consultant, Narayangarh said that they worked as a link between parents and university abroad. They are the medium/ agent of students who plan to go abroad for higher education. In the same way, proprietor of Nuffic Educational Consultancy, Putali Sadak stated that talented students go abroad themselves. However, medium students visit the ECs for counselling and language classes.

She further added “*Purna rupmaa haamro pesaa sichhyaa nai ho*”(Totally, our profession is education). Similarly, President of NECA as well as MD of City Education Consultants, Bagh Bazar described the role of ECs as as a facilitator for the students. In other words, EC works as a bridge between the students and the educational institutions abroad. General Secretary, ECAN and Managing Director (MD), Brilliant Education and Career Services Pvt. Ltd , Putali Sadak said that ECs provide counselling and facilitate in connection with study abroad like searching for college, getting enrolled, providing offer letter and information on visa documents. In addition to these, test preparation (IELTS, TOEFL) is also an important activity of the EC. MD of Global Reach and president of

NAAER viewed the role of ECs as a facilitator between students and education institutions abroad. He further stated that ECs provide information like fees, universities, visa procedures and area of studies.

Above expressions by different MD of ECs revealed that ECs provide education-related services like counseling, conducting English classes and other services. In fact, they work as a mediator between potential students and foreign colleges and Universities. In addition to commission provided by foreign universities, a service charge of Rs 15,000 is made to all students. ECs provide potential students counselling about universities, fees, subject area, climate, job possibilities, hostel and other related subject. In addition to counseling, they run classes like TOEFL, IELTS, SAT and GMATS. So, all MDs have voiced EC as a bridge between potential students and educational institutions of foreign countries. There is a tripartite involvement in student migration. EC provides guidelines, students prepare the documents, and parents bear the financial responsibilities.

However, some pessimistic views have been presented with the case study of the UK. Although ECs work as a facilitator role, guidance and running English classes for potential students, some of them are said to have demonstrated unethical activities. Some of the MDs categorically said, firstly, the managers of the EC assured the students everything, secondly, they recommended foreign universities the subject that students have not studied, thirdly, some of the MDs of ECs chose this sector in order to earn money, fourthly, working area of EC was not clear, fifthly, the qualification of consultant was questionable, sixthly, consultants, who were failure in other areas, were running this business, seventhly, imitation of what others did, eighthly, burgeoning the business in quantity but not in quality, ninthly, no mechanism to monitor ECs from the government

side and lastly, ECs charged students more money than prescribed by the ECAN and NECA. However, ECAN has published code of conduct, 2006. For instance, I was told by a father in Bharatpur that his daughter had to return to Nepal from the Heathrow airport because the subject she selected to go to the UK for was not offered to her. In this case, the ECs charged more commission and helped prepare fake documents.

The MDs of ECs should be an educated person who should be able to guide the students properly. The proprietor of Nuffic EC said that talented students go abroad themselves. However, medium students visit the ECs for counseling and language class. She suggested that only talented students should go abroad. Referring to the case of the UK in 2009/10, some of the MDs of ECs said that they were not responsible for that incident and said;

“ *Belayatle bidyarthi lageko ki janasanghaya lageko*” (Whether the UK has pulled the students or population). The expression can be interpreted as, the receiving country (UK) could have pulled only talented students but students with second division marks also went to the UK by availing of the opportunities that were provided by the UK Government. So, thousands of students were granted the UK visa. Many students were stranded in the UK following the closure of the bogus colleges in which they had been admitted. A case study is presented below.

Case study seven

Who is to blame?

The British Boarder Agency decided not to accept new visa application from February 01, 2010 from Nepali, Bangladeshi and North Indian students citing unexpected rise in the number of students. It was decided due to a huge inflow of fake and unqualified students aspiring to work rather than study in the UK. The UK Boarder Agency had also suspended registration of 200 bogus colleges in England leaving thousands of Nepalese students stranded. The suspension of below standard colleges has resulted in the loss of millions of foreign currency of Nepalese students. “Those students who come to the UK will get quality education not for work. The door is open to those international students who want to come and study in the UK on legal basis’ (UK Home Secretary, Alan Johnson as quoted in Kantipur, Feb 08, 2010).

As of now, over 10,000 Nepali students have already made it to different UK colleges for study Home Secretary (as cited in the Kantipur, Feb 08, 2010). It has been claimed that the UK has been number two prestigious country for higher education. UK annually earns 5 to 8 million pounds through international students (Kantipur; Feb 08, 2010; Republica, February 09, 2010).

The students had applied for the visas under the Point-based system of Tier-4. It is not yet certain whether Rs.1.75 billion sent by the Nepalese students to illegal Universities and colleges will be refunded or not.

Regarding the number of the Nepalese students, a total of 19,919 had applied and 12,388 were granted the UK visa in 2009 under the Tier-4 (UK Border Agency, Visa Customer Services, Croydon, UK, 2010). This was the highest number of students who got the visa to migrate to study in the UK. It is said that the suspended colleges were of low quality and they did not follow Governments’ rules and regulations. However, the UK Government has relaxed the student visa for those who are genuine students and who study instead of working. The UK home secretary Theresa May (as quoted in Republica March 24, 2011) said “The most significant migrant route to Britain is the student route. And so we must take action here too”. From the above statement, it is obvious that students migrated to the UK in the name of education. Since many Nepalese students faced difficulties and spent millions of foreign currency in the name of admission at low standard colleges in the UK, who is to blame? Educational consultancies or students themselves or the parents or the Government?

All four participants (student, parent, EC, and Govt.) are involved in this issue. During the interviews, one of the students expressed his view that he was planning to migrate to foreign

countries not for study but for work since there was no employment opportunity in Nepal. Parents always want their children to be educated at a reputed college (highly trusted, trusted, A rating, and B rating colleges in the UK) in foreign countries. However, parents hardly visit the ECs in order to enquire about study abroad programme. The main duty of educational consultancies is to give proper counseling to the students about reputed colleges, subjects to be taught, tuition fees, and other requirements of the University/college. More than 90 percent of the students had gone to the UK through different educational consultancies. From the government perspective, there is still no integrated form of higher education policy and the government has not brought out any regulations on ECs. However, a higher education bill (umbrella act covering all universities) has been tabled in the parliament.

Finally, the case study indicated that on the one hand, students need to know detailed information about destination countries and on the other parents should think several times before sending their children to foreign countries. The role of MoE and ECs was very vital in this case. MoE could find out the genuine colleges through the Nepalese Mission in London before issuing the NOC and ECs did not properly give advice to the students. Consequently, students' career was ruined and millions of foreign currencies were wasted. Hence, all participants should get a lesson from the UK's case in 2009-10.

Lack of Higher Education Policy/ Guidelines for ECs

All educational stakeholders demanded a concrete higher education policy in the country.

In this connection, Director of Sheffield Educational Consultant said that there were no policy/regulations for EC. It would have been easy to work if there were policy.

Referring to the strong demand of the policy, proprietor of Nuffic Educational

Consultancy viewed that the Government should firmly commit to formulating policy and the Guidelines are mandatory to regulate ECs.

General Secretary of ECAN and Managing Director, Brilliant Education and Career Services Pvt.Ltd put his divergent views on policy and said, "*Had there been no policy, how was Plus 2 possible in Nepal? However, an umbrella Act is necessary according to the demand of the stakeholders*". He accepted that there was a policy in

Nepal and suggested immediate implementation of the Guidelines that the MoE should endorse in order to monitor them. He further suggested the requirements of infrastructure for ECs, standards of counsellor and qualification of teachers, norms, values and ethics of EC, and service charge. Managing Director of Global Reach and president of NAAER was not in favour of regulations of the ECs. He questioned “*Who will monitor it*”?

In Nepal, there are many Regulations and Guidelines but implementation is generally weak due to lack of an effective monitoring. MoE is overburdened with its business so bringing out regulation without monitoring makes no sense. It is also difficult to monitor about 400 ECs. That is why MD of Global Reach Educational Consultancy raised the question of monitoring. Therefore, a concrete higher education policy has been demanded from all sectors. For example, the Three Years Plan (2010-11/2012-2013, p.179) of Nepal in its strategy mentions the formulation of higher education policy.

Parentals’ Role from MDs’ Perspective.

I have already analysed the parental’s perception of student migration. As a matter of fact, students, parents, ECs and the Government are involved in the migration process. As mentioned earlier, ECs provide guidance; students prepare the documents and parents bear financial responsibilities. So far as the role of parents is concerned, General Secretary of the ECAN mentioned only the costs of education that parents have to bear. But, parents hardly visit the ECs where their youngsters are enrolled or consult for counselling. To know the performance of their children plays a vital role in ECs. About their visit to the ECs, MD of Global Reach Educational Consultancy sadly stated: “*Ahile samma bidyarthikaa kunai pani aamaa bubaa aayekaa chhoinan*” (No parent has visited ECs till now).

The above statement has far-reaching implication for parents. Parents' role is limited to only financial sector as they are neither involved in the educational performance of the students who are enrolled at EC nor do they question the reliability and status of those ECs. Generally, students visit ECs without any consent of the parents. Students themselves select the ECs. For instance, in 2009-10, students who went to the UK through such ECs and enrolled at bogus colleges in the UK had to face difficulty. So, some of the ECs were questioned. It was observed during the interviews and field survey that 99 percent of the students themselves selected the ECs where they either got enrolled or took counselling. Hence, students rather than parents decided to go abroad.

Return Migration

Do students return to Nepal after the completion of their studies? The answer would be "No" because of lack of opportunity in the origin. Referring to the outflow of students as well as foreign currency, one of the MDs stated that a large number of students had gone abroad after the establishment of ECs and students also migrated to study through scholarship so Nepal faced brain drain and loss of foreign currencies that students carry with them thus resulting in the negative balance of payment. She as a proprietor accepted more and more students have been leaving Nepal either through ECs or scholarship as a result of which, the nation loses both resources (human capital and foreign currencies). Similarly, MD of Global Reach Education Consultancy numerically stated that 99 percent of the students do not return to Nepal. He was of the view that a very negligible number of students returned to Nepal.

Director of Sheffield Educational Consultant, however, viewed the matter in an optimistic way and said "*Dhilo Chaado Nepali bidyarthi pharkera aaunchhan*"

(Nepalese students return to Nepal earlier or later). The statement reveals that migrant students are likely to return to Nepal. The MD is fully confident that, were there conducive environment, students would certainly return to Nepal. He gave the example of Prakash Pandey of Mate's education Pvt. Ltd who returned.

Supporting the outflow of students, General Secretary of the ECAN stated in another way and put a question "Why don't we import the students from other countries? About 10-15 thousand students annually go abroad and government earns an amount of 30-35 crores charged for one percent tax". His statement clearly hinted at the Mode-3 of higher education services in which Nepal should attract the international students because of its charm, pleasant and suitable climate. Therefore, he was not against the mobility of students but suggested that Nepal needed to balance (import and export) the students in order to minimize the deficit in foreign currency.

Knowledge Economy

According to the Webster's Online Dictionary, the knowledge economy refers to the use of knowledge to produce economic benefits. However, the Economic Glossary defines knowledge economy as the notion that economic activity is oriented towards the production and consumption of knowledge or information. Higher education is to a knowledge economy (Bloom, 2002; Tandon, 2005). The majority of students prefer to go abroad after Plus-2 or graduation. Knowledge economy is, therefore, associated with migration and globalization. This is the age of knowledge economy. Generally, students go abroad for studies. However, the majority of students have the purpose of earning instead of learning. Nepalese students' main motives for going to foreign countries are study as well as work. In this connection, General Secretary of ECAN said; " *Nepali*

bidyaarthilaai padhna pathaayeko, kaam garna pathaayeko hoina” (We have sent the Nepalese students abroad to study not to work there). He indicated to those students who worked in foreign countries on student visa. Truly, students go to foreign countries in order to study and get the student visa (F1) not working visa (H1). Working is their hidden agenda. The process is like this: firstly, students visit ECs, (for counselling/ English classes), then MoE (for NOC), and lastly, the concerned embassies (for visa). Before visiting the embassy, they need I-20 document. If they are given permit or issued visa to study (F1) then they are enrolled at foreign university. Similarly, one of the female MDs stated; *“Haamiharule gyaanlaai paisaa saga daajnu hudaina*” (We should not compare knowledge with the money). It is said that knowledge is power. So, there should be no comparison between knowledge and money. Students go abroad and come back with knowledge not money. Students spend money for gaining knowledge. She suggested that only talented students should migrate to foreign country.

She further said; *“Padhna jaane bidyaartha sichhya liyera aauchha paisaa liyera aaune hoina*”(Students who go abroad for higher studies return with knowledge not money). The MD stressed on higher education (knowledge economy) rather than money. The lesson from her statement clearly indicated that students should go to foreign countries only for studies and return with knowledge so that country could be benefitted from knowledge economy.

Quality Education/Globally Accepted Degree

Why do students go to foreign countries for higher education? The answer is simple- for quality education or globally accepted degrees. MD of City Education Consultants said;

“Students are motivated to migrate to foreign countries to be an international competent or to acquire globally accepted Degrees. They also go abroad for quality education.”

The world is competitive and so students want to be competitive in the education sector. The main purpose of student mobility is stated to acquire competitiveness by having globally accepted degrees with quality education. Similar view has been put by MD of Brilliant Education consultant .He said that students went to foreign countries for quality education. One of the MDs of EC, however, expressed divergent views on quality education and said that there was quality education in Nepal also. It can be concluded that they have emphasized on pull factor of migration mentioning quality education and globally accepted degree as the main reasons for migration. Quality education and globally accepted degrees were cited by the students as a motivational factor during the survey and interview. This supports Bourdeou’s cultural capital by earning degree which can be converted into economic capital.

Causes of Student Migration from MDs’ Perspective

There are a number of causes of student mobility. The causes have been explained in terms of push-pull and network factors of migration. Similarly, students’ personal characteristics and expectations and aspirations also caused migration. Most of the MDs of ECs viewed lack of peace and opportunities, political instability, not to declare educational institution as a peace zone, colleges as forum for political parties, no yearly plan of the University, lack of employment opportunities and future security, no educational policy and syllabus not based on international standard as major push factors of migration.

The pull factors included earning, globally accepted degrees and quality education, security, remittances, and PR. The general causes of student migration were already cited by the students, parents and policy makers but the burning issue like college as a forum for political parties seems to be serious. Practically, educational institutions are politicized and as a result students are vexed with the situation and planned to go abroad.

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed others' perception on student migration. First of all, policy makers viewed that opportunities were the main reason for migration. Students went abroad for quality education, employment opportunities and earning and learning. They stated that earning was a "*hidden agenda*" of the students. Similarly, they talked about the commercialization of higher education in the globalized context and stated that Nepal lacked higher education policy and human resources planning. Outflow of resources and brain drain were other issues raised by the policy makers.

Parents, on the other hand, were concerned about the security and threat, unemployment, and brain drain. According to parents, migration caused psychological costs to them. They viewed that student migration is the result of globalization so the fashion of going abroad (*Bidesh Jaane Lahar*) has been seen common these days. They were optimistic about an increase in the number of returnee students with the possibility of peace and tranquility and availability of employment opportunities in Nepal. Finally, they viewed that students selected foreign countries because of quality education and globally accepted degrees.

The role of educational consultancies is said to be a bridge between students and educational institutions abroad. The Managing Director of educational consultancies demanded higher education policy in the country and stated that parents should visit the educational consultancies. They accepted knowledge economy through migration and viewed quality education as a reason for migration. In connection with the return rate of students, they viewed that the majority of the students do not return to Nepal. Some implications of ECs were stated by the MDs themselves. Finally, the common issues all participants raised are lack of quality education in Nepal and brain drain. The next chapter discusses the findings and discussions.

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CHAPTER VIII

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

In the chapters four through seven, data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. This chapter deals with findings and discussions of the research. In the beginning, Nepalese from particularly the Brahman community used to go to India for Sanskrit education. Students went to different countries for technical education under the Colombo Plan. In the aftermath of privatization, liberalization and globalization in the 1980's, Nepalese students started going abroad for higher studies on self-finance basis. Due to the globalized world, Nepalese students are not limited to not only India but around 51 countries of the world (MoE, 2010). The USA, UK, and Australia are still the charming destinations for higher studies.

Major Findings of the Research

The major findings of the research have been linked with research questions. The research question one is related to secondary data whereas research question two, three and four deal with primary data. In simple words, research question one and two dealt with quantitative approach, and research question three and four were analysed qualitatively. Based on the analyses of the data in chapter four (RQ1), the following major findings are drawn.

(a) Findings of Research Question One

The first research question reads as “*What are the trends/ situation of the global and Nepalese student migration to foreign countries for higher education*”?

From the analysis of secondary data, it was found that the number of student migration has been continuously increasing globally and stood at 2.7 million in 2007 (Kumar, 2008) and 3.3 million, OECD, 2009 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011) .It is projected that the number of migrating students would increase to 7.6 million in 2025. Data relating to student migration globally show that USA, UK, Australia, France and Germany received 70 percent of the international students. Within Asia, China and India ranked number one and two positions respectively sending their students to the USA (Open Doors, 2010-11).

Although, students' choice has been influenced by English speaking countries (Anglophone) namely the US, UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand, other new emerging countries like Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore, Japan and China in Asian continent, France ,Germany and Neitherland in Europe have been student- receiving countries in the global education market. In Asia, Japan is in surplus in higher education services (incoming 63,637 students and outgoing 55,041 students, OECD, 2004). Moreover, in order to attract international students, many non-English speaking countries have started teaching in the English medium. The commodification and internationalization of higher education in the abovementioned countries have been contributing to the economy by earning foreign currency in the name of selling education services. For example, the US, the UK and Australia have earned more than \$21 billion (Open Doors, 2010-11), \$10 billion, and \$2 billion (Cardinale, 2000) from the higher education services respectively. They import more students than they export thus leading to surplus in trade in higher education services.

From the Nepalese perspectives, it was found from the secondary data that the number of outgoing students has been estimated to be 20 thousand students annually

(Nepal Migration Year Book, 2008) where as only 1043 foreign students came to Nepal in order to study and research (MoE, 2008-2009). Students' preferences for major destination countries are the USA, UK, and Australia. This has been supported by primary data and Brooks & Waters (2011). However, Nepalese students aspired to go to 51 countries (MoE, 2010).

Because of liberal policy of the UK government, a total of 19,179 students took NOC (MoE) in 2009-2010 and 12,388 students were issued visas (UK Boarder Agency, 2010). About 34 percent of the female students planned to go to foreign countries in 2009-2010. However, female students from Mugu, Kalikot, Humla, and Bajura did not apply for NOC. The highest number of students who applied for NOC was from Kathmandu district followed by Chitwan, Lalitpur, Kaski and Rupandehi (MoE, 2009, 2010). Since Nepal is one of the students sending countries to USA, she became the eleventh leading country of origin of international students at the US educational institutions in 2008-2009 (Open Doors, 2008-2009).

Discussions

The outflow of students to different counties of the world has been increasing dramatically. The trends of student mobility for further education can be observed if one visits the MoE, different educational consultancies, embassies and the Tribhuvan international airport, Kathmandu. The discussions of overview of global student migration followed by the trends of the Nepalese students are presented below.

Trends of Global Student Migration

Chapter four analyzed the trends of students going abroad. The internationalization and commodification of HE have become new but unexplored area in higher education

industry. The mobility paradigm has contributed to both sending and receiving countries. The flow of cross-border student mobilities has been continuously increasing due to high demand for higher education in the globalized world. For instance, in 2007, 2.7 million students went abroad to pursue higher education which has become a lucrative business in the destination countries. The global number of mobile students has grown by 53 percent since 1999 (Global Education Digest, 2009, p.36). Australia, France, Germany, the UK, and the USA receive 70 percent of foreign students in OECD countries (World Education News and Reviews, 2007, OECD Report, 2005).

In the academic year 2008/09, 2009/10, and 2010/11, the total numbers of international students who were enrolled at colleges and universities in the USA stood at 671,616; 690,923 and 723,277 respectively (Open Doors, 2010/11). It denotes that USA hosts more than one quarter of international students. The rising number of students uninterruptedly shows USA has attracted the best and brightest students of the world. It is said that the capitalist countries (especially the USA) retain the talented students in their countries as a result of which the number of returnee is very negligible leading to brain drain in developing countries. But, there is another side of the coin. Students living in foreign countries have sent remittances, transferred knowledge and technology so brain drain has changed into brain gain and brain circulation. India has benefitted from the students working in the Silicon Valley of the USA and started returning to the motherland because of high economic growth.

Since 1990, the destination of foreign students has become more diverse. In addition to the USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada, non-English speaking countries like China, Japan, France, and Germany have emerged as major new

destinations for foreign students. France has attracted many students mainly from African continent. Student mobility has also increased in France for the last ten years. Former colonial rules also influence student mobility. Indian students in the UK and Algerian students in France are some examples. According to the Open Doors International Student Census, global outbound mobility ratio was 1.8 percent in 2007. It means approximately 2 out of 100 tertiary students left their home countries (Global Education Digest, 2009, p. 37).

Findlay and Tierney (2010) are of view that international student mobility continues to grow. Kim (as cited in Findlay & Tierney,2010) forecast that the number of international students would increase from 1.8 million in 2000 to 7.6 million in 2025 which implies an annual growth of about 6 percent a year over this period. The US and Europe remain important destinations for students moving out of Asia in these forecasts. For example, of the OECD countries, Australia has the highest share of international students (19.3 percent in 2005). The data show that student mobility continues to grow in four continents (North America, Europe, Australia and Asia) of the global higher education markets. Since commodification of higher education has resulted in the major sources of earnings of some students receiving countries, they have provided many incentives to students like scholarships, credit mobility and even providing employment opportunities. Asia will dominate the global demand for international higher education. By 2025, Asia will represent some 70 percent of total global demand and increase of 27 percentage points from 2000. Within Asia, China and India will represent the key growth drivers (Bohm, Davis, Meares & Pearce, 2002, p. 3).

The abovementioned data show that student migration has been continuously increasing globally. The major source countries are from Asian continent and host countries for international students are North America, Europe, Australia and New Zealand. In Asia, for instances, China, India, South Korea, Taiwan, Saudi Arabia, Japan, Veitnam and Nepal are major students- sending countries to the USA. The Majority of international students opt for the UK, Australia, France, Germany and New Zealand next to the USA

The choices of destination also depend upon languages, proximity, former colonial rule, types of governance, distances and immigration policy. English-speaking countries attract more students than non-English speaking countries; most of the Mexican students' choice has been the USA which borders Mexico; many Indian students' choice is the UK which colonized India; students prefer to migrate to democratic countries and policy of the host countries determines the number of students (for instance, Tier-4 programme of the UK). Hence, Asia is likely to hold the main source countries of student migration in international arena. It is interesting to know that students have gone abroad in search of the best learning not only from developing countries like Nepal, Nigeria, India, Pakistan but also developed countries like South Korea, Canada, Japan and the UK.

One pertinent question arises on the issue of brain drain since majority of the students do not return to their native land so receiving countries have benefitted from brain gain. Moreover, they have earned billions of dollors by enrolling international students in the name of exporting higher education services. However, researchers view that sending- countries would be benefitted from remittances and brain circulation.

Since commodification of HE has resulted in an increase in foreign currency, some student receiving countries benefit from enrolling international students. For example, the United States earns over \$13 billion from trade in higher education services in the form of foreign student enrollments alone making higher education the United States' fifth largest service export (Bassett, 2006) whereas it earned \$17.8 billion in 2008-09; \$ 20 billion in 2009-10 and \$21 billion in 2010-11(Open Doors 2009, 2010 and 2011, International Herald Tribune, Feb 6, 2012). Other education service exporter countries like the UK, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Germany, and France also earn foreign currency by hosting international students. Martens and Starke (2008), for example, termed New Zealand as "*small country, big business*" by earning NZ \$1.4 billion in 2003/04. In New Zealand, education services rank fourth in service exports and fifteenth in terms of export as a whole, OECD, 2004 (as cited in Martens & Starke, 2008). According to Bradley et al, 2008 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 126), education is Australia's largest service- sector export and its third largest overall export.

In conclusion, developed countries have dominated international higher education markets and attracted the best and the brightest students especially from developing countries. So, those developed countries are particularly benefitted from the earning of education services (tuition fees) and students from developing countries are benefitted from higher education. Hence, both parties are benefitted from student migration.

Trends of Nepalese Student Migration

An estimated 20 thousand Nepalese students annually go to different countries (except India) for higher education (Nepal Migration Year Book, 2008, p.16). However, the majority of students have preferred to go to the USA, UK, Australia and some new

emerging countries like Japan, Canada, New Zealand, Germany, France, and China. Government policy of the host country is clearly visible for student mobility. For example, the number of students to go to the UK increased dramatically (from 1939 in 2008-2009 to 19,179 in 2009-10) because of liberal policy of the UK government (Tier-4 programme). Therefore, host countries' policy is the determinant factor of student mobility. Thousands of students mostly from Asia including Nepal were granted visa to go to the UK in fiscal year 2009-2010 under the Tier 4 system. So, UK has been number one destination country with 19,179 aspiring Nepalese students followed by Australia (1328) and the USA (1258) in 2009-2010.

The number of students to go to the USA decreased to 1258 in 2009-2010 from 3148 in 2007-2008. Similarly, Australia saw the downturn of students to 1328 in 2009-2010 from 9776 in 2008-2009 (MoE, 2010). This was the golden year for students whose number exceeded more than 12,000 visa holders of the UK. Since the majority of the Nepalese students started working instead of studying, the UK government made a stringent rule and more than 200 bogus colleges were suspended. It was announced by the UK government that only real students would be issued visa (see case study7).

It is a common phenomenon among the Nepalese students that if USA rejects the visa, students apply for the UK or Australia or vice versa. Nepal has become the eleventh leading country of origin of international students in the USA in the fiscal year 2008-2009. The number of Nepali students (11,581) studying in the USA increased by 30 percent in 2009. So, the placement of Nepal at the eleventh position in the international education industry in the USA has enhanced the image of Nepal in the international

arena. It is predicted that the three major countries as destination would play an important role for the Nepalese students in the future also.

Year-wise NOC trends have been mounting from the number 1377 in 1999/2000 to 26,485 in 2009-10. In the fiscal year 2008-2009, the actual numbers of students who took NOC increased to 24,824 out of which 16,929 were male and 7,895 were female students (Nepal Education in Figures 2010 At- A-Glance, p.23). Regarding the gender, 32 percent of the female students (7,895 female out of 24,824) took NOC in 2008-2009 whereas it increased to 34 percent in 2009-10.

It is an interesting matter about the females' intention to go abroad if it is taken into account geographically. According to the scholarship section of MoE (2010), in F/Y 2008-2009, male students (16,929) from 74 districts had applied for NOC. However, female students (7,895) represented only 72 districts (Annex5) in the same year. In the fiscal year 2009-10, female students from 70 districts had taken NOC to go abroad whereas male students from 75 districts were planning to study in foreign countries in the same year. Female students from Mugu, Kalikot, Humla, and Bajura (inaccessible districts) did not apply for NOC to go to foreign countries in the fiscal year 2009-2010.

It is simply clear that, on the one hand, female students have no access to higher secondary education (Plus 2) in those districts and, on the other; they are not encouraged to go abroad by their parents. Regarding the geographical representation of potential students planning to go abroad, Kathmandu district (5,433 students in 2008-09 and 5,136 students in 2009-10) has the highest number of students aspiring to migrate to foreign countries followed by Chitwan, Lalitpur, Kaski and Rupandehi. The reasons are manifold such as students study at the private colleges and obtain high marks, availability of

educational institution and consultancies, and increasing number of students enrolled in higher secondary education (Plus2). The lowest number of students was from Mugu from where only 3 students took NOC followed by Kalikot, Humla and Bajura. Mugu, Kalikot, Humla and Bajura have an inadequate educational facilities as well as very low income level of the parents so the number of students planning to go to foreign countries is the lowest one in those districts. Since students migrations are expanding rapidly due to the globalized world, the USA, Australia, Canada, and NewZealand have facilities of permanent residence (PR) after completion of graduation. These countries are land of opportunities (especially the USA) and the best and globally recognized degrees have attracted the students of Nepal.

The growing trend of Nepalese students going abroad has resulted in an increase in the expenditure on education. For example, the amount of money used for foreign education by the Nepalese students (12,342.6 million in 2009-10, NRB, 2011) is more than 1.00 percent of the GDP (GDP at current prices, 1183 billion NRs) (Economic Survey, 2009-10, Vol.1 p. xx). It has become clear that there has been a substantial outflow of country's precious currencies each year. However, the fund outflow in the name of education should be regarded as an investment in the future since migration has been considered by economists of education as an investment rather than consumption.

To conclude, the trends of Nepalese students migrating to foreign countries for further studies seem to continue to grow because of the globalized world. There is, however, one sided outflow of students and inflow is very negligible as a result of which Nepal has been at a loss in trade in higher education services. Nepal can attract international students and become a hub of international education because of its natural beauty,

pleasant climate and geography if investments in educational infrastructure are made and quality education is provided.

(b) Findings of Research Question Two

The research question two reads as “*What are the causes of student migration to foreign countries for higher education and how these causes can be explained from the perspectives push-pull factors*”? Based on the primary data analyses discussed in chapter five, the following findings are drawn.

The majority of the students cited low employment opportunities (22.42 percent), personal factors (14.78 percent), political instability (14 percent), low quality education (12.56 percent), no career opportunities (7.65 percent), and lack of choice of subject (3.70 percent) as major push factors and education and earning (43.10 percent), quality education (17 percent), career opportunities (14.53 percent), earning opportunities (4.43 percent), and choice of subject available (2.95 percent) as major pull factors. The above findings were based on the choices of respondents from 23 causes of push factors and 29 causes of pull factors that were administered to the students to tick only one dominant cause of migration. However, they were given the flexibility to add any cause if they feel. The findings are similar from two different questions which respondents filled in at a time. Students’ attitude test was measured from the five point Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The main purpose of student migration is to acquire education. In the survey, four (80 percent) out of five students strongly agreed or agreed to study in the destination (Li & Bray, 2007; Findlay & King, 2010; Brooks & Waters, 2011). It means 325 out of 407 students selected educational opportunity as a prime motive behind migration.

Analyzing only one dominant cause of migration, it was found that 43 percent of the students (175 out of 407) considered work and study opportunities as main cause of student migration in the destination. While analyzing the Likert scale, 90 (366 out of 407) percent of the students either strongly agreed or agreed on work and study as main reason for migration. Both types of data mentioned above indicated that the majority of the respondents preferred to work and study as a motivational factor of mobility. Hence, it was found from the survey that student migration was stimulated by educational as well as economic motives. Education and earning are generally considered to be the main factors that motivate people to move to the city (Cooke & Belonger, 2006; Ong, 1991; Encyclopedia of higher education, 1992; Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007); Gibson & McKenzie (2009) p.20; Mikadze & Wagner (n.d.).

It was found that 37 percent of the female students aspired to go abroad. It has roughly been supported by secondary data (RQ-1) in which 34 percent of female students took NOC in 2009-10 (supported by Bohra-Mishra, 2010). Males predominate among the migrants (Encyclopedia Americana, 2003-2004).

Age factor is very important for migration. About 67 percent of the potential students were found to be age group of 18-21 (supported by Heurer, 2004; Mikadze & Wagner, n.d. and Carling, 2001). Similarly, 5.17 percent of the students were from the age groups between 30 and above. Age has been linked with the human capital since early age of student migration can reap the benefits for longer time. It was found that as age of the student increases, migration decreases. The youngest numbers of students are more likely to migrate than the older students.

Generally, students from high income families are highly likely to migrate (Tuckman, 1970); Wilson, 1984 (as cited in Heurer, 2004). It was found that there is no relationship between higher parental income and students' motivation to go abroad. In other words, higher family income was not a determinant factor of migration. Students from lower and middle income families (around 32 percent) were eager to go abroad whereas 7 percent of the respondents came from the highest income groups.

Generally, parental education also influences student migration. It was found that the highest percentages of the fathers (23.2) and mothers (54.3) were under the SLC but nearly equal percentage (22.9 and 22.1) of the parents had matriculated. Only 6 percent of mothers had graduated. Rosenzweig and Stark (1997) found that students, whose parents have higher level of educational attainment, tend to migrate. So, this data did not support the previous research since parental educational level was found to be low in Nepal.

Previous research showed that higher the academic level of students, higher the migration rate. It was found that potential students with 76.6 percent in the SLC and 51.2 percent in Plus-2 obtained first division and distinction. The survey data confirm that higher GPA holders are likely to migrate to study. Many researches have proved this. For example, Tuckman (1970) found that the best and brightest students are more likely to migrate out of state in the USA.

Generally, students who have completed their education from private schools are more likely to go abroad than the students from public school due to excellent academic performances of students. It was found from the survey that 72 percent of the respondents had studied at the private boarding school. Perry, 2001 (as cited in Heuer,

2004, p.12) found that those who have studied in the private schools are more likely to migrate than those who have studied in the public schools.

Students' motivation to go abroad is influenced by the subject they would like to prefer to study in the destination. It was found that more than 41 percent of the students had taken management followed by pure science (27 percent) and tourism and hotel management (11 percent) as their choices of subject. The fact that maximum number of potential students took management has been supported by the secondary data of the Ministry of Education in which more than 32 percent of students selected accounting, business management and business administration followed by hospitality management (25.6 percent) in the Fiscal Year 2008-09.

Management has been the best choice of students who took NOC. However, the secondary data indicated that few students took pure science. Faggain, Mc Cann and Sheppard (2007) found that medical and science students are more likely to migrate. Those in the school of engineering and applied science had the highest outmigration rate while those in education had the lowest migration rates, Taylor, 1973 (as cited in Heuer, 2004). Likewise, Chase, 1969 (as cited in Heuer, 2004, pp.9-10) found engineering graduates most likely to migrate out-of- state and education graduates least likely to migrate.

It was found that low employment opportunities (unemployment) were the main cause of student mobility. About 67.5 percent of the students (274 out of 407) strongly agreed or agreed that there was lack of employment opportunity in Nepal. Similarly, 22.4 percent of the potential students selected lack of employment opportunities as one of the main dominant reasons for migration. The abovementioned two types of data (67.5

percent from the Likert scale and 22.4 percent from the dominant cause of mobility) which students filled out at a time revealed that the majority of the respondents cited low chances of earning as a motivational push factor of migration. Previous researchers have supported this (Roisin & Anne, 2004, Mansoor, 2007, Havens, 1987, Chik, 1989, Thissen & Ederveen 2006). In the same way, about 69 percent of the total respondents (279 out of 407) cited job opportunities as the main pull factor of migration. It was supported by Palmer, 1968 (as cited in Antoine, 1982); Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007); Farrer, (2007, 2009).

Because of the globalized world, Nepali students migrated to different countries of the world. Nevertheless, majority of students were attracted to particular countries. It was found that Nepali students' most preferred destinations were the UK, the USA and Australia where 48.30 percent, 25.6 percent, and 11.8 percent students planned to go to these countries respectively. The primary data have been supported by the secondary data. According to MoE (2009-10), students took NOC to go to the UK, USA, and Australia. The UK students also selected the US and Australia as a study destination (Brooks & Waters, 2011).

Personal factors also prompted students to go abroad. It was found that 15 percent of the respondents were planning to migrate to study because of personal factors. It was supported by Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007); Iranfar, (1983). Chik (1989) also has mentioned personal factors that influence migration plan of East and South East Asian students in the USA.

It was found that the main reason for migration was low quality education in Nepal. About 56 percent of the respondents (226 out of 407) strongly agreed or agreed

that low quality education was a motivational factor of migration, Similarly, 82 percent of the students (332 out of 407) strongly agreed or agreed quality education (globally accepted degrees) in the destination as main reason for migration. This finding has been supported by Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri (2006); Thissen & Ederveen, (2006); Dean, Hunt & Smith, (2006); Anthias (2008); and Kritz (2006).

Regarding the ethnic students' motivation to migrate, students from the Brahmin caste had the highest percentage (around 45 percent) in number followed by Chhetree (22.5 %), and Newar (16.3). But only 1 percent Dalit planned to go abroad. The previous research has supported this data. According to Clowers (1992), out-migrating students were from affluent background and minority students were largely excluded.

Political instability pushes students out of country. In the likert scale test, around 47 percent of the students disagreed ,strongly disagreed that political instability was not a deciding factor. However, 35.5 percent of the respondents supported this view and remaining respondents were neutral.

Regarding occupation, students from business families (37 percent), service-holder (26 percent) and farmers (15 percent) were planning to leave the country for higher studies. However, less than 1 percent of the students came from doctors' and engineers' families.

It was found that 87 percent of the potential respondents (352 out of 407) agreed, strongly agreed that career opportunities in the destination were the main cause of migration. However, 14.5 percent of the students responded that career opportunities were the dominant reason for migration. It has been supported by Juhasz et al. (2003).

Social network factors support in the process of migration. It was found that 75.7 percent and 74 percent of the potential students' relatives and friends / peers live in the foreign countries respectively. Around 68 percent and 59 percent of the potential students expected that their relatives and friends would support them respectively when they reach in the destination. However, current students expressed that their friends supported them more than their relatives. Mohlathe (2011) found social networks of relatives/friends as initiating and perpetuating the cross-border migration of Basotho students in Africa.

It was found that 87 percent of the students intended to return to Nepal after completion of their studies. It means 13 percent of the students did not intend to return to Nepal.

It was found that nearly 69 percent of the total respondents (279 out of 407) strongly agreed or agreed that earning (job) opportunities (economic motives) were the main pull factors of migration. (Iranfar, 1983; Havens, 1987; Hamad, 1989; Bose, 1999; Heuer, 2004; and Brooks & Waters, 2011. p.105). It was found that students were also motivated by earning on student visa.

Finally, the test showed that social network factor and migration and age and migration were significant and other insignificant. It was also found from the t-test that students gave similar views since mean differences were very low. For example, both groups of students (potential and current students) had the same view on quality education in foreign countries (mean 1.98 and 1.97 for potential and current students respectively).

Discussions

Why do students go abroad and what are the reasons for their mobility is the issue that is discussed based on the findings. Many reasons for student migration have been identified through push-pull and social network factors. The survey indicated that the only one dominant cause of student migration was low employment (earning) in the origin (push factor) and education as well as earning opportunities in the destination (pull factor).

Students want recognized degrees from foreign universities so that they could compete in the graduate labour market of the world. Many Nepalese students have been employed in international organizations because of their recognized degrees. Students go abroad to pursue higher education that has become a main agenda for them. Educational migration, as the name suggests, is directly related to study abroad. For the majority of students, a university degree is the ultimate goal, Waters, 2008 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.65). In the field survey, 80.4 percent of the potential students responded that they intended to go to foreign countries in order to study. The previous researches have supported this finding. For example, Waters, 2008 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.50) stated that the primary objective of Hong Kong families' decision to send their children to Canada was education which she referred to an investment. Brooks and Waters (2011, p.106) found the motivations and aspirations of students undertaking diploma mobility (going overseas for the whole of a degree). Similarly, in their survey of 560 UK nationals living and studying overseas, Findlay and King, (2010) found two important factors driving the overseas mobility of British students : the "search for a world class education"(89 percent) and the "opportunity for a unique adventure (50 percent). Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) found 27 percent of the students' intention to study abroad. During an in-depth interview, I tried to uncover their hidden intention, all participants expressed that their motivation

was to earn a degree in foreign country for career opportunity. Hence, the qualitative data supported the quantitative data in the case of pursuing higher education.

Potential students were motivated by abroad work and study because they further their education by earning their livelihood. The majority of the Nepalese students follow the same pattern. But, such type of students show poor educational performances in the examination and cannot complete their degree on time. Although, they rated education as the main agenda, their hidden agenda was study and work (90 percent based on the Likert scale). While generating qualitative data, almost all students viewed that they were in favour of both motives. Then quantitative data supported qualitative data. The respondents have indicated various reasons for which they wanted to go abroad. The leading pull factor of student migration was education and earning. More than 43 percent of the students' choice (as a dominant cause) was learning and earning. This result is common for all Nepali students who go abroad on self-finance. It was found that most of the potential students come of middle income families who cannot bear educational cost for their children so migrant students continue their education by working.

There is a relationship between education and work in the case of student mobility. Students' main objective is to obtain a recognized degree so they are motivated by study and work (for instance 20 hrs per week) in the destinations. Generally, students work part time job during the summer season. During this season, more jobs are created (especially in the US) and students work maximum hours so that they would be able to continue their education. One of the participants in an in-depth interview viewed that he decided to go to the US because earning as well as learning opportunities are available but such type of opportunities are not available in Nepal. For this reason, students selected study and work as number one pull factor (cause) of migration.

Some of the students work rather than study by just enrolling at colleges and as a result, they can not complete their studies on time. For example, a few Nepali students, who had gone to the UK, were involved only in work without going to the college and, as a result of which, the UK government published a stringent laws controlling economic-related migration (see case study 7). Potential students were asked to rate at any one of the five point scales from strongly agree to strongly disagree on “migration to foreign countries to earn on student visa”. About 33 percent of the potential students either strongly agreed or agreed that they were planning to go to foreign countries with a view to earning on student visa.

Previous researches have supported this finding. For instance, Recchi, 2006 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.83) argues that student mobility within Europe appeals to lower middle-class individual, in particular, “as a short cut to capital accumulation-be it economic or cultural capital, or a mix of the two”. The author is of the view that students are motivated by economic and cultural capital (academic credential). Zheng, 2003(as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) found that economic and educational factors were the most important determinants of students’ intention to study abroad. Gibson and Mc Kenzie (2009, p.20) found that current and return migrants have worked and studied abroad. Approximately, half of the migrants from Tonga, Papua New Guinea and NewZealand each country have both worked and studied abroad. Qualitative interviews of this research also gathered more responses on work and study.

Gender also influences migration. The data showed that male students dominated the female students. There are mainly three reasons for this: economic, social and cultural. Firstly, female are deprived of economic empowerment and decision making. Secondly, they have no access to higher education and lastly parents hesitate to send their daughter to foreign countries for social and cultural reasons. So, 37 percent of the female students aspired to go abroad. This data nearly

supported the secondary data analysis in which 34 percent of the female students took NOC in 2009-2010. Bohora-Mishra (2010) found that females were less likely to migrate for work and studies.

Age factor is crucial for student mobility. The survey indicated that most of the potential students came from age group of 18-21. About two third of the students aspired to go abroad from this age group. The data have been supported by Heurer (2004) who found that young adults in their 20s have higher migration rate since it is related to human capital in order to reap more benefits. There is an inverse relationship between age and migration.

Generally, income is an important determinant of migration. As parental income increases, migration also increases. An increase in family income should increase migration (Tuckman, 1970). Student migrants represent an elite group of more privileged students. Students from low income families make substantially less use of the opportunities for studying abroad than do those from families with higher income (King & Gelices, 2003). In contrary, the field survey showed that lower and middle income parents were high in number (32 percent) to send their youths to foreign countries. Many students from middle income groups were motivated to migrate to study. There has been a tendency to send youths to foreign countries even by selling fixed assets or borrowing from financial institutions. They cited earning and study (90 percent) as main motives. Since students came from low and middle income families, there was no other alternative source for them but to work in order to continue their education. In an in-depth interview, I observed that most of the participants belonged to a simple family background. The motivation to go to foreign country in order to earn and learn has been substantiated by the income level of the family. The parents with middle income cannot meet the expenditure of the students who are forced to earn in the destination. Hence, the theory of

Tuckman's (1970) and King and Gelices's (2003) findings have been challenged.

Parental education also influences the migration trends. Higher the level of parental education, higher the migration. Rosenzweig and Stark (1997) found that students, whose parents have higher level of educational attainment, tend to migrate. The survey showed that 65.5 percent of the fathers were found to be undergraduate whereas 23 percent of them had graduated. But, mothers' educational level is low with just 6 percent graduate. It is interesting to know that around 22 percentages of the parents were matriculated. So, the parents with low level of educational attainment want to send their youths to foreign countries. It can be concluded that not the parents but students themselves are the drivers of student migration. It has been discussed in the qualitative part that the trends (*Bidesh Jane Lahar*) of potential students continued to increase. Parents were not directly involved in the migration process which was highlighted by the managing director of Educational Consultancy where no parent visited the EC in order to enquire about their youths' performance. It indicated that students rather than parents decided to go abroad.

Generally, students with sound academic background tend to migrate to study. The survey disclosed that the highest numbers of the potential students were awarded with first division in the SLC (64.6 percent) and Plus 2 (45.8 percent). Similarly, 12 and 5 percent of the students got distinction in the SLC and Plus 2 respectively. But the survey showed that 23.3 percent in the SLC and 48.8 percent in Plus-2 with second or pass division holders also planned to go abroad. The low number of distinction holders decided to migrate to study. Generally, distinction holder students go in for medical or engineering disciplines and they plan to go to foreign countries after graduation. We know that many medical doctors have left the country especially for the USA, UK and Australia in order to earn higher income and settle permanently thereby leading to brain drain.

Students educated at private boarding schools with good academic performances tend to

migrate to study. In the field survey, approximately, three quarter of the students from private boarding school planned to go abroad whereas only 24 percent of the potential students educated at the public school intended to study in foreign countries. Students enrolled at the public /community school obtain fewer marks than the students enrolled at the private school/ college. Generally, students educated at the private schools have good knowledge in English and access to information. For example, the previous examination results show that almost 100 percent of the students at the private school/ colleges obtain first or distinction. So, there are high chances of going abroad from private school/ college. Perry, 2001 (as cited in Heuer, 2004) has supported this finding. Another validation of the finding has been supported by Brooks & Waters (2011, p.99) who stated that those young people who attended top private or independent schools were far more likely to consider studying overseas than were state-school attendees.

Area of study also matters as a cause of student migration. It was found in the survey that management disciplines have topped the other areas. Management has been a common subject and the best choice of students because of its broad scope and better chances of getting employment easily. This subject has attracted most of the youths for their career development because of the growing scope of commercial and financial sectors globally, and managerial posts in the global market. For example, the data show that the highest number of potential students was from management faculty (41.13 percent) followed by pure science (27percent) and tourism and hotel management (11.33 percent). The secondary data published by the MoE supported the primary data as management was the best choices of students who took NOC. It has become a trend of the Nepalese students with science background to go in for medical science or engineering and second option for them is to migrate to study. According to Brooks and Waters (2011, p. 86), the subject of study also has an impact on mobility.

The unavailability of choice of subject also influences student mobility. About 24 percent of the students responded that they were planning to go abroad because of lack of choices of subject. Some of the new emerging subjects are not taught in Nepal, and, as a result of which, many students are forced to go abroad. Area of study is important for outgoing students. Nearly 61 percentages of the students were planning to go abroad where choice of subject is easily available.

The potential students planned to go to foreign countries because of unavailability of employment in the country. In the Likert scale, 67.5 percent of the sample students strongly agreed or agreed that little chance of earning in Nepal was the main motivation for them to migrate to foreign countries. In reality, earning opportunities are very limited in Nepal. Lack of earning in Nepal has resulted in the outflow of both student migration and labour migration. Youth unemployment is pervasive in Nepal so not only labour migrant but also student migrant opt for foreign countries in order to earn and learn respectively. It has become a common for the students to look for foreign education and employment because they have not seen bright future in Nepal due to decade long insurgency, long transitional periods, and slow economic growth. For example, one of the interviewees expressed that “were there employment opportunities in Nepal, I would not have thought of going abroad.” Rampant unemployment leading to emigration has been supported by earlier researches. For example, Roisin and Anne (2004) viewed that high unemployment among graduates in developing countries leads to increased migration. Mansoor (2007) views unemployment as the main push factor. This economic factor has been supported by Zheng, 2003(as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) who found 29 percent of the students’ intention to overseas study. Havens (1987) has concluded that students migrate to a state with the intention of seeking employment there upon graduation. While conducting FGD and in-depth interviews, all participants expressed that they planned to leave the country because of unemployment. Even

policy makers and MD of ECs also supported that there was very limited employment opportunity in Nepal. So, findings of both qualitative and quantitative studies were converged and validated.

Because of the globalized world, students' destination is not limited to a particular country but more than four dozen countries are destination for higher studies. Nevertheless, students' mobility has been mainly concentrated in three countries namely the UK, the USA, and Australia. The survey data disclosed the UK (48 percent), the USA (around 26 percent), Australia (around 12 percent), Canada 6 (percent), and New Zealand (2.5 percent) as the best choice of the potential students' destination. The finding of this research on geographies of student migration has been supported by the previous research and secondary data analyzed in chapter four. The general preference for the US as a location for the study closely followed by Australia and Britain is common, Sussex Centre for Migration Research, 2004, (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p.102). The authors further view that international education continues to favour the 'West' over non-Western countries- the US, UK and Australia are dominant when it comes to attracting internationally mobile students (p.135). The secondary data published by the MoE revealed that the USA, UK and Australia were the top destinations for the Nepalese students. Students' destination depends upon many factors such as economy of a particular country, visa policy, educational policy, quality education, status of educational institutions (renowned university), curriculum, educational costs, earning opportunities, English language, chances of permanent residence, relatives and friends, scholarship, environment and safety.

The outgoing students have ticked personal factors (dominant cause) as one of the main causes of migration. As stated earlier, approximately 15 percent of the total respondents replied that they were planning to leave the country due to personal factors. This figure is consistent with the research done by Zheng, 2003 (as cited in Li & Bray, 2007) who found 15 percent as personal

factors of student mobility. Juhasz, Peto, Sanden, and Waaldijk (2003) have stated that women's motives for study abroad were more personal and less explicitly educational. Lee (1965) has also talked about personal reasons as one of the four factors of migration.

An internationally recognized degree (cultural capital) with quality education is one of the main reasons of student mobility. On the one hand, an internationally recognized degree holder would be saleable in the international market and on the other, social recognition in the society enriches the social capital. Even British students apply for the studies at the Harvard, Princeton or Yale universities in the US if they are denied at the Oxbridges. The qualitative data supported in this case. During an interview, one of the participants, who was awarded scholarship at the Harvard University, responded that he came to the USA because he got the scholarship to study at the Harvard which is one of the top ten universities of the world.

Quality education is provided by many schools and campuses in Nepal. One of the causes of student migration is lack of quality education. In the field survey, it was found that more than 55 percent of the students favoured lack of quality education as a motivational factor to go abroad. In Nepal, it is said that some renowned private schools, Medical and Engineering colleges under the TU and KU provide quality education. Similarly, some of the private colleges have run A level courses and Nepali students have academically performed the best internationally. But, Nepali students were lured to get a foreign degree from a reputed university in order to cash it in the job market. In the case of qualitative study, students cited quality education as the main reason for migration. So, both types of data supported each other.

However, public schools and colleges are always subject to bitter criticism regarding quality education. Eighty two percent of the students preferred quality education as a pull factor. They have eyed at world renowned universities in the USA, UK, Australia and other countries. The data show

that they have given importance to quality education in the destination rather than in the origin. Several researches have proved quality education as a major cause of migration such as Baruch, Budhwar, & Khatri (2006); Thissen & Ederveen (2006, p.16); Dean, Hunt, & Smith (2006, p. 27) and Anthias (2008). An overseas education may appeal to British students for the desire to attend a globally prestigious university (Brooks & Waters 2011, p. 106).

Regarding the ethnic status, students from the Brahmin (45 percent), Chhetree (22.52 percent), Newar (16.3), Dalit (1 percent) and others (15.3 percent) aspired to go abroad. The Brahmin, Chhetree and Newar communities have access to higher education and resources so they were ahead of other communities to go to foreign countries. The Dalit community has no access to education so the number of students is very nominal. Students among indigenous groups included Magar, Tamang, Gurung, Rai, Limbu and Madhesi. It can be concluded that the Dalit and other communities lag behind the education. However, among the indigeneous groups; the Newar community of Kathmandu valley has access to higher education. It has been proved by previous research that the minority of students were largely excluded from migration (Clowers, 1992).

Political instability is considered to be another cause of migration. Fourteen percent of the students (in the dominant cause) accepted political instability but 35.5 percent (in the Liguert scale) of the respondents replied that political instability was not a deciding factor of their intentions for mobility. Although, Nepal has been relieved of a decade long insurgency and autocratic monarchy, people are still expecting democratic constitution made by the constituent assembly. So, political instability has created a ground for the youth to migrate abroad. Political instability not only pushed student but also resulted in labour migration to especially the Gulf countries, Malaysia and South Korea. In the field research, participants viewed political instability as the main reason for mobility.

Another reason for mobility is lack of career opportunities in Nepal. Generally, career is attached with the employment. Students did not see future prospects, employment opportunities and career development. So, 7.65 percent of the respondents (as a dominant cause) replied lack of career opportunities in Nepal. Career opportunities are important factor and nearly 15 percent of the students supported this as pull factor. A foreign degree holder is entitled to get employment easily. For the purpose of this study, career opportunities have been differentiated from earning opportunities. The former is related to future career and the latter is related to present situation (Annex-7). Career opportunity as a reason for migration is supported by Thissen & Ederveen (2006) who found that 14 percent of the students rated career as the main reason for student mobility in the same region. Juhasz, Peto, Sanden, and Waaldijk (2003) also have addressed motive behind studying in the foreign countries in order to improve career opportunities.

Student migration is influenced not only by push-pull factors but also by network factors. Social network such as relatives (kinship networks), friends (friendship network) facilitate the migration through support and information. The survey showed around 59 percent of the respondents' peers/friends and 68 percent of the respondents' relatives support and facilitate the potential students when they reach destinations (This is based on "Yes" "No" question.). However, the current students, who were interviewed, expressed that their friends helped them more than their relatives in the USA. So, the view of the current students seems genuine because they have experienced the real life whereas the expression of the potential students is just expectations. The influence of social networks in migration is very crucial in the migration process. Social networks provide information and facilitate migration of new migrants (Mohlathe, 2011). Most of the participants stated that either their relatives or friends lived in the destination. This qualitative information indicates that the quantitative data are valid.

Generally, students return to their motherland after finishing their studies. In the survey, 87 percent of the total respondents replied that they would return to Nepal. Although, there is no documented data on returnee students, very few students have returned to Nepal. During my interview with one of the returnee students, he categorically stated that the students of wealthy families have generally returned to Nepal. It indicates that students belonging to the middle income families do not return to Nepal. In this context, one of the parents expressed that he advised his son not to return to Nepal because of the prevailing situation. This finding has been supported by previous researches. Because of families ties and social and personal factors, the Greek as well as Tanzanian students expressed desire to return home (Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 141). Similarly, many Chinese and Indian students have returned to their country because of economic boom. Li et al, 1996 (as cited in Brooks & Waters, 2011, p. 59) studying the migration intentions of Hong Kong students found that 80 percent of total respondents intended to return to HongKong following graduation from university. In contrast, Findlay and King (2010) found that some 24.3 percent of students in their international student survey indicated that they never intended to return to the UK, but it should be emphasized that the desire to return or inversely to stay abroad varied hugely by study location.

Economic motives are main determinant factor of student mobility. It was found in the survey that 69 percent of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed on job opportunities as the main pull factors of mobility. However, around 33 percent of the students categorically responded that they were intending to go to work on student visa. It is clear that their hidden agenda is to work in order to continue their education. The statement of the Nepalese students is natural because they come from low and middle income families who hardly bear the costs of education so they are forced to work in the destination. This finding is supported by the previous researches. For example,

job opportunities are one of the reasons for pull factor of migration (Iranfar, 1983; Hamad, 1989; Bose, 1999; and Heuer, 2004). Havens (1987) views that students migrate to a state with the intention of seeking employment there upon graduation. Similarly, Brooks and Waters (2011, p.105) contended that some Scandivian destination countries, such as Sweden, Norway and Denmark, are chosen by British students for primarily financial reasons.

By using 30 Likert scale, parametric and non-parametric test were conducted. While doing the Kruskal-Wallis test, most of the variables were not statistically significant. There was no significant difference of opinion between grouping variables like gender and ethnicity. All these groups expressed similar attitude regarding push and pull factors. Similarly, the Wilcoxon test showed significant values. A correlation matrix was developed and all the variables were associated and highly significant. In order to compare the mean differences between the potential and current students, a t test was done. The results of the test were statistically insignificant. It means there were no significant differences of opinion between two groups of students. Both groups of students (potential and current) expressed similar views on causes of student migration.

In conclusion, students were motivated to migrate to foreign countries due to low earnings and low quality education in the origin, and for study and work opportunities in the destination. Hence, student mobility adds to human capital since migration is also an investment.

(c) Findings of Research Question Three

The research question three reads as “*How do potential, current and returnee students perceive their educational aspirations and expectations and perception of going abroad for higher education*”? The following findings are drawn from the analyses of chapter six.

It was found from the qualitative interviews that all three categories of students (current, potential and returnee) had high expectations and aspirations which were supported by Par & Mok, (1995);

Majoribanks, 2002 (as cited in Rebecca, Zlatko & Mark, 2008); and Morgan, (1998). It has been supported by Bel-hag (1982) who found that educational and occupational aspirations would be more highly correlated with migration plans than any of other variables.

It was found that potential students had a strong desire to migrate to study in foreign countries.

Aspirations and expectations were positively found to be educational and economic-oriented.

However, earning was a hidden agenda of participants. Education and earning were determinant factors of migration.

A new theme of "*Craze for going abroad*" emerged. Students were crazy about going to foreign countries. The UK bound students in 2009-10 are example in this case. Students were motivated by, among other things, the fashion of going abroad. But, their ultimate objective was to earn a degree followed by career opportunities.

In this research, all types of students had positive possible selves. Participants did not express any negative aspirations and expectations. They always saw bright future. Feuer's (2009, p.56) study showed balanced possible selves.

It was found that the current students studying in the US got their expectations and aspirations partially fulfilled whereas students in the UK and Australia and returnee students got their aspirations and expectations fulfilled.

Discussions

The qualitative data were generated from three groups of students (potential, current, and returnee) through interviews as well as open-ended answers. Student migration is influenced by both external and internal forces. Aspirations and expectations were reflections of the internal forces of potential, current and returnee students and their strong desire prompted them to migrate to further education and their wishes and desire for a better future indicated migratory behavior.

The research clearly shows that all three groups of students had higher aspirations and expectations in the course of going abroad. It was analyzed from the qualitative interviews that every interviewee was enthusiastic about his future expectations and aspirations and was found to be highly motivated. Supporting this finding, Par and Mok, 1995 (as cited in Rebecca, Zlatko & Mark, 2008) found that students from the Asian background had the highest aspirations, while students of NewZealand background had the lowest. Majoribanks, 2002 (as cited in Rebecca, Zlatko & Mark, 2008) also found similar research. Morgan (1998) claimed that educational expectations of white females were the largest followed by white males, black females and black males. The previous findings revealed that females had the highest expectations as compared to males.

Participants expressed education and economic- related expectations and aspirations. In this study, aspirations and expectations have been blurred (it has been used interchangeably). Students' aspirations and expectations were centred on obtaining globally accepted degree with quality education and career opportunities (employment). The potential students had strong desire to migrate to study followed by

economic motive. Actually, their behavior showed that earning was their hidden agenda. An indepth interview and open ended answers indicated that earning and learning gathered more responses. So, qualitative data supported the quantitative data. The economic factor is very important for any human being. Students are entitled to work while studying at colleges. So, it is the most common to work in order to continue their education because the ultimate objective of a person is to earn after graduation.

The major causes were cited as low quality education and low employment opportunities in the origin, and quality education with globally accepted degree and employment opportunities in the destination. It was found from the interviews and open-ended answers that respondents were limited to education and economic-related aspirations and expectations. In other words, all types of students were confined to higher education as well as earning. It has been supported by quantitative data.

While expressing expectations and aspirations, they linked with the pull factor of educational migration. For example, to get quality education, to be competitive in the world market, to acquire globally accepted degree, earning for the sake of learning, to study at the reputed university, advanced research facilities, to get scholarship, and practical education are some of the areas that were raised by especially potential students. Economic-related aspirations and expectations were found to be job opportunities during their studies. Regarding educational aspirations and expectations, Feuer (2009) found that 56 percent (aspirations) and 66 percent (expectations) of the students stated a desire to go to college. So, her finding supporting the hypothesis indicated a gap of 10 percent between aspirations and expectations.

The majority of the participants in the open-ended answer and an in-depth interview viewed that they desired both education and earning as their aspirations and expectations. This qualitative data support the quantitative data with 90 percent respondents opting for work and study. However, there are differences of responses between potential and current students on education and earning. Potential students focused on earning and education whereas current students' expectations and aspirations were education-related. It is clear that current students are either earning or awarded scholarship whereas potential students expected both before their departure.

A pertinent question arises as to what factor influences the aspirations and motivations of the migrant students. The main influential factors that were attached to the students were push, pull, and other factors like students' characteristics, personal, behavioural, parents, peers, media and educational consultancies.

In this research, gender and ethnicity were not separately studied in connection with their aspirations and expectations. The analysis showed that these groups had similar view. It was found that higher the expectations, aspirations and motivations of the potential students, higher the migration trends. These findings supported the quantitative data. For example, potential students with high motivations in 2009-2010 had applied for NOC at the Ministry of Education and approximately two third of the students were issued visas to go to the UK.

Feuer (2009, p.56) used possible selves framework. Positive possible selves include aspirations and expectations, negative possible selves include fears and balanced possible selves include both fears and aspirations. Her study showed balanced possible selves. However, in this research, all types of students had positive

possible selves. In the interviews, they did not express any negative aspirations and expectations. They always saw a bright future.

The qualitative data on aspirations and expectations indicated that pull factors dominated push factors. For example, students expressed their behavior relating to pull factors such as quality education, globally accepted degree, career and employment opportunities. Quality education with globally accepted degree was found to be their dreams. Current and returnee students, however, expressed divergent views on the fulfillments of desires, aspirations and expectations. Students studying in the US responded that their aspirations and expectations were partially fulfilled because they have not completed their degree. But, the current students studying in the UK and Australia viewed that their aspirations and expectations have been fulfilled since they got the visa and enrolled at universities/ colleges. Similarly, the returnee students' expectations and aspirations were fulfilled because they had completed their studies and returned to Nepal.

During the qualitative interviews, it was observed that studying overseas has become a craze among Nepalese students. Everybody was crazy about going abroad to study whether they could afford it or not. There are two types of students who plan to go to foreign countries with a view to enrolling at foreign universities: those whose purpose is purely to study (but work in order to further their education in accordance with university's rules and regulations) and those whose purpose is purely to work on student visa. The second category of students flocked to the UK in 2009-10, and, as a result of which, many students

either returned to Nepal or managed to stay there when the UK Government launched a strict policy for those who started working instead of studying.

It can be concluded that without expectations and aspirations, no student would show his/her desire to migrate to study. Hence, the three groups of students expressed mixed views. The potential students' expectations and desires were very high and positive. The students studying in the USA clearly viewed their fulfillment of desires after completing degree but the students studying in the UK and Australia got their desires fulfilled when they reached their destinations for studies. So, a comparison of three groups of students indicated differences of opinion on fulfillments of expectations and aspirations. It is clear that students studying in the USA had their hopes and dreams to study and get a degree but the students studying in the UK and Australia had their dreams of abroad study (not necessarily complete their degree) so their wishes and desires were fulfilled.

The returnee students, on the other hand, firmly replied that their expectations were fulfilled because they completed their higher education and returned to Nepal. In other words, they achieved the success which they had expected before migrating abroad. It was observed that all had higher expectations and aspirations.

(d) Findings of Research Question Four

The views of concerned persons were systemically analyzed in chapter seven. Parents and Managing Director of Educational Consultancy are directly involved in student migration process. Although, officials at the visa section of the concerned embassies

also are related to student mobility, they are not included in this research. Regarding policy concern, however, policy makers were the main participants of this study.

The research question four reads as “*How do policy makers, parents, and Managing Directors of the educational consultancies (others’ perception) observe student migration in the Nepalese context*”? From the analyses of research question four in chapter seven, the following findings are drawn.

It was found from the qualitative interviews that earning in the destination was a hidden agenda of the students.

Policy makers and Managing Directors of ECs viewed that Higher Education Policy and Guidelines for Educational Consultancies were urgently needed.

It was found that students rather than parents decided to go to foreign countries. Parents viewed that psychological costs to the society are on the rise.

It was found from the qualitative interviews that opportunities were the driving force of student migration.

Policy makers and MD of ECs emphasized on pull factors and parents on push factors as reasons for migration.

All participants expressed positive attitude towards student mobility since migration is an investment and brings returns on education.

Discussions

The main difference between the students of Nepal and highly developed economies including the UK is that the Nepalese students migrate to study as well as work. But, students of developed countries are motivated to go purely to study overseas and apply

to get into the world renowned universities of the USA, UK, Australia, France and Germany.

In connection with the motivations and aspirations of the Nepalese students undertaking diploma mobility (going overseas for the whole of a degree), policy makers viewed that earning in the destination was a '*hidden agenda*' of student migration. In an interview with a returnee student, he stated that there were hardly 10-20 percent of the students whose main objective is to study in the destination. It means 80 percent of the migrant students are motivated to work and study simultaneously. Students are also compelled to work in the destination since their parents cannot afford the total costs of foreign education. The ultimate objective of any student, policy makers viewed, is to work. Hence, earning as a "*hidden agenda*" is related to pull factor of migration. Quantitative data support this qualitative data in connection with the job opportunities in the destination.

Higher education policy and Guidelines for educational consultancies were two main issues that were raised by the participants. Higher education policy is needed to address student migration and Guidelines are needed for educational consultancies. The main purpose of the Guidelines is to regulate and monitor ECs. In reality, Nepal lacks a separate higher education policy. An umbrella Act, which aims to address all universities of Nepal, is in the pipeline of the parliament for approval. The main objective of this Act is to enhance quality education on the basis of competition and to regulate and manage higher education institutions. The policy would guide the student mobility. Nevertheless, we can not ignore that there is no policy related to higher education. For example,

Periodic Plan documents and some fragmented policies related to higher education are in operation.

Who decides to go abroad: parents or students themselves? Parentals' role is very important for the career opportunities of students. During the interviews with students and MD of ECs, it was found that their role was limited to finance the education when they (students) decide to go abroad. In the field survey, it was found that more than 42 percent of the students unilaterally decided to migrate to study whereas 38 percent of the parents were the decision maker. In an in-depth interview and focus group discussion, students stated that an overseas study was their own choice rather than their parents'. The trends of some of the students who followed "*Bidesh Jaane Lahar*" in the name of higher education were apparently noticed in Nepal. Some of the students followed their friends and peers (horizontal) who intended to go to foreign countries. In the survey, 8 percent of the respondents stated that they supported their friends' and peers' decision to go abroad. This quantitative data supported qualitative data. However, social and cultural capital- friends' and relatives' support in the destination- was found to be associated with the migration plan and support the social network theory.

Psychological costs or non-educational costs might result in social and cultural effect. Students live in foreign countries leaving their parents in the origin. During an interview, homesickness for students and isolation for parents were described by the students and parents respectively. In an interview, one of the parents viewed that his only one son left him and they were separated each other. Moreover, there is no social security measure in Nepal. There was nobody to look after the old parents since their only son migrated to study and the daughter was married. So, it is said that migrant

students' parental house has been converted into "*Bridddhaaashram*". In this situation, the role of the state is very important for social security measures in order to minimize the social costs.

Opportunities are the driving force of migration (Saravia & Miranda, 2004). Students go abroad for catching opportunities abundantly available in the destination. The majority of the policy makers, MD of ECs and parents stated that students went to foreign countries for better opportunities. So, they were attracted to the destinations and emphasized on "pull" factor of migration. The majority of the students in the focus group discussion and interviews viewed that they would find ample opportunities in the destination. The opportunities may include educational, career, travel, and possibility of emigration (PR/Citizenship). Hence, all participants accepted this as an important cause of student mobility.

Since this study was concentrated on push-pull framework, policy makers and MD of ECs emphasized on pull factors and parents on push factors. The former viewed that students were attracted by destination countries and the latter viewed that students opted for abroad study due to push factors like political, economic, educational and social factors. The mothers of current students expressed that lack of security and employment in Nepal caused their sons to make a ground for abroad study. This qualitative data indicated that parents were very sensitive to their youths' security and safety. For example, one of the parents (mother) expressed that she has forbidden her son from returning to Nepal because of uncertainty.

Like education, student migration is also an investment in human capital. A migrant student calculates costs and benefits of migration. A student migrates if his

expected return (benefit) from migration exceeds costs. So, many researchers have applied human capital theory to student migration. The policy makers, MD of ECs and parents viewed student migration as a positive factor and observed that student go abroad for knowledge economy. They expressed that brain gain and brain circulation outweigh brain drain in this globalized world.

Application of the Theory

Although, push-pull theory is applied to economic migration, a number of researchers applied this theory to academic migration as well. Many researchers such as Zheng, 2003(as cited in Li & Bray); Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri (2006); Li & Bray (2007); and Chen (2007) have applied this theory in international student mobility.

Massey (1987, 1993, and 1998) spoke about the significance of social network linking sending and receiving societies. Hugo (2005, p.14), Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2006), Anthias (2008), Brooks and Waters (2010), and Mohlathe (2011) have discussed the role and importance of social network factors in student migration. Brooks and Waters (2010) in their qualitative research have extensively tried to explain social network in educational mobility of the UK student. This theory is very popular in economic (labour) migration and many researchers applied this theory.

Similarly, Bourdiou's (1986) cultural capital can be conceptualized in the international student mobility. Students go abroad in order to get a globally accepted degree which can be converted into economic capital. Feuer (2009) has used possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) in the expectations and aspirations in Latino youth. Lastly, Tuckman (1970), Heuer (2004) and Smith (2006) have used human capital theory to college student migration.

Push-pull model, social network theory, possible selves theory, human capital theory, cultural capital and the Todaro model were some of the frameworks that were associated with this research. The push-pull model is very famous for economic migration in general and student migration in particular. Since this research does not calculate the costs and benefits of student migration, human capital theory developed by Gary Becker (1964) is equally important in connection with migration because migration is also an investment. However, I have not tested this theory.

To conclude, findings from the analyses of primary data were validated by the findings from the analyses of secondary data. Similarly, findings of this research were supported by previously done related researches. So, the marriage between quantitative and qualitative approaches has shown the validity, reliability and authenticity of this research in which findings have been crosschecked and verified each other. The results of this research fully provided support for the push-pull theory of Lee (1965). In other words, the main causes of student migration were influenced by push-pull theory. Social network theory also influenced student migration so results supported this theory. Students expressed only positive aspirations and expectations in their qualitative interviews but Possible Selves theory discussed both positive and negative possible selves. This theory has been associated with expectations and aspirations but was not tested. The gravity model, cultural capital and human capital theory were also linked with this research.

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Findings and discussions were explained in chapter eight. This chapter discusses summary, conclusion and implications. Student migration is an unexplored area in the Nepalese context. In other words, it has not yet been examined thoroughly. This study is concerned with exploring the main causes of student migration from different perspectives in the globalized context.

Summary

This thesis began with migration in general, followed by student migration. The problems were identified and to address the problems and purposes, research questions were developed. The main purpose of this research is to analyze and describe Nepalese student migration to foreign countries for higher education in a globalized context. More specifically, the study attempted to identify the trends and causes of student migration and explore students' expectations and aspirations from the standpoint of push-pull factors of student migration. Based on the purpose statement, I developed four research questions. They are; (1) what are the trends/ situation of the global and Nepalese student migration to foreign countries for higher education? (2) What are the causes of student migration to foreign countries for higher education and how these causes can be explained from the perspective of push-pull factors? (3) How do potential, current and returnee students perceive their educational aspirations and expectations of going abroad for higher education? and (4) How do policy makers, parents, and Managing Directors of

the educational consultancies (others' perception) observe student migration in the Nepalese context?

Research question one and two were focused on quantitative analysis and research question three and four dealt with qualitative analysis. Therefore, the weightage of fifty percent was given to each quantitative and qualitative approach. The research questions guided the whole analyses of this discourse. In addition to major theoretical models, a conceptual framework was also developed in order to guide the research.

In chapter two, knowledge was enhanced by the review of literature. In the first part of this chapter, theories and models related to student migration were discussed. The gravity model (migration depends on distance and size of economy), human capital theory (migrant weighs costs and benefits of migration), push-pull model (origin, destination, intervening obstacles and personal factors influence migration), Todaro model (income differential between two places as determinant to migrate), social network theory (relatives and friends provide help), possible self theory (future behavior of the migrant and associated with aspirations and expectations) and cultural capital (overseas education should be conceptualized in terms of the accumulation of cultural, social and economic capital) were discussed. In the second part of this chapter, thematic areas like push-pull factors, brain drain were analyzed and the third part discussed about higher education and student migration. The fourth part was fully devoted to student migration and globalization. The research papers and dissertations indicated that the main reason for migration was lack of opportunities in origin and availability of opportunities in the destination. In the course of the literature review, I visited KU, TU, American and British libraries in Kathmandu; Harvard, Colombia, Princeton and Rutgers University library in

the USA and the Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi. Many books, international journals, research papers, and dissertations were reviewed.

The Methodology part was discussed in chapter three of this thesis. Epistemologically and ontologically, this chapter begins with philosophical stance and I followed post-positivism and interpretivism. On the one hand I followed mixed methodologies in order to crosscheck the data, but on the other, I borrowed the strengths of both subjectivity and objectivity approaches. Data were collected from primary and secondary sources. Primary sources of data included questionnaire survey method, in-depth interviews, case studies, focus group discussions, observations whereas secondary sources of data used were published articles, research papers, dissertations, abstracts of dissertation, books, journals, newspapers, education fairs, the BBC Saajha Sabaal and the Google search.

Research tools consist of 41 questionnaires with 30 Likert scale for origin and 25 questionnaires with 33 Likert scale for destination were developed on the advice of the supervisors. The Likert scale was interpreted based on the range of strongly agree 1-1.7, agree 1.8-2.5, uncertain 2.6-3.4, disagree 3.5-4.2, and strongly disagree 4.3-5 (Belbase, 1981, p.47). Based on the cross-sectional survey by employing stratified random sampling, 407 sampled students in four districts (Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Chitwan and Kaski) were distributed questionnaires in order to collect primary data. The response rate was 90 percent. The main criterion for selecting sample districts is the number of students aspiring to go to foreign countries. For this, the secondary source of data was taken from the Ministry of Education. For an in-depth interview, purposive sampling for potential students (13), current students who were studying in the USA (4), returnee students (5),

policy makers (7), parents (5) and Managing Directors of Educational Consultancies (5) was used for generating qualitative data. The primary data was also collected from the USA, UK and Australia. The total number of respondents in three countries was 38 current students.

Similarly, four focus group discussions were conducted in order to generate qualitative data. The selection criterion for qualitative interviews was based on purposive sampling. The respondents/ participants were potential, current and returnee students, policy makers, parents and Managing Directors of Educational Consultancies. For reliability, a pilot test was conducted in Kathmandu and Chitwan and nine students were re-tested. The correlation was highly positive. Based on the findings of the pilot survey, I managed to re-design the research tools in order to conduct the final survey. Since the questionnaires were developed with the advice of my two supervisors, the validity was established.

In connection with the data analysis, quantitative data were thematically coded and entered into SPSS software package and then analyzed whereas qualitative data were manually coded and analyzed thematically. The respondents' verbatim responses were entered and immediately coded by the interviewer (with help from a coding/dictionary programme) into the appropriate code (Heuer, 2004, pp.53-54).

Chapters four through seven are the analysis part of the thesis. In the first part of the chapter four, the trend of the global student migration was analyzed followed by the trend of the Nepalese student migration. Causes of student migration were analyzed in chapter five. To analyze the data in chapter five, descriptive statistical tools and the K-W test, the Wilcoxon test, correlation test and t-test were employed. Chapter six discussed

perception, aspirations and expectation of potential, current and returnee students on student mobility whereas in chapter seven, various participants like policy makers, parents, and Managing Directors of Educational Consultancies had expressed their views on student migration. These three participants are also called “others’ perception on student migration”.

Finally, chapter eight is the findings and discussions of this research. All findings were based on research questions. The key finding is that student migration is motivated by educational opportunities (recognized degrees) abroad. However, their hidden agenda was found to be earning as well so they were pulled by work and study in the destination. The main push factors were low employment opportunities as well as low quality education. Hence, push, pull and network are determinant factors of migration. The findings from quantitative data were crosschecked by the findings of qualitative data. In the same way, findings were supported by previous researches.

Conclusion

Students and scholars leaving their home in a quest for education and knowledge is not a new phenomenon; neither are the transplantation of educational institutions, and transfer of the epistemic knowledge base of curricula and text books from one culture to another (Guruz, 2008, p.2). Student mobility is seen as educational benefits to foreign students and economic benefits to host countries (Clark & Neave, 1992). Hence, both parties are benefitted from a study abroad programme. The literature on student migration is generally based on two reasons such as consumption theory of demand and investment theory of demand. Firstly, students migrate for non-pecuniary reasons, benefitting from the pleasure of studying and for better quality of life (consumption reason). Secondly,

they consider (higher) education as an investment, estimating its costs and its returns (in terms of better job opportunities, higher salaries). It is an investment theory of demand (Tuckman, 1970). Both reasons are also at the heart of student migration (Baryla & Dotterweich, 2001). It was discussed in the literature review that like education, migration is also an investment. Although, this research is associated with both reasons, it specially focuses on an investment theory of demand. Based on research questions as well as on major findings and discussions presented in the preceding chapter, the following conclusions are drawn.

Although the number of international students, who move for educational purposes, is more than 3 million, this field is still largely unexplored. According to Brooks and Waters (2011, p. 169), globalization (neo-liberalism) drives much student mobility. After the 1980s', the movement of student migration rose dramatically because of globalization. So, student migration, higher education and globalization are inextricably linked with each other. Higher education has been seen as a commercial product because countries receiving students have earned billions of dollars by selling education services to international students. Consequently, student sending countries like ours have negative trade in higher education services.

The US, UK, and Australia have retained their position to date as top destination countries in the internationalization of HE hosting 70 percent of the international students. The trend of the Nepalese student mobility in quest of knowledge in foreign countries has been increasing continuously and risen to more than 26 thousands in 2009-2010. Nepal's eleventh position sending students to the US educational market in 2008-2009 exemplifies that she has established her status as one of the top countries of origin

in the world. Nevertheless, other major destination countries are the UK, Australia, Canada, Finland and New Zealand.

Push-pull and social network factors were found to be determinants of Nepali student migration for higher learning. Student migration was stimulated by educational as well as economic causes. Educational factors included low quality education in origin and quality education (globally accepted degree) in destination; lack of choices of subject and lab and research facilities in origin and choices of subject and advanced research facilities in the destination. Economic causes included low employment/ career opportunities in origin and earning/ career opportunities in the destination. In addition to push and pull factors, social network factor also facilitated in the migration process and worked in a positive way. Personal factor, which is neither push nor pull, was found one of the reasons for migration. There was an inverse relationship between age and migration and all age groups, genders, and ethnic students expressed similar responses on causes of migration. It was found from the test that higher family income was not a determinant factor of migration.

Students' internal forces like aspirations, motivations were also explored in connection with educational migration. Nepalese students had high educational expectations and aspirations which they expressed positively. Moreover, students were motivated by, among other things, "*bidesh jaane lahar*". But, their ultimate objective was to earn a degree followed by career opportunities. So, opportunities were the driving force of student migration. It was found that students rather than parents decided to go to foreign countries. Since the pull factors dominated the push factors, all respondents/participants expressed positive attitude towards student mobility as being an investment and returns on education. Higher education policy was concerned with all

policy makers/ educationists on the ground that there should be a concrete policy to deal with student mobility. The t-test results revealed that the potential and the current students' attitude was similar concerning the causes of migration.

Finally, the craze for going abroad was found to be common among potential students. The main motive for student migration was to obtain a globally accepted degree in order to get higher rate of return on that degree. However, Nepalese students were also motivated by work and study at the backdrop of higher education in the destination. Limited earning opportunities and low quality education (push) prompted students to leave the country, for educational opportunities (pull) abroad. Globalization also has offered opportunities for abroad study. Therefore, both sending and receiving countries were benefitted from student migration in terms of brain gain and brain trade respectively. To conclude, student migration can not be prevented in this globalized world. So, it needs to be managed in a proper way.

Implications

Student migration results in human capital formation. Although, their movement leads to an investment in human capital, they seek permanent residency especially in the US, Canada and Australia after the completion of their studies. So, it leads to brain drain. However, this is the age of migration and globalization so a student living in a foreign country also brings in brain circulation, brain gain and remittances in Nepal. Emigration leads to brain gain if the returns to education is higher overseas than at home thus leading to higher returns to human capital thereby enhancing further investment in human capital (World Bank, 2008, p. 266). From another perspective, a destination country is entitled to

benefit from student migration as a brain gain since it did not invest in his education. Like NRNs, student migration results in positive impact on the Nepalese economy. It was found from the qualitative data that the number of returnees is very negligible because of lack of employment opportunities in Nepal. Nepal's economic and political condition has aggravated further student mobility.

Moreover, Nepal lacks a concrete higher education policy to especially address to student migration. So, these are some issues that need to be addressed. Basically, the main stakeholders (respondents/participants) of this research were students, policy makers, parents and MD of ECs. So, implications for these stakeholders (participants) are presented below.

Implications for Government

Government is the sole agency for formulating any policy. A concrete Higher Education Policy compatible with other education policies has been demanded from all sides with a view to managing the flow of student mobility. Similarly, students' quest for abroad study was found to be associated with quality education and globally accepted degree. They were attracted to foreign universities because of low quality education in Nepal. Hence, low quality education has been the main issue in and around education sector of Nepal. Reformed curricula in compatible with foreign universities ultimately enhance the credibility of Nepal's educational system. However, quality education has been a buzzword in documents related to education in Nepal. In order to manage the flow of Nepalese students, investment in technical education and concept of multi-university and deemed university is necessary.

She earns remittances not only from labour migrants and NRNs but also from students who stay abroad. For example, NRNs have supported in the economic and social sectors of Nepal. They bring in brain gain and technology in the country. Similarly, Nepalese students hold high position and work in the science and technology fields in foreign countries (such as in NASA) as a result of which they have earned prestige of Nepal in the international arena. So, because of globalization, Nepal can benefit from brain gain instead of brain drain. Moreover, students transfer knowledge and technology through brain circulation as well. In this connection, Bhandari and Laughlin (2009, p.8) are of the view that brain drain and brain gain implies a unidirectional, linear approach to mobility that does not fully capture the current reality of international flows. They prefer the term “*brain circulation*” or “*brain exchange*” to account for the increasingly multidirectional nature of mobility and such mutually beneficial for sending and receiving countries. It indicates that sending countries also are benefitted from student mobility. Hence, there are tangible and intangible benefits from student migration. Internationalization of higher education has resulted in more number of students reaching around 3 million globally and Nepal also has joined in the international arena sending more than 20 thousands students to foreign countries (except India) annually. However, very negligible foreign students come to Nepal for studies. So, Nepal has negative balance of payment (more export of students than import resulting in the outflow of foreign currency).

Since the developed countries have been benefitted from brain trade in the form of commercialization of higher education, Nepal also can earn by enrolling foreign students. Nepal needs to attract international students because of its geographical and

climatic condition and study on Buddhism and other sectors related to the Himalayas. For example, India has wooed international students. Furthermore, tourism is one of the highest preferred and potential areas of Nepal. For this, study on hospitable management is suitable considering high values of this sector. To avoid strike and Hartal, concept of residential university is necessary.

Investment in educational infrastructural development ultimately attracts the private sectors for further development. Nepal can benefit from the joint-venture in investment in higher education. For this, tax haven and repatriation of invested money needs to be eased. Similarly, like India, establishment of branches of reputed world renowned universities in Nepal ultimately reduces (brain drain) the outflow of students from Nepal. In the GATS, it comes under Mode-3 in which foreign universities establish their branches in Nepal as a form of commercial presence in trade in higher education services. It is also called institution mobility. Until now, Nepalese students go abroad for higher studies (Mode -2 student mobility).

Educational cost is important for student migration. Most of the students are motivated to go to foreign countries on self-finance basis, as a result of which, they carry with them the precious foreign currency. For example, Nepali students carried Rs 12342.6 million in the Fiscal Year 2009-10 (Nepal Rastra Bank, 2011). If outflow of the Nepalese students and inflow of international students are balanced, the costs in educational sector can be minimized. However, foreign currency should be managed not controlled since the outflow of students is a natural phenomenon. Moreover, it is the responsibility of the government to provide foreign currency to outgoing students. But, only real students should go abroad and come back after completion of their studies.

The rate of student mobility increases if unemployment persists in the country. Lack of employment opportunity has pushed the students out of Nepal. The ultimate aim of any person is to be employed after completing his education. If there is a bleak situation of employment, then she/he chooses to leave the country. The creation of employment opportunities inevitably absorbs the newly graduated youths of the country and limits the migratory behavior of students. Political instability and lack of peace in Nepal has promoted further trends of student migration. Political stability, peace and tranquility help promote confidence and discourage the exodus of students.

Human resources planning (Projection) is very important in order to ascertain the demand and supply of skilled people. Every year, thousands of students have been migrating to different countries and they hardly return to Nepal. It has resulted in brain drain. In order to find out the total needs of skilled person, an effective human resource planning in coordination with the National Planning Commission, Ministries of Education, Health, Agriculture, Physical Planning and Works (for engineers and overseers), General Administration and Federation of the Nepalese Chamber of Commerce and Industries can actively lead as an institutional set up. The NPC has established a separate "Human Resource Division" in 2010 for the projection of skilled people needed for the country. However, it takes longer time to systematically project all skilled people by co-ordinating concerned agencies.

The MoE also could provide right information to students as well as parents through its website on study abroad programme by listing the genuine universities of foreign countries so that students acquiring globally recognized degree are guided by government agency. It can be the right way for potential students.

Implications for Parents

Middle income-holders parents in Nepal send their son/daughter to foreign countries by selling land or borrowing loan at high interest rate. Because of lack of knowledge on student mobility, they have to follow their youngsters who aspire to go abroad. In such a situation, the role of parents is simply to provide money for foreign education and decision making power rests on their sons/ daughters. Some of the students have paid back the money that they had borrowed in order to fund their education. It was found from the field research that most of the potential students came from middle income families and parents hardly visit the educational consultancies to enquire about the status of study abroad programme and consultancies itself.

Some of the parents live in Nepal alone because all their youngsters go to foreign countries. Such types of situation have created social costs to both parents and students. Students feel psychological costs such as missing relatives, friends and surroundings. Similarly, parents feel loneliness. During an interview, they frequently used to say “*Haamro Kohi Saahaaraa choina*” since there is no free social security measures like medical facilities, take care of the elderly people. However, government provides senior citizens and widows monthly allowances of Rs 500 as social security measures.

Implications for Students

Nepalese students’ desire for abroad study has brought about human capital formation. Migration means investment in human capital. However, it has resulted in some implications for students directly. Most of the migrant students do not return to Nepal. After completing their studies, they need to return to Nepal and apply knowledge but they work under the H1 visa and apply for permanent residence like “Green Card” or “PR”. In

other words, the nation expects from returnee students the utilization and experiences of their knowledge. But, some scholars view that students living in foreign countries also can contribute to nation through brain circulation and brain gain. Aspiring students need to consult the genuine educational consultancies for counselling and admission to the English classes before going abroad. Moreover, they themselves have to find out the information of the destination country on subject to be studied, the status of universities or colleges, tuition fees, possibility of employment opportunities, climate, culture and immigration laws.

The majority of the students plan to study in foreign countries without consultation with the parents. The trends of students show that they need to consult their families before departing. There are also some educational institutes that provide quality education. To name a few such as engineering campus at Pulchowk, Maharajgunj medical campus and Kathmandu University. The real students should go abroad for further education. In order to further their education, students need to work maximum hours a week (they are entitled to work up to 20 hrs/week) in foreign countries. More jobs are created in summer season especially in the USA so Nepalese students decide to move on a greener pastures (for instance, Texas) where they can get employment during the summer vacation. With three months' earning, they maintain their livelihood for nine months. Those students who want to enter into foreign country with a view to earning need to think several times.

Implications for Educational Consultancies

Educational consultancies, which are registered at the Office of the Company, work as a facilitator and bridge between students and educational institutions abroad, provide aspiring students counseling on abroad study. They also run the English classes like

TOEFL, IELTS, SAT. The Educational Consultancies located mostly in Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Narayangadh, Pokhara and Butwal have been giving services to the students. But, some of the consultancies have charged students more money than prescribed in their code of conduct. For instance, in 2009-2010, more than 12000 students were issued visas and went to the UK. But, many Nepali students had to suffer and returned home because they were enrolled at bogus colleges in the UK. This indicates that some of the Managing Directors of educational consultancies have no idea as to which college in the destination is genuine. So, potential students believe in their sweet talks. Hence, those who plan to study in foreign countries have learnt a good lesson from the UK's case. Guidelines designed for the ECs need to be properly implemented and monitored by the MoE. The qualification of MDs and teachers, infrastructure of the ECs, services charges, right information to be provided to the students as well as parents who should be accompanied by the students, tracking and keeping records of the students are some of the issues that need to be addressed immediately.

Implication for Society and Culture

Historically, our Nepalese society is composed of joint family system with rich culture and sons take care of their parents. Children are easily reared and brought up in a joint family. Because of student migration, the structure of the Nepalese society has gradually changed and become "Nuclear Family" as in the Western society. So, the house, where parents of the migrant students live, has been converted into "Briddhashram" (Wagley, Feb 8 2010, Kantipur) meaning only old parents live with nobody. Even some parents are forced to live in Devghat or other religious places or in apartment buildings in order to have social attachment so that they avoid loneliness. Nevertheless, some parents go to

foreign countries to join their sons/ daughters annually. Moreover, the traditional Nepalese cultural values and custom are declining and vanishing. Students began to adopt the Western cultures (westernization) such as visiting night club, marrying (fake marriage and real marriage) foreign girls, wearing clothes with the branded name, and, as a result, forget their cultures. However, they know the global cultural values and norms with broad horizon in this globalization age. The social and cultural capital has special values in the Nepalese society.

In conclusion, Nepal can benefit from twin factors namely (1) brain gain and (2) earnings from the commercialization of higher education services by attracting international students. Higher education policy associated with human resources planning would be a solution to regulate and manage student migration.

Future Research

International students also are one of the migrant groups that need to be thoroughly studied. This research has initiated a small step to study in this area. Therefore, this research has attempted to contribute to filling the gap in the literature of international student migration to higher education in the Nepalese perspective. The main purpose of the study was to examine why migration occurs. This study has given space to both quantitative and qualitative methods equally. The study of international educational mobility /migration has generated new knowledge in the Nepalese perspective. Since this is the first doctoral dissertation on international student migration in Nepal, this research has certainly established and validated previous researches. However, it is an unexplored area in international student migration in Nepal. There are many avenues for additional research such as completely qualitative research or purely quantitative research.

Finally, there are basically three areas which were not fully covered by this research. So, the areas that need to be studied in the future are costs of student migration, the comparative analysis of those who would like and would not like to go abroad, and impact of brain gain. I have very briefly discussed brain drain in my study.

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ANNEXES

Annex-1

Questionnaire for Potential Students

Maximum Time: 20 minutes

Part One

Tick any one of the followings:

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Caste/ethnicity Brahmin Chhetree Newar Dalit Other (please specify)
3. Mention the type of school where you studied.
 Govt. funded Community Private (boarding) Other (please mention)
4. What is your division and percentage (%) in the SLC?
 Distinction % First % Second % Pass
5. What is your division and percentage (%) in the proficiency certificate level /10 +2 / A level?
 Distinction % First % Second % Pass
6. What is your area of study (faculty) in the proficiency certificate level/10+2/A level?
 Pure science Management Agriculture Tourism (Hotel Management)
 Engineering Health Forestry Nursing Education Economics Others
7. Which of the following best explains the annual income of your family?
 Rs 58,400 Rs 58,400 –1, 25,000 Rs 1, 25,000- 3, 00000
 Rs 3, 00000- 5, 00000 Rs 5, 00000-10, 00000 More than Rs 10, 00000
8. What is the occupation of your father/ guardian?
 Farmer Businessman Government Service Doctor
 Engineer Professor Teacher Other
9. How did you come to know about study abroad programme?
 Newspaper Electronic media (Radio/TV) Friends
 Parents Professors Other (Please specify)
10. Who will bear the costs of your education when you go abroad?
 Parents My relatives in foreign country Bank and Finance company

Scholarship Earnings abroad others (Please specify)

11. Which country are you planning to go to?

USA UK Australia New Zealand Other (specify country):

12. Why?

13. Who advised you to go abroad for higher studies?

My parents Myself My Professors My friends My relatives My teachers Others

Please answer the following questions.

14. What is your present age? -----Years

15. Where is your permanent residence in Nepal? (Please mention the place where your parents live):

16. What is the education of your parents? (Such as Under SLC/ SLC/Intermediate/ Bachelor/ Master):

Father's education: Mother's education

17. What is the name of High School / Boarding School where you studied up to SLC?

18. What is the name of campus/college where you studied +2 or Intermediate level or A level?

19. What are the preparatory courses you have been taking at this educational consultancy with a view to going abroad?

20. How much do you pay for the service charge to this educational consultancy, where you are enrolled, to facilitate admission to the university abroad? Rs.

Part Two

21. Which one of the following statements is the **dominant reason** that has **forced** or **pushed** you to go abroad for higher education? **Please tick only one** तलका मध्ये एउटासा मात्र चिन्ह लगाउनुहोस्

Lack of quality of education in Nepal

Lack of employment opportunities (earnings) in Nepal

My parents encouraged me because they would afford for my studies abroad

My choice of subjects are not offered in colleges/campuses in Nepal

Lack of experienced Professors,

Lack of well-equipped science laboratory

- Extensive and modern libraries facilities are not available in Nepal
- Curricula are not reformed
- There are no career prospects
- There is political instability
- There is lack of security
- There are frequent strikes (Hartals) in campus and Bandh in Nepal
- Discrimination against enrollment in college/campus
- Discrimination against gender in college/campus
- Discrimination against scholarship
- Nepalese traditional culture (custom)
- Lack of recreational facilities
- I am planning to go abroad because all my friends/relatives have already left Nepal
- I am determined to go to foreign country because Nepal has low level of development
- I plan to go abroad because I have an excellent academic performance (higher marks)
- My prestige will be enhanced in the Nepalese society if I go abroad
- I am interested to go abroad because of my personal factors
- Others (Please specify)

22. Which one of the following statements is the **dominant reason** that has **attracted** you (in the destination like USA, UK, Australia, Canada or any other country where you are planning to go) in order to study higher education? Please tick only one. तलका मध्ये

एउटा मात्र चिन्ह लगाउनुहोस्)

- Quality education in foreign country
- Earnings (employment) opportunities abroad
- Educational as well as earning opportunities abroad
- Career opportunities available
- There are experienced and friendly Professors
- Laboratories and extensive research facilities available
- There are reformed curricula
- There are reputed universities abroad
- Availability of choice (my interest) subjects,
- Chances of getting scholarship/ subsidized tuition fees

- No strike/ Banda in that country where I intend to go
- Meeting multinational class mates.
- Democratic government and freedom
- Freedom of religion.
- Security and social security measures
- Cultural diversity.
- Chances of getting "Green Card" (permanent residence),
- Western life styles and free society
- Recreational facilities are available
- Best living environment in foreign country attracted me
- Best campus atmosphere is available
- Expansion of my horizon has been the main factor
- My relatives have been living abroad and they would support me
- My friends have been living abroad and they would support me
- I like independent life in foreign country
- I like to live in developed country where there is high per capita income
- I have an intention to go to foreign country because of quality of life
- Experience of going abroad
- Others (Please specify)

Please tick “Yes” or “No”

- 23 Do your relatives live in foreign countries? Yes No
- 24 If “Yes” do they support you when you reach there? Yes No
25. If “Yes” what kinds of supports (lodging/food/ fees/information) will they offer to you?
26. How long will they offer to you? Please mention the time/periods.
27. Do your friends live in foreign countries? Yes No
- 28 If “Yes” do they support you when you reach there? Yes No
29. If “Yes” what kinds of support will they offer to you?
30. How long will they offer to you? Please mention the time/ periods.
31. Are you thinking to return to Nepal after completion of your studies? Yes No
32. Why?

33. Have you tried or are you trying to contact with the foreign universities personally?

YesNo

Part Three

34. Please **tick only one** out of five Columns to each of the following statements of table

A and B. तलका टेबल A / B का पाँचवटा कोलमहरु मध्ये प्रत्येक सि.नं. मा कुनै एउटामा मात्र चिन्ह लगाउनुहोस् ।

Push Factors

S.N.	statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	I am planning to go abroad for higher education because there is low quality education in Nepal	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
2.	I am motivated to migrate to higher studies on account of my better academic performance (highest marks in the SLC and 10 +2/ A level/ Certificate level)	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
3.	I have higher aspiration to migrate to foreign country because there is a few chances of employment (earnings)in Nepal	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
4.	My expectations and aspirations are very high in connection with the educational migration	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
5.	I am expecting to go to foreign country for higher studies because my parents will bear entire expenditure for my education	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
6	Political instability is not deciding factor for my migration to foreign countries	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
7.	I have an intention to go to foreign country because my choice of subjects	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree

	are not taught in Nepal					disagree
8.	I hope to migrate to foreign countries because there are no scientific laboratory, well-equipped library, good educational environment and experienced and highly motivated professors in Nepal.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
9.	I aspire to migrate to study abroad because classes are frequently disturbed in Nepal	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
10	The increase of my parental income is not determinant factor to migrate to higher education	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
11.	I am planning to go abroad because Nepal has low level of development and traditional culture(custom)	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
12.	I want to migrate to foreign country because all my friends/peers have already gone abroad.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
13.	I like to go abroad because there are no recreational facilities in Nepal	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
14.	I plan to go abroad because there is discrimination against scholarship, enrollment, gender and religion in Nepal.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
15.	I fully depend on educational consultancies for my studies abroad	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree

Pull Factors

S.N.	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
------	------------	---	---	---	---	---

1.	I plan to migrate to foreign country because of job opportunities(earnings) available there	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
2.	I aspire to go abroad because of career opportunities in the foreign country	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
3.	Educational opportunities are my prime motive behind the migration	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
4.	I like to go abroad because my choice subjects are offered in foreign university	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
5.	Job opportunities are not only the determinant factor to go abroad	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
6.	Quality of education and foreign degree (accreditation) attracted me to go abroad	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
7.	There are two motives for going abroad. They are education and employment opportunities	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
8.	Quality of education and good reputation of the university do not attract to me.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
9.	My relatives/ peers/ friends who have been living in foreign country inspired me to go abroad.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
10.	I plan to migrate to study abroad because there are facilities for advanced research, scientific	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree

	laboratory, best libraries, scholarship and experienced Professors					
11.	I want to migrate to foreign country because of free, democratic and advanced society, cultural diversity and chances of getting “Green Card” (PR).	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
12.	Educational opportunities are not the prime motive behind the migration in the foreign country.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
13.	The Western society, culture, safety, multinational classmates and recreational facilities attracted to me to go abroad.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
14.	My relatives/ friends who have been residing in foreign country will not support me when I go abroad	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree
15.	I am planning to migrate to foreign country especially for earnings on student visa.	I strongly agree	I agree	It depends	I disagree	I strongly disagree

Part Four

Please write down the following statements:-कृपया बुंदागत रुपमा नेपालीमा पनि लेख्न सकिने

35. In your opinion, what is quality of education? -तपाईंको विचारमा गुणस्तर शिक्षा भनेको के हो ?)

36. What are your aspirations in your life in the context of going abroad for higher education?

(विदेश अध्ययन गर्न जाने प्रशंगमा तपाईंको चाँहना/ईच्छाहरु के के छन् ?)

37. What are your expectations from higher education abroad? -तपाईंले विदेशमा अध्ययन गर्दा उच्च शिक्षाबाट के के अपेक्षा राख्नु भएको छ ?)

38. What are the improvements needed for reforming higher education in Nepal so that you may continue to study here rather than going abroad? -नेपालमा उच्च शिक्षामा के के सुधार भई दिए तपाईं विदेश पढ्न जानुहुन्न थियो ? अर्थात् नेपालमै पढ्नु हुन्थ्यो ?)

39. What are some of the other factors affecting higher education in Nepal? -नेपालमा उच्च शिक्षालाई प्रभाव पार्ने अन्य तत्वहरू के के छन् ?)

40. What are the negative aspects of going abroad for higher studies? (उच्च शिक्षाको निम्ति विदेश जाँदा नकारात्मक पक्षहरू के के देख्नुहुन्छ ?)

41. Do you have any other comments? -तपाईंको केही कुरा भन्नु छ कि ?)

Your email address (optional):

Date: / / / 2009

Annex-2

Questionnaire for the Nepalese college students who are enrolled at different educational institutions in the USA, the UK and Australia.

Maximum Time: 10 minuet

Part One: General information

1 .Name:

2. Permanent residence in Nepal (please mention only district where your parents live):

3 What is the name of your university/ education institution/ community college/ campus in the USA/UK/ Australia?

4. Area of study:

Please tick (√) only one in the following

5. Gender: Male Female

6. Age 18-21, 22-25, 26-29, 30 and above

7. Ethnicity: Brahmin Chhetree Newar Dalit Other (please specify)

8. Education qualification of your father: Please tick one Under SLC. SLC +2 Graduate Master PhD

9. School type in Nepal Govt. School Private School Community School

10. What is your division in the SLC: Distinction First Second Pass

11. What is your division in the Certificate level / +2 / A Level: Distinction First Second Pass

12. What is your area of study in the Certificate level? Science Commerce Arts Education Management Others

13. Did you process your documents through educational consultancy in Nepal? Yes No

14 What is the main source of income of your family? Agriculture Business Service (Govt. Corporation, Private) NGO/ INGO other (please mention):

15. Who has borne the costs of educational migration including tuition fees, food and lodging in USA/UK/Australia?

Parents Educational institution in the USA/UK/Australia Bank and finance company in Nepal Self (earning) Relatives in the USA/UK/Australia Other

16. Do you work on part time job? Yes No

17. Do you remit (send money) to your parents/family in Nepal? Yes No

18 Do you return to Nepal after completing your studies? Yes No Not sure

19. What forces prompted you (push factor) to leave the native country (Nepal)?

- Unemployment & poverty
- Conflict (Maoist problems)
- Lack of quality education
- Educational opportunities (Access)
- Poor environments & natural disasters
- Interested subjects not offered by the universities in Nepal
- Low skill price (earnings)
- Under developed country & backward society
- Strikes at the colleges so courses are not finished & examinations are not held in time
- Others (please mention)

20. What forces attracted or encouraged you (pull factor) to select the USA, UK, Australia as a destination?

- Job opportunities & better earnings
- Education opportunities and quality of education
- Freedom of religious, political and social belief
- Freedom of parents
- Pleasant and safe environments
- To enjoy western lives and culture
- Social networks (Family & friends in the USA/UK)
- Higher skill price (earnings)
- Others (please mention)

21. What were your expectations in Nepal?

- To acquire higher & quality education
- To get employment easily
- To expect both (higher education and employment)
- To enjoy freedom
- To visit & see the new places

- Others (Please mention)
22. What were your educational aspirations that you had dreamt of in Nepal?
- Strong desire to study in the reputed university in the USA
- Strong desire to achieve a position (academically talented)
- Strong desire to be competitive in the world market
- Strong desire to improve standard of living and social status
- All the above
23. Who encouraged you to select USA/ UK/Australia?
- Parents Self Friends/peers Teachers Relatives in the USA/UK/Australia
- Other
24. Are your aspirations and expectations fulfilled in the USA/UK? Yes No

Main Parts of the research

Liquert Scale: 1 =strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= undecided, 4= disagree, 5 =strongly disagree)

25. Please read each statement below and tick (\checkmark) only one of each column.

Push factors

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|------------------|---------|-----------|------------|---------------------|
| 1 | I had no expectations and aspirations in Nepal when I was planning to come to the USA/UK/Australia? | I strongly agree | I agree | Undecided | I disagree | I strongly disagree |
| 2. | I was motivated to migrate for higher studies on account of my better academic performance (higher marks in TOEFL, SLC, +2) | I strongly agree | I agree | Undecided | I disagree | I strongly disagree |
| 3. | Conflict in the country pushed me to come to the USA/UK/Australia | I strongly agree | I agree | Undecided | I disagree | I strongly disagree |
| 4. | My expectations and aspirations were high in Nepal | I strongly agree | I agree | Undecided | I disagree | I strongly disagree |
| 5. | I came to the USA/UK/Australia because quality of education is | I strongly agree | I agree | Undecided | I disagree | I strongly disagree |

	provided by a limited number of schools in Nepal (Lack of quality education)					disagree
6	Internal disturbances (Political/Maoist) was not responsible factor to pursue higher education in the USA/UK/Australia	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
7.	I chose the American/British/Australian Universities because I was deprived of opportunity to study those subjects and courses that are available only in the USA/UK/Australia	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
8.	I selected the foreign universities due to the increases of my parental income	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
9.	My parent's decision to send me to foreign universities played a major role	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
10	The increase of my parental income was not determinant factor to migrate for higher education	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
11.	Lack of quality of education and limited subjects offered in Nepal were not major causes of educational migration	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
12.	I solely decided to study in foreign universities	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
13.	I had expected better educational opportunities in the	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree

	USA/UK/Australia when I was in Nepal					disagree
14.	I had expected employment opportunities in the USA/UK/Australia when I was in Nepal	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
15.	I expected both educational and employment opportunities	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
16.	Most of my friends, relatives migrated to the USA/UK/Australia for studies so I also decided to do so	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
17.	I did not expect employment opportunities in the USA/UK/Australia when I was planning to come to the USA/UK/Australia	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree

Pull factors

1.	I chose to come to the USA/UK/Australia because of job opportunities available	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
2.	I earn more in the USA/UK/Australia than in my native country	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
3.	Educational opportunities are my prime motive behind the migration to the USA/UK/Australia	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
4.	I could study those subjects that are not offered in Nepal	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree

5.	Job opportunities was not the deciding factor to come to the USA/UK/Australia	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
6.	Quality of education and foreign degree (quality of life) attracted me to stay in the USA/UK/Australia	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
7.	I missed my parents/ friends/ relatives/ culture	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
8.	Quality of education and good reputation of the university in the USA/UK/Australia did not attract to me.	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
9.	My relatives/ parents/ friends who live in the USA/UK/Australia were the sources of my educational migration	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
10.	I am getting scholarship provided by the university where I study.	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
11.	The American / British/ Australian society lured to me	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
12.	Educational opportunities were not the prime motive behind the migration to the USA/UK/Australia	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
13.	The higher education policy and immigration policy of the American/British/Australian government are liberal.	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree
14.	Educational facilities (library, lab &	I strongly agree	I agree	Undecided	I disagree	I strongly disagree

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---------------------|------------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------|
| | other physical facilities) are the best
in the university of the
USA/UK/Australia. | agree | agree | | disagree | strongly
disagree |
| 15 | Making new friends, educational and
employment opportunities, best
learning in the college, democracy
and disciplined free society far
outweigh home sickness in the
USA/UK/Australia | I strongly
agree | I
agree | Undecided | I
disagree | I
strongly
disagree |
| 16. | My relatives/ parents/ friends were
not the sources of my educational
migration to the USA/UK/Australia | I strongly
agree | I
agree | Undecided | I
disagree | I
strongly
disagree |

Your email:

Address in the USA/UK/Australia

Annex-3*
(based on RQ 3 and 4)

For Students

1. How do you perceive your motives behind your plan on study abroad?
2. What are the main factors that forced you to migrate to foreign country? Why?
3. What is the dominant factor that pushed you to go abroad?
4. What forces attracted you to go abroad?
5. Which is the determinant factor that pulled you to foreign country? Why?
6. What do you expect from study abroad?
7. How do you explain that you have a strong desire to migrate to foreign countries?
8. Since your expenditure is met by your parents, how do they manage?
9. Since there are many campuses that provide quality education, then why do you intend to migrate to higher education?
10. How do you perceive that most of the students go abroad for earnings on student's visa so they can not finish their studies on time because of hard work?
11. What do you expect from your friends/relatives in the destination?

For policy makers and educationists

1. How do you see college students outflow despite educational opportunities in Nepal?
2. How do you assess higher education policy of the government of Nepal?
3. Why do many students go abroad for higher education in spite of quality education in Nepal?
4. How do you perceive that higher education has increasingly become an export industry (commercialization) on the one hand and knowledge economy on the other in the context of globalization?
5. Study-to-work migration is very common these days? What is your opinion about this?
6. How do you see Nepalese student's migration results in "Brain Drain" since they do not return to Nepal?
7. How do you feel student out- migration as a policy concern?

For managers of educational consultancies

1. . How do you explain the role of educational consultancies for college student's migration of Nepal?
2. . What is your opinion about the student's outflow for higher studies through educational consultancies and individual efforts of the students?
3. . How do you assess the higher education policy of the government in connection with study abroad?
4. . How do you perceive educational consultancies of Nepal?

For parents

1. What is your opinion about your son's/daughter's intention to study abroad?
2. There are many colleges that impart education suited to your son/daughter, then why are you sending them to other countries for higher studies?
3. How do you manage the expenditure for the education of your son/daughter abroad?
4. Since most of the students do not return home even though they finish their studies, how do you perceive this situation?

* Other sub-questions were instantly developed while taking interview.

April, 2009

Annex: 4**Number of Students who were planning to go abroad for higher studies****(Countrywise).**

Countries	No. of students	Countries	No. of students	Countries	No. of students	Countries	No. of students
UK	19,179	Australia	1328	USA	1258	Japan	757
Canada	668	Bangladesh	552	China	238	Finland	198
Germany	188	Sweden	179	Philippines	171	Norway	166
Switzerland	146	Georgia	146	Ireland	131	Cyprus	117
Thailand	105	NZ land	139	Saudi Arabia	85	Denmark	83
Poland	67	Malta	53	Pakistan	50	Netherlands	49
S. Africa	42	Malaysia	41	Hungary	38	France	38
S. Korea	51	Spain	24	UAE	32	Lithuania	22
Ukraine	20	Russia	16	Italy	14	Latvia	13
Belgium	13	Portugal	13	Fiji	12	Singapore	11
Austria	9	Taiwan	6	Czech Rep.	5	Hong Kong	2
Egypt	2	Romania	2	Kirgiz	2	Slovakia	1
Costarica	1	Libya	1	Estonia	1		

Grand Total: 26,485

Source: Scholarship Section, MOE (From 17 July, 2009 to 16 July 2010) 2066-4-01 to 2067-03-31 BS.

Note: 428 students who took NOC to go to India are not counted here. According to MOE, total number of students who were issued NOC was 26,913

Annex: 5.

Number of potential students who took NOC in the Fiscal Year 2008-2009

Males		Females	
<u>Districts</u>	<u>No of students</u>	<u>Districts</u>	<u>No of students</u>
Achham	11	Achham	4
Arghakhachi	81	Arghakhachi	20
Baglung	385	Baglung	74
Baitadi	28	Baitadi	6
Bajhang	16	Bajhang	3
Bajura	3	-	
Banke	115	Banke	35
Bara	124	Bara	31
Bardia	43	Bardia	13
Bhaktapur	612	Bhaktapur	274
Bhojpur	58	Bhojpur	22
Chitwan	1522	Chitwan	633
Dadeldhura	15	Dadeldhura	1
Dailekh	16	Dailekh	6
Dang	176	Dang	36
Darchula	12	Darchula	6
Dhading	274	Dhading	99
Dhankuta	37	Dhankuta	24
Dhanusha	162	Dhanusha	36
Dolakha	136	Dolakha	66
Dolpa	5	-	
Doti	15	Doti	6
Gorkha	359	Gorkha	115
Gulmi	234	Gulmi	46
-		Humla	2

Ilam	71	Ilam	46
Jajarkot	4	Jajarkot	4
Jhapa	676	Jhapa	247
Jumla	10	Jumla	1
Kailali	108	Kailali	34
Kalikot	5	-	
Kanchanpur	87	Kanchanpur	14
Kapilbast	93	Kapilbast	22
Kaski	963	Kaski	464
Kathmandu	3123	Kathmandu	2310
Kavrepalanchowk	459	Kavrepalanchowk	229
Khotang	57	Khotang	27
Lalitpur	1051	Lalitpur	663
Lamjung	214	Lamjung	71
Mahottari	94	Mahottari	17
Makwanpur	254	Makwanpur	109
Manang	14	Manang	25
Morang	570	Morang	249
Mugu	4	Mugu	1
Mustang	16	Mustang	19
Myagdi	169	Myagdi	73
Nawalparashi	636	Nawalparashi	225
Nuwakot	244	Nuwakot	103
Okhaldhunga	60	Okhaldhunga	29
Palpa	144	Palpa	60
Panchthar	65	Panchthar	24
Parbat	215	Parbat	53
Parsa	130	Parsa	31
Pyuthan	28	Pyuthan	11
Ramechhap	71	Ramechhap	43
Rasuwa	14	Rasuwa	5

Rautahat	77	Rautahat	12
Rolpa	3	Rolpa	1
Rukum	14	Rukum	2
Rupandehi	697	Rupandehi	304
Salyan	21	Salyan	3
Sankhuwasabha	61	Sankhuwasabha	21
Saptari	94	Saptari	27
Sarlahi	141	Sarlahi	27
Sindhuli	62	Sindhuli	19
Sindhupalchok	209	Sindhupalchok	109
Siraha	122	Siraha	24
Solukhumbu	50	Solukhumbu	41
Sunsari	418	Sunsari	220
Surkhet	49	Surkhet	16
Syangja	378	Syangja	80
Tanahun	312	Tanahun	160
-		Taplejung	12
Tehrathu	34	Tehrathu	27
Udayapur	58	-	
Total:	16,929	Total:	7,895
Grand Total: 24,824			

Source: Ministry of Education

Annex-6

Name of Educational Consultancies where researcher carried out survey

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Mate's Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan, | 2. Nepal Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan | 3. Softwarica/outstudy, Chitwan, |
| 4. Tara International Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan, | 5. American Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan | 6. The Next Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan.(Morning Shift) |
| 7. Regal International Edu, Chitwan. | 8. Boston Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan | 9. The Next Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan, (Day Shift) |
| 10. Alfa Beta, Chitwan, (First Shift) | 11. Saark Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan. | 12. Oli and Associates, Chitwan. |
| 13. Sheffield Edu. Consultancy, Chitwan | 14. Alfa Beta. Chitwan. (Second Shift) | 15. Brilliant Edu, and Career Services, Putalisadak, Kathmandu |
| 16. Oli and Associates, Exhibition road, Kathmandu. | 17. Bradford. Edu.Consultancy Naya Baneshwor, Kathmandu. | 18. Alfa Beta, New Baneshwor, Kathmandu. |
| 19. Global Reach, Kamaladi, Kathmandu. | 20. Boston Edu. Consultancy, Putalisadak, Kathmandu. | 21. Orbit International Edu. Consultancy, Putalisadak, Kathmandu (Morning Shift). |
| 22. Mentor Institute, Naya Baneshwor, Kathmandu. | 23. The Next Edu. Consultancy, Dilli Bazar, Kathmandu. | 24. Ambition Edu. Consultancy, Putalisadak, Kathmandu. |
| 25. American Edu.Consultancy, Putalisadak, Kathmandu | 26. Kangaroo Edu. Foundation, Maitighar, Kathmandu. | 27. Milky Way Edu. Consultancy, New Baneshwor, Kathmandu. |
| 28. American Edu. Foundation, Putalisadak, Kathmandu | 29. Mate's Edu. Putalisadak, Kathmandu | 30. City Edu. Consultancy, Baghbazar, Kathmandu. |
| 31. Dolphin Institute, Exhibition Road, Kathmandu. (Second Shift) | 32. Nepal International Edu. Consultancy, Putalisadak, Kathmandu. | 33. The Next Edu. Consultancy, New Baneshwor, Kathmandu. |
| 34. Dolphin Institute, Exhibition Road, Kathmandu. | 35. Orbit International Edu. Consultancy, Putalisadak, | 36. Care International Edu. Consultancy, Kamal Pokhari, |

(First Shift)	Kathmandu (Day Shift).	Kathmandu.
37. American Edu. Consultancy, Baneshwor, Kathmandu.	38. Universal Language and computer institute, Dilli Bazar, Kathmandu.	39. Dream Age Edu. Consultancy, Baghbazar, Kathmandu.
40. Shine International Edu, New Baneshwor, Kathmandu.	41. Oxford Edu. Consultancy, Baneshwor, Kathmandu.	42. Einstein International Incorporate, New Baneshwor, Kathmandu.
43. British-American Educare, Lalitpur(First Shift).	44. Nepal International Edu. Consultancy, Lalitpur	45. Newman Education Consultancy, Lalitpur.
46. Matrix (Group of education Pvt Ltd), Lalitpur.	47. British-American Educare, Lalitpur(Second Shift).	48. King's Institute, Mahendrapul, Kaski, Pokhara.
49. Ministry of Education, Kathmandu.		

Note: Edu. indicates educational

Annex: 7

Variables Defined

1	Low quality education	Lack of <i>tangible</i> (educational. infrastructures), <i>competence</i> (academic staff), <i>attitude</i> (understanding students' needs and positive thinking), <i>content</i> (curriculum related to job), <i>delivery</i> (effective presentation, fairness of exams), and <i>reliability</i> (universal accepted degree)-Joshi (2007).
2	Low employment opportunities	Employment opportunities are not properly generated and a degree-holder student will not be able to find a job in accordance with his qualification
3	Personal factors	Students' internal forces such as family ties and their attitude towards mobility, education and knowledge.
4	Parents' afford	Parents meet the expenses of minimum one semester tuition fees, pocket expenses, food and air-ticket.
5	Limited career opportunity	Low professional or occupational opportunity and low chance to progress through life.
6	Political instability	Changes of the Government frequently
7	Lack of choices of subject	Subjects are not offered by university in accordance with the choices of students in origin
8	Bandha/ Hartal	Complete closure of the shops/ market and public and private transport/vehicles stand still

- 9 Nepal as low development This is measured in terms of GDP per capita income. For instance, GDP Per capita income less than US\$ 1000 is called developing country (low development). For the purpose of this study, developing country is that nation which has less than US\$1000 per capita income and Nepal falls under this category.
- 10 Education (learning) and earning Students work and study in destination. During the summer vacation, they work maximum hours in order to maintain their livelihood and pay tuition fees. When college opens, they cut off their work and go to college. However, they continue their work and limit to a certain hours
- 11 Earning /employment opportunities Higher chances of earning or employment in destination. For the purpose of this study, employment or earning opportunities apply earning or employment during study periods (present) where as career opportunities relate to future career after completion of the studies.
- 12 Relatives' support When students reach destination, they are supported by their relatives / friends with food, lodge, and information.
- 13 Independent life Students are away from home so they are free from their parents. They work, study, travel according to their wishes.
- 14 Quality of life. It is subjective and intangible. Happiness, freedom, health, education, leisure, equal pay for equal work, environment and other human rights
- 15 Reputed university Renowned national and international private, central and state universities with experienced academic Professors/staff and scientific library and lab

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------|---|
| 16 | Research
Facilities | Scientific lab and library and encouragement and opportunities provided to those students who want to work under their Professors in connection with the research. |
| 17 | Scholarship | Partial, half or full scholarship |
| 18 | Democratic
Govt. | Government elected by the people |
| 19 | Green Card/ PR | A green card holder (Permanent resident) is someone who has been granted authorization to live and work (for example in the USA) on a permanent basis. |
| 20 | Quality
Education | <i>Tangible</i> (educational. infrastructures), <i>competence</i> (academic staff), <i>attitude</i> (understanding students' needs and positive thinking), <i>content</i> (curriculum related to job), <i>delivery</i> (effective presentation, fairness of exams), and <i>reliability</i> (universal accepted degree)- Joshi (2007). |
| 21 | Better academic
performance | A potential student whose educational qualification is first division or distinction. |
| 22 | Class disturbed | Classes are frequently disturbed due to Bandha/ Hartal(strike) |
| 23 | Earning on
student visa. | Visas are issued to students (F1) to go to destination for higher studies but students start working rather than studying in the name of education |
| 24 | Conflict in the
country | One decade Maoist insurgency and its impact on education sector |
| 25 | High | Highly aspiring and motivated student to go abroad for career |

- | | | |
|-----|---|--|
| | expectation and aspiration | development |
| 26 | Traditional culture | Not to accept Westernization and modernization |
| 27 | Recreational facilities (for enhancing perform | Swimming pool, park, and other athletic facilities in order to enhance academic performances of students. Many universities provide recreation centre. |
| 28. | Low and middle income family/parents | If a parent earns Rs 100000- 300000 lacs per annum, he is called low and middle income families. The percentage of such types of family in the survey was around 65. Remaining 35% was high income family in this research. |
| 29. | Businessmen | Normal people who maintain their livelihood from small and medium sized business. Their business includes whole sales and retail shop/ stores, cold stores, small garment (cloth), transport services. However, they are also included big houses/ traders and contractors. They mostly live in urban areas and they are not dependent on agriculture. |
| 30. | Career opportunities | Advancement /employment / high chance to progress through life. For the purpose of this study, career opportunities relate to future career after completion of the studies. |
| 31. | r. | Co-efficient of correlation (r.) |

Annex: 8 (Table-39)
Ranks (Push factors)

	Gender	N	Mean Rank
Low quality education in Nepal	male	256	206.41
	female	150	198.54
	Total	406	
Better academic performance	male	255	204.36
	female	150	200.68
	Total	405	
Few chances of earning in Nepal	male	256	206.17
	female	150	198.94
	Total	406	
High expectations and aspiration	male	256	199.70
	female	150	209.99
	Total	406	
Parents bear all expenditure	male	256	211.91
	female	150	189.15
	Total	406	
Political instability not deciding factor	male	256	203.51
	female	150	203.48
	Total	406	
No my choice subject	male	256	205.85
	female	150	199.50
	Total	406	
No lab, equip, library, experienced .Prof.	male	256	201.34
	female	150	207.19
	Total	406	
Class disturbed	male	256	208.94
	female	150	194.22
	Total	406	

Increase parental	male	256	200.11
income not determinant	female	150	209.28
factor	Total	406	
Nepal as a low devt.	male	256	214.67
and traditional . culture	female	150	184.44
	Total	406	
Friends/ relatives have	male	256	203.44
gone abroad	female	149	202.24
	Total	405	
No recreational	male	256	206.11
facilities	female	149	197.66
	Total	405	
Discrimination against	male	256	204.28
scholarship, enrollment	female	149	200.81
	Total	405	
Fully depend on	male	256	209.33
Educational.	female	149	192.12
consultancy	Total	405	

Annex-9 (Table-40)

Pull Factors

	Cast/Ethnicity	n	Mean Rank
Job opportunities available	Brahmin	181	207.99
	chhettery	91	206.12
	Newar	65	207.48
	Dalit	4	145.38
	others	62	176.35
	Total	403	
Educational opportunities	Brahmin	181	196.37
	chhettery	90	213.12
	Newar	65	189.11
	Dalit	4	259.50
	others	62	208.86

	Total	402	
Quality education	Brahmin	181	199.07
	chhettery	91	200.07
	Newar	65	194.52
	Dalit	4	266.75
	others	62	217.06
	Total	403	
Facilities of lab, research, lib, scholarship	Brahmin	181	205.18
	chhettery	91	222.58
	Newar	65	185.58
	Dalit	4	214.62
	others	62	178.92
	Total	403	
Choice subjects available	Brahmin	181	205.72
	chhettery	91	201.86
	Newar	64	200.07
	Dalit	4	268.62
	others	62	185.80
	Total	402	

The Wilcoxon Test

Annex-10 (Table-41)

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
My relatives/friends abroad support /Friends/ relatives have gone abroad	Negative Ranks	182 ^a	126.08	22946.50
	Positive Ranks	64 ^b	116.16	7434.50
	Ties	159 ^c		
	Total	405		

a. My relatives/friends abroad support < Friends/ relatives have gone abroad

b. My relative/friends abroad support > Friends/ relatives have gone abroad

c. My relative/ friends abroad support = Friends/ relatives have gone abroad

Annex-11(Table-43)

Age groups of students

	Age of the students		Mean Rank
		n	
Low quality education in Nepal	18-21	270	197.59
	22-25	96	204.88
	26-29	18	228.64
	30 and above	22	249.50
	Total	406	
Few chances of earning in Nepal	18-21	270	203.29
	22-25	96	201.20
	26-29	18	200.22
	30 and above	22	218.84
	Total	406	

High expectations. and aspiration	18-21	270	204.64
	22-25	96	190.51
	26-29	18	222.19
	30 and above	22	230.91
	Total	406	
Friends / relatives have gone abroad	18-21	270	195.05
	22-25	95	222.67
	26-29	18	205.17
	30 and above	22	213.86
	Total	405	
Job opportunities available	18-21	270	204.71
	22-25	95	199.61
	26-29	18	223.17
	30 and above	22	180.20
	Total	405	
Educational opportunities	18-21	269	203.79
	22-25	95	194.12
	26-29	18	210.28
	30 and above	22	216.55
	Total	404	
2 motives: education and employment	18-21	270	202.64
	22-25	95	211.05
	26-29	18	211.67
	30 and above	22	165.50
	Total	405	
My relative/peers abroad support	18-21	270	197.34
	22-25	95	218.46
	26-29	18	254.17
	30 and above	22	163.82
	Total	405	