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Daka, Kebede

THE MOTIVES OF EASTERN AFRICAN STUDENTS FOR SEEKING GRADUATE DEGREES AT ANDREWS AND MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITIES

Michigan State University PH.D. 1986

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THE MOTIVES OF EASTERN AFRICAN STUDENTS FOR SEEKING GRADUATE DEGREES AT ANDREWS AND MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITIES

by

Kebede Daka

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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ABSTRACT

The Motives of Eastern African Students for Seeking Graduate Degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities

by

Kebede Daka

The major purpose of this study was to examine self-reported internal and external motivators of Eastern African students for seeking graduate degrees at Andrews University (AU) and Michigan State University (MSU). Five research questions provided guidelines for the investigation.

A total sample of 83 graduate students representing seven Eastern African countries at Andrews and Michigan State Universities responded to an open-ended questionnaire prepared by the researcher. The survey instrument was designed to obtain demographic data; the environment in which each study was brought up and schooled; their parents' occupations, religious affiliations, levels of education, and income; and self-reported internal and external motivators and influences for seeking graduate degrees overseas. Descriptive statistics, chi-square tests, and subgroup means were used to examine the relationship between demographic characteristics and motivators.

The findings indicated that Eastern African students list the following reasons as their major internal and external motivators for seeking higher education overseas: (a) to develop their potential contributions for better service to their home countries (32.2%), (b) to obtain advanced training not

available at home (28.2%), (c) because of available funds from overseas (19.4%), and (d) existing plans for training indigenous national leaders (14.5%). The minor influences they gave were (a) encouragement from home institutions they had served for a number of years (6.5%), (b) the desire to obtain training that reflects the needs of African countries (2.6%), (c) overcoming unfavorable conditions in their home countries (2.6%), and (d) information given by home institutions for overseas training (1.6%).

Parents' education influenced the availability of funds from overseas, while parents' occupations influenced the availability of funds from home institutions. Eastern African graduate students perceived parents' attitudes to motivate their daughters for study overseas as negative.

Based on the findings, appropriate summaries, conclusions, and recommendations for further research were presented.

DEDICATION

To **Yerusalem**, this dissertation is dedicated to you for your unfailing love and dependability during the seven years of my absence prior to our marriage; for bearing and raising a daughter and crowning my oral defense with a son; for your sacrifice, your love, your encouragement; and for your sustained support and your unfailing belief in my competence, for which I have no words to express. You have always been the best of companions, even though it must have seemed at times that I had abandoned you.

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To my son **Kanani**, who just arrived on time to congratulate me for completing this dissertation.

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Like every human product, this dissertation is a social endeavor with a history of indebtedness too long to be listed, too complex and subtle even to be known by the writer. As Dr. Tuso (1981) put it,

> The road that leads to the conclusion of a dissertation and, indeed, to the conclusion of graduate training itself is narrow, often long, and at times torturous. "Specially" for a student from another land, "with his family," and a non-sponsored student at that, whose parents and relatives cannot afford to support him financially, there are added layers of debts. One cannot successfully come to the end of this road without owing a great deal to many individuals. (p. iii)

Throughout my quest for knowledge, I have been continuously aware of the support and encouragements I have received from various persons and individuals. People have shared unstintly of their means, ideas, time, words of encouragement, deeds of thoughtfulness, and support. It is, indeed, a difficult task to acknowledge my indebtedness to all those who directly or indirectly contributed to the completion of this graduate work, especially since many individuals over the years have given me encouragemnt, inspiration, and tangible support to achieve my academic dream. To each person who has been a part of this study, whether identified by name or not, I express my heartfelt gratitude, for without you it would not have been completed.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Human migration has been an historical phenomenon from time immemorial. The barriers of space, time, and physical geography may have inhibited but never prevented the movement of people and ideas over the ages. "Throughout the centuries of human civilization, people have crossed the boundaries of their own community, nation, and culture in pursuit of knowledge" (DuBois, 1956, p. 1).

Speculation as to the underlying motivations that inspire and drive human behavior has long occupied the attention of many psychologists (McClelland, 1955; Bindra, 1959; Young, 1966). Empirical research and extensive observations confirmed the concept of motivation as a complex force, incentive, needs, tension, and achievement or other driving force mechanism which spurs individuals or organisms into action and maintains voluntary activities toward the achievement of a personal goal (Kirkpatrick, 1979). Theorists have agreed that motivation refers to a process that guides individual choices among different things of voluntary activities (Veroon, 1964, p. 6). Deci's (1972) theory of motivation states that task behavior that permits an individual to feel competent and self determining is intrinsically motivated behavior. Deci makes a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic behavior as "pushing" and "pulling" forces of motivating factors. The intrinsic rewards are those mediated by the person him/herself while extrinsic rewards are those externally mediated by someone else outside of the individual (Wernmont, 1972).

Within the global perspective, the perennial impulse that impels international students to seek higher education overseas is usually seen in terms of an extraordinary "push" from home or "pull" from abroad (Boodhoo et al., 1981).

It is argued that in a push effect, certain conditions exist in the individual's homeland which tend to encourage migration. On the other hand, there is a pull toward industrialized or developed countries where career prospects are much more attractive in both economic and intellectual terms (Sackey, 1978). The deciding factor, however, appears to be in the motivation and value patterns of individuals themselves, but not to lie in the environment because the environmental factor seems to evoke both migration and non-migration. Intellectually free people of the world want to go where their needs and aspirations, their desire to give their best, can best be met.

The focus of the inquiry is an analysis of the phenomena of self reported internal and external factors that affect student motives for academic choices among Eastern African graduate students at Andrews and Michigan State Universities.

Statement of the Problem

International students are sent to the United States with the hope and expectation that they will receive advanced training superior to that available in their homelands and the hope they will return home to share their expertise and to lead productive work lives that will aid their countries' development. Needless to say, such expectation is not always borne out. Many foreign students remain in the United States and never return home on a permanent basis. In the three year period 1975-77, a total of 37,315 foreign students and exchange visitors adjusted their visa status to that of United States' permanent resident.

Of these numbers, 90% were from developing countries in Africa, Asia, North and South America (Immigration and Naturalization Services Annual Reports, 1975, 1976, 1977). Many more students, although their exact number is undocumented, change to working visas first and then move onward to acquiring United States' permanent resident status. These well-educated human resources of diversified intellectual capacity who are potentially very mobile are paradoxically those who also can make the maximum contributions to their countries' development, both in private and public institutions. As such, the problem is intertwined with concerns of development, and it has attracted the attention of many scholars in various schools of thought.

> While many schools of thought argue that specialized human capital should be free to migrate anywhere to seek its highest reward (so long as it bears the cost of its own movement), another school laments that the brain drain impedes the already difficult process of development, especially in the countries of the Third World. (Card et al., 1980, p. 2)

One of the major potential threats to the African talent pool has been the loss of its skilled human resources through the outflow of its trained personnel, the draining of specialists, minds, and talents to developed countries, the United States in particular. The acute shortage of qualified and experienced personnel to accelerate the pace of development in the Third World countries, aggravated by the outflow of its trained human resources, is recognized as a major impediment in many developing countries in general and in Africa in particular. The World Bank and International Development Association (1973) goes on to add that:

> . . . an acute shortage of entrepreneurial, managerial, and technical skills aggravated by the emigration of trained people, operates as a severe constraint on job creation in both the public and private sector. (p. iii)

From the introduction to this problem, it is apparent that this phenomenon --academic motives--that each individual student carry in his/her baggage to the

United States has many factors that are associated with the problem. The study seeks to ascertain some self reported "internal" and "external" push/pull factors that have most influence on motives of students who come from developing countries to pursue higher education and to present recommendations for decision makers in both developing and developed countries.

Historical Setting

The first American colleges were founded by religious denominations; and their chief aim was, as Kelly (1940) stated it, to "propagate the species" (p. 29ff). According to available records, the flow of African students to American campuses began in 1774 when a couple of students from the Gold Coast (Ghana) were sent to the College of New Jersey (later Princeton) to be prepared for missionary labors in their African home (Bond, 1960). Two years later, the outbreak of the Revolutionary War in 1776 disrupted both Princeton and sea travel. As a result, ". . . one hundred and eighty-three years elapsed between the admission of two Gold Coasters to Princeton" (p. 221). During the following decades up to the 1960s, a sporadic migration of African students continued, however, from Sierra Leone in the early 1850s to the 1870s; from Liberia in the 1880s and the 1890s; and from the Congo, South Africa, and Nigeria in the 1900s. Students from East Africa joined the flow prior to World War II (Ralston, 1972).

Historically, African students who came to the United States during the colonial period were predominantly for undergraduate studies largely motivated by an external push behind them for three main reasons. First, colonial powers controlled African education, relegating it to a low level of priority in their planned activities to secure and sustain the life of the colonial administration.

> During the colonial period the overseas training policies were determined by the colonial powers. It was a time when demand for high-level manpower was low. In Kenya, as Kinyanjui et al. (1980) pointed out, the orientation to capitalist development greatly

> influenced policies on overseas training. In 1931, Education Ordinance stipulated that conditions for such training had to be of European origin and preferably British nationality. Thus the scheme was largely designed to serve the interests of the European and, to a lesser extent, Asians. The African component of the labour force was at that time expected to be qualified only at a level that would enable them to work under European officers. (Maliyamkono et al., 1982, p. 10)

The same was true of Zambia (Koloko, 1980), Somalia (Adam, 1980), and Swaziland (Simelane, 1980). On the part of the colonizers, "there was no serious consideration regarding African education until missionaries and Africans exerted pressures on the colonial administrators" (Ralston, 1972, p. 77).

Second, early colonial education was meant to induce the sons and daughters of traditional African elites to function with the existing colonial structure upon the completion of their education. It was the era when students who came to the United States for the purpose of education were motivated by their potential advance of social positions when returning to their respective societies occurring as a result of acquiring education rather than contributing to the enhancement or development of their societies.

Third, the few colleges and universities, if any, that existed toward the end of the colonial period in the 1940s and early 1950s were fashioned in affiliation with "parent country" universities, and only lucky individuals could attend the "parent country" institutions.

In most of the benefitting countries, scholarship schemes for higher education and training abroad were primarily for training civil servants. Furthermore, the selection of students for overseas' training largely reflected the roles of various groups or classes in the economy. Thus, the social class groups holding key positions in the economy tended to be over-represented in overseas' training programs. The emphasis on liberal arts was in line with the manpower demands of the period. More significantly, it was in the liberal arts

that considerable social and political influences were envisaged. This is confirmed by the fact that these educational programs usually took place in the colonizing country. Thus most overseas' education of Kenyan, Zambian, and Tanzanian students, for instance, took place in Britain.

However, the 1960s witnessed the booming of universities on the African continent. Almost every nation crowned with independence erected a university, more or less as a symbol of pride in its national sovereignty which could determine the cultural and intellectual life of its people.

African leaders placed unquestionable and unwavering faith in education as a vehicle that unlocks the door to modernization (Harbison et al., 1964). This is distinctly evident in the recommendation evolved at the conference of African States in Addis Ababa in 1961 that stated:

> Considerable numbers of African individuals should undertake advanced studies overseas and then an expanded supply of expatriate staff be provided for new higher institutions, universities, technical colleges, research institutions and laboratories in Africa. (UNESCO, 1961, p. 68)

This recommendation also stressed that effort should be made to reduce the number of African students who go abroad for undergraduate studies with some exception of those for whom home institutions cannot provide desired programs and facilities or space. Such policy postured by African leaders was favored for various reasons. First, sponsoring students abroad, particularly in the United States, is extremely expensive vis-a-vis educating them at home. Second, African education planners want to avoid having to lose their most promising students to foreign institutions, which might endanger programs in their own institutions of higher learning. And third, it was believed that having undergraduate education abroad prolongs ones sojourn, which could conceivably lead to cultural disconnection from home societies and inevitably foster alienation (Jacqz, 1967).

At the same time, American education planners speculated several reasons as justification for preference for graduate students over undergraduates from developing countries: (a) foreign graduate students have less severe problems adjusting to the American environment than do undergraduates; (b) graduates are most likely to be satisfied with United States' academic programs; (c) graduates generally perform on an acceptable academic level; (d) graduates have more precise educational and professional goals than undergraduates; and (e) graduates are less concerned than undergraduates with learning about the United States and its cultures and institutions and less interested in informing Americans about their own culture (Walton, 1970).

Given this policy of preference by both American and African education planners for having graduates rather than undergraduates study at American institutions of higher learning and given that there was a considerable boom in new institutions of higher learning on the African continent during the post-independence era, the question arises as to why a great volume of students continues to flow from Africa to United States' schools? What are the driving and attracting forces that motivate students to pursue higher education overseas? Although no one can be so authoritative as to state with certainty why this is so, an attempt was made to suggest some plausible reasons for the persistence of this pattern.

First, given the lack of adequate access to education in the past and the current dramatic increase in appetite for modern education demonstrated by Africans, it may not be possible to accommodate all high school graduates desiring to pursue higher education, regardless of how many more colleges and universities are created on the African continent. Consequently, some segment of the new education-hungry entrants may have to look elsewhere (abroad) for admission to colleges or universities. Second, in some instances, home

institutions in Africa may not offer majors in certain fields; in other cases, facilities may not be adequate or may not even exist to make it possible to successfully pursue a particular field of study. Third, some students may find it more difficult to pursue their study in home institutions because of economic problems, lack of space, and the United States environment offers an alternative route. Historically, it has been the case that the American economy has provided students with an opportunity to work their way through college, at least in some part, while studying (Odenyo, 1970). Fourth, the diversity of the American academic system and mushrooming of community colleges in the United States as a result of the egalitarian movement in the 1960s expanded the capacity of the educational system to accommodate more foreign students. And fifth, political conditions of some of the countries during certain periods were so unstable that their educational institutions, particularly those for higher education, cannot function regularly and efficiently. In such cases, many students who can find the means go to other countries, including the United States, in search of an environment which is peaceful and conducive to pursuing an education.

Since the end of the second World War, the number of foreign students and scholars in the United states continued to mount and has set a new record every year. In 1954-55, when the Institute of International Education first started publishing statistics on foreign students' enrollment in American universities and colleges, there were 34,232 foreign students in the USA. In 1969-70, that number had quadrupled to 134,959. In 1982-83, there were 336,990 foreign students in United States' colleges and universities (a 984.4% increase in less than three decades). Tables 1 and 2 and Figure 1 provide additional detail.

Table 1
African Students in the United States, with Percentage of All Foreign Students from 1954-55 to 1982-83

Year	Total Foreign Students	Total African Students	Total Percentage of African Students
1954-55	34,232	1,234	3.6
1956-57	40,600	1,424	3.5
1958-59	47,245	1,515	3.7
1960-61	53,107	1,959	5.3
1962-63	64,705	3.930	7.7
1964-65	83,045	6,144	8.4
1966-67	100,262	6,896	7.2
1968-69	121,362	6,901	5.8
1970-71	144,708	7,607	6.0
1972-73	146,097	9,592	7.8
1974-75	154,580	12,937	11.9
1976-77	203,070	25,290	12.7
1978-79	263,940	29,560	12.9
1980-81	311,880	36,180	12.2
1982-83	336,990	42,690	12.7

SOURCE: Compiled by the researcher from Open Doors, 1982/83 (report on international educational exchange).

Table 2
Number of Eastern African Students in United States' Colleges and Universities since 1954-55, by Country

Country	1954 1955	1956 1957	1958 1959	1960 1961	1962 1963	1964 1965	1966 1967	1968 1969	1970 1971	1972 1973	1974 1975	1976 1977
Ethiopia	62	151	145	171	171	226	234	422	459	1046	2050	1700
Kenya	19	17	73	332	697	774	681	523	534	540	870	1190
Malawi	0	0	5	0	0	83	93	73	59	57	58	45
Tanzania	5	12	20	62	214	305	346	297	238	256	350	320
Uganda	4	10	26	40	127	223	239	225	263	262	240	340
Zambia	1	6	7	0	0	83	88	92	61	58	80	210
Zimbabwe	14	14	19	61	221	203	264	200	171	188	260	410
Subtotal:	105	210	295	666	1430	1897	1945	1535	2085	2507	3908	4215
Total Eastern African stds.:	107	212	297	676	1521	2099	2127	1920	2216	2522	4001	4315
% of selected Eastern African students above:	98.0	99.0	99.3	98.5	94.0	90.4	91.4	79.9	94.1	99.4	97.7	97.7

Source: Compiled by the researcher from Open Doors, IIE, Annual Report. The countries in this category use the English language either as their official language and language of instruction or as the language of instruction only.

Figure 1. Map of Africa showing location of countries

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Michigan State University

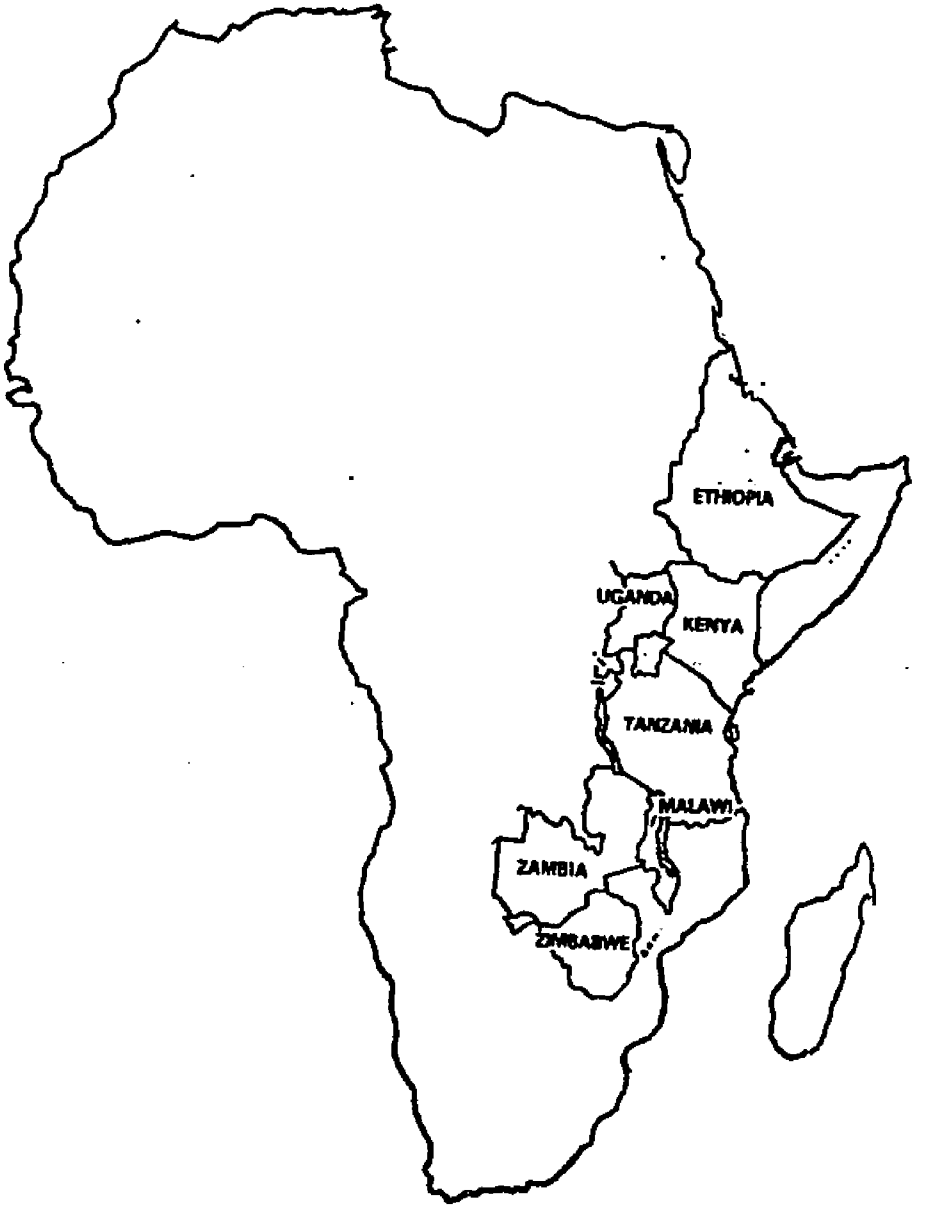


Figure 2. Map showing locations of specific African countries identified in Table 2.

Such a dramatic increase every year raises a concern internationally and nationally as to what motivates the outflow of foreign students to pursue higher education overseas. Are foreign students who graduate from higher institutions of learning helping promote national development as is expected of them, or do they instead pursue their own agenda and, in so doing, perhaps only indirectly influence national development upon return to their home lands? Are students who come from developing countries to the United States to pursue graduate degrees simply doing so to gain access to external rewards (i.e., money, status, prestige, recognition) or desperately trying to play out strong internal motives, the fulfillment of commitments leading to goal-direct behavior toward national development? So far, no clearly established studies have been done on the motives of Eastern African students for pursuing graduate degrees overseas. Research in motivation has been conspicuously lacking in this field, and the existing literature on African university students is limited in both substance and graphic scope. "With few exceptions, it has neither breadth nor depth" (Barkan, 1975, p. xiii).

A study which includes aspirations of African graduate students in different institutions of higher learning could potentially explore the goals and objectives of such students' motives for pursuing graduate degrees overseas. This is particularly evident with respect to African higher education where students are adults making adult decisions about personal goals and aspirations.

Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of the study is to investigate the motives of Eastern African students for seeking graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities. The specific purposes of the study are the following.

1. What are those self-reported internal and external motivating reasons and influences of Eastern African students for seeking graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities?

2. To what extent do those self-reported motivating reasons and influences of Eastern African students for pursuing graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities occur regardless of the country of origin and selected demographic characteristics?

3. To what extent are selected demographic variables, the community in which the students were raised and schooled, the students' religious affiliations, and their major fields of study related to Eastern African students' academic motivation for seeking graduate degrees overseas (AU and MSU)?

4. To what extent are selected variables of the students' parents' religious affiliations, level of income, occupation, and level of education related to Eastern African students' motives to pursue graduate degrees overseas (AU and MSU)?

5. To what extent are Eastern African students' perceptions about their parents' attitudes toward motivating their daughters for higher education overseas reflected?

Hypotheses

Twelve null hypotheses were tested to examine the relationship between students' demographic characteristics and their motives for seeking graduate degrees abroad.

H_1 There will be no relationship between the type of community in which Eastern African students were raised and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_2 There will be no relationship between the type of high school environment which Eastern African students attended and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_3 There will be no significant relationship between the type of college environment which Eastern African students attended and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_4 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' religious affiliations and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_5 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' mothers' religious affiliations and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_6 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' fathers' religious affiliations and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_7 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' major fields of study and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_8 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' mothers' levels of education and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_9 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' fathers' levels of education and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_{10} There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' mothers' professional occupations and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_{11} There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' fathers' professional occupations and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

H_{12} There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African graduate parents' level of income and the students' motives for seeking graduate degrees.

Descriptive statistics were used to identify the extent of motives for seeking graduate degrees, while chi square tests and subgroup means were used to examine the relationship between demographic characteristics and motivations.

On the basis of findings, the study attempts to provide a better understanding of incongruence often found between the goals and objectives of Eastern African graduate students and those of faculty and administrators, including implications and recommendations for further research.

Definition of Concepts

The following definitions identify concepts used within this study.

Internal motivators: impulses within an individual, such as concern, service, self giving, commitment, dedication, and the like, by which the individual is pushed toward a directed goal.

External motivators: impulses outside of an individual, such as bursary incentives, status, prestige, and promotion, by which the individual is attracted (pulled) toward a directed goal.

Community of up-bringing: the environment in which a student was brought up back home; subdivided into urban (more than 5000 inhabitants) or rural (fewer than 5000 inhabitants).

Parents' level of income: the rough estimate of yearly income a students father and mother earn in the home country per year, in U.S. dollars.

Parents' level of education: the highest level of education or training a students' father and mother have achieved.

Parents' occupation (profession): the type of work and employment a student's father and mother hold for a living back home in Africa.

Current field of study: the area of study the Eastern African students were pursuing to achieve graduate degrees (either Masters' or Ph.D. level) at the time of the study.

Motivation: a combination of internal and external motivators such as drive, impulse, incentive, reinforcement, rewards involved in arousing, directing, and sustaining behavior toward the achievement of a personal goal.

Motive: a combination of internal and external impulses or attitudes that arouse, sustain, and regulate behavior toward a directed goal; something within a person (an idea, need, organic state, emotion, etc.) that incites him/her to action.

Eastern African graduate students: those currently enrolled, male and female, full-time students from Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe who were pursuing graduate degrees on the campuses of Andrews and Michigan State Universities.

Higher education: limited in this study to university level education leading to Masters' and Ph.D. degrees.

Intrinsic motivators: self-reported externally-incited behaviors or rewards mediated by someone other than the individual him/herself, such as status, bursary incentives, promotion, pay, security, recognition, prestige, materials values, and the like.

Andrews University: a fundamental Christian, higher institution of learning operated by private organizations to train denominational workers for national and international development, including students from over 85 different countries who are pursuing advanced training.

Michigan State University: an institution of higher learning operated by governmental organizations with students representing over 100 different countries.

Scope of the Study

The present study is limited to the Eastern African countries of Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. Graduate students from these countries enrolled as full-time students for the academic year 1984-85 at Andrews and Michigan State Universities were selected for the investigation based on their common background and culture as well as the common language of the educational systems in their respective countries. The two institutions of higher learning, one private and one non-private, are approximately 150 miles apart in Michigan.

Significance of the Study

Educational goals of graduate students and their reasons for attending institutions of higher learning are important for a university and a nation as a whole for many reasons:

1. to formulate a balanced higher education policy. As more and more Africans in each generation obtain a taste for college education, they are increasingly inclined to continue some serious intellectual pursuit at the university level. Simultaneously, the demand for trained manpower at higher levels tends to increase continuously in developing countries. In order to meet the needs of African graduate students and the increasing demand for high level-trained manpower, it is important that a balanced educational policy be formulated. However, a strategy for higher education cannot be realistically formulated and developed without consideration of the individual expectations and aspirations of students and the nation as a whole. "Failing to consider these elements (factors influencing students' motives for higher education and the expectations of the nation for high level trained manpower) may result in the inefficient utilization of such manpower" (Bardouille, 1981, p. 2);

2. to provide a basis for consistency between students' goals and objectives on one hand and the perception of what college should offer students on the other. Knowledge about academic motives of graduate students allows institutions of higher learning to be

consistent in their goals as they attempt to bridge any incongruence found between students' goals and those of faculty and administration.

Karman (1974) stressed the importance of understanding what students look for in higher education. He found that students were primarily concerned with personal development, decision making ability, and relating courses and disciplines to contemporary life. He also learned that faculty had quite different perceptions of what college should offer students;

3. knowledge about the academic motives of graduate students from developing countries is imperative for designing recruitment strategies. Cross (1981) discussed the issues related to recruiting adult learners and their motivation for enrolling in learning activities. Huddleston and Wiebe (1978) stated that an important aspect of retention and recruitment effort is understanding what motivates both youth and adult learners to enroll in certain types of institutions and degree programs. Pomozal (1980) concluded that understanding enrollment is a crucial factor in designing recruitment strategies;

4. change in education and in students' motives. Strickgold (1975) described how students' demographics, attitudes, and motives are changing. Up until college, students pass through a pipeline that prepares them in each successive academic year for the next higher level of learning (academic training). After a college degree is earned, a student examines his/her personal development and career goals for pursuing graduate work in a particular field of study; and

5. a basis for further research toward understanding the academic motives of African graduate students at higher levels.

Therefore, it is imperative that colleges and universities should assess students' goals and their reasons for attending particular institutions of higher learning. Such knowledge could serve institutions to be cognizant of (and consistent in) their goals and objectives (Chickering, 1969) and be sensitive to the incongruence often found between goals of students and those of faculty and administrators. According to Smart (1975), faculty and advisors must begin to take students' goals seriously as they develop educational programs.

Delimitation

The study did not include students from the Sudan, Somalia, Mozambique, or the surrounding islands because no students from these countries were

represented at Andrews University, although some were represented at Michigan State University. The study also excluded male and female undergraduates as well as post graduate students from both campuses since they did not fit the criteria and purpose of the study. Inclusion of data from such sources would seriously contaminate the results and would present a serious response bias.

Limitations

There are certain limitations in the study that need consideration. First, the mode of selecting subjects made it difficult to generalize beyond those students from the seven Eastern African countries who studied at Andrews and Michigan State Universities. Even at that rate, the fact that subjects were obtained from both a private and a public institution makes the sample a biased cluster sample. Therefore, inferences derived from these results are applicable only to similar populations.

The data for this study were obtained through an instrument developed solely for this project. As in the case with similar surveys, subject responses may not reflect the true intensity of depth of achievement motives, perceptions, and goals behind academic aspirations and expectations at the graduate level. In addition, subject participation in this study was purely voluntary, totally dependent upon one's willingness to participate and one's interest in participating by taking time to answer the survey question.

Study Population

The population for the study consisted of all male and female graduate students from selected Eastern African countries currently enrolled as full-time students pursuing graduate degrees (M.A. or Ph.D.) at Andrews and Michigan State Universities. A total of 87 students (16 from Andrews and 71 from

Michigan State) were identified to take part by answering the instrument administered to them in the summer of 1985.

Organization of the Study

An outline of the study concerning academic motives of a selected group of international students at Andrews and Michigan State Universities is designed as follows. Chapter I contains an introduction, statement of the problem, historical setting, purpose of the study, definitions of concepts, significance of the study, delimitation, limitations, and organization of the study. Chapter II contains a review of precedent literature and related literature pertinent to the investigation under consideration. Chapter III contains the design of the study, including methodology, population, and approach to analysis of data. Chapter IV contains an analysis of data results. Reports of information obtained in relation to research questions will be reported. Chapter V presents a summary and conclusions of the study with recommendations for a model that may be more useful for education planners of foreign students. Significance and implications for further research will also be cited, including major findings.

CHAPTER II

PRECEDENTS IN LITERATURE

A study of motivation can lead in two directions: (a) how to motivate others to behave and think in predetermined ways (Kolesnik, 1978; Ball, 1982), and (b) an analysis of the factors that incite and direct an individual's actions toward a directed goal (Atkinson & Birch, 1978). The proposed inquiry followed the second approach in investigating self-perceived (reported) motivating factors of Eastern African graduate students on the campuses of Andrews and Michigan State Universities during the academic year of 1984-85.

In Chapter II, a review of precedent literature and related research pertinent to the problem under consideration is divided into eight major sections representing an overview of literature related to:

1. theory of motivation,
2. motivation related to academics,
3. academic motivators,
4. altruistic motives for academic achievement,
5. environmental and social factors influencing academic motivation,
6. intrinsic and extrinsic motivation,
7. overseas training, and
8. motivating factors for overseas training.

Theory of Motivation

Before the 18th century, any notion of determinism was largely absent for decisions of behavior. Rationality and free will were the dominant antecedents,

and concepts such as motives, needs, and desires were given little credence. However, simple observations of human and animal behavior gave rise to an increasing realization that there were forces beyond rational will that seemed to exert control, especially with regard to animal behavior (Bolles, 1967).

Most of the current cognitive theories owe their immediate ancestry to Lewin (1938) and Tolman (1932). Both held that individuals have cognitive expectancies concerning outcomes likely to occur as the result of what they do, and they have preferences among outcomes. That is, an individual has an idea about the possible consequences of his/her acts and makes conscious choices among consequences according to the perceived probability of their occurrence and their perceived value to the individual. Cofer and Appley (1964) postulated that individuals conspicuously calculated the relative pleasures and pains of various outcomes provided by alternative actions and sought to maximize their total pleasure.

Their theoretical notions gave rise to at least three important models which have relevance to organizational behavior: (a) a model for human decision-making (Edwards, 1961), (b) a theory for need achievement, and (c) Vroon's expectancy valence theory of work motivation. More detailed treatments of these topics can be found in Lawler (1973) and Mitchell (1974).

Maslow (1935) developed the first and one of the most popular motivation theories which has been considered a revolutionary view of individual motivation. Because it highlighted individuals' humanisms rather than the machine-like qualities emphasized by scientific management and classical schools, McClelland and associates (1950) focused on needs similar to the higher order of needs identified by Maslow. Alderfer (1969) also recognized Maslow's need hierarchy from another perspective through an empirical test of a new theory of human needs. Herzberg and associates' (1959) view of motivation also complemented

that of Maslow and McClelland. Each of these four theories described a specific set of needs individuals were believed to have, and each differs somewhat in needs identified (see Table 3).

Table 3
Comparison of Needs in Four Theories

Maslow	McClelland	Alderfer	Herzberg
Psychological		Existence	
Safety and security			Hygiene
Love and belongingness	Need for affiliation	Relatedness	
Self-esteem	Need for achievement	Growth	Motivators
Self-actualization	Need for power		

The motivation hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1965) states that job satisfaction/dissatisfaction are not the obverse of each other; rather they are best viewed as two separate and parallel continua. Job satisfaction is determined by the feeling an individual has concerning the content of his/her job, including task achievement, recognition for achievement, intrinsic interest in tasks, advancement, and occupational growth. These satisfiers serve to provide for human needs, to exercise one's capabilities or the set plus potentiality of the brain as an instrument for psychological growth, and are called motivators.

Reinforcement theorists, demonstrating the power of extrinsic rewards in changing behavior, argue that motivation is basically a non-cognitive form of learning in which one's action is shaped by the scheduling of rewards and pursuits

(Hamner, 1974). Contesting such radical forms of behaviorism, needs theorists argued that knowledge of the need state of an individual is essential to behavioral predictions because much human motivation comes from inner drives which augment and define the value of external pleasures and pain (Porter, 1961; Locke, 1976). Expectancy researchers (Vroon, 1964; Lawler, 1961) posited that individuals seek to maximize valued outcomes determined by the reward system of the organization as well as a person's capability in achieving high performance.

It has been argued that there are at least three theories of motivation that determine the choice of effect level. The first one is the expectancy theory which suggests that people will choose a level of task effort that results in the greatest benefit (personal pay off) when compared to other effort levels (Vroon, 1964; Porter et al., 1968; Graen, 1969; Mitchell, 1974; Wahba & House, 1974; Lawler, 1973; Connolly, 1976). Kopelman (1976) suggests that people's expectancies are related to the "reward responsiveness" of the organization. These results provide strong support for the notion that expectancies do indeed reflect a subject's perceptions of behavior outcome relationships.

Oldham (1976) found that people with higher self esteem had higher expectations. Other related studies (Lied et al., 1976; Mitchell et al., 1975; Sims et al., 1976) reported that people with internal loci of control have higher expectancies than those with external loci of control. People who are confident about their ability to influence the world around them see stronger relationships between what they do and the results of their actions than do people who see these outcomes occurring as a function of fate or luck.

The second theory of motivation is the goal setting theory which argues that intentions to work toward a goal-directed behavior are the primary motivating force of work behavior and effort on a task (Locke, 1976, followed by

Latham et al., 1975, and Steers & Porter, 1974). A number of studies have shown that having goals results in higher performance than not having goals (Ivancevich, 1976, 1977; Lathan & Yukl, 1976; Terborg, 1976; Umstot et al., 1976; White, Mitchell, & Bell, 1977). London and Oldham (1976) also reported that harder goals led to better performance. Other related findings suggested that assigned goal setting can serve an important motivational functions, especially if the assigned goals are difficult but attainable. Goal setting combined with incentive systems, appraisals, and feedback is the best way to increase and maintain high levels of performance.

The third motivational theory is the equity theory which argues that motivation is essentially a social comparison process. According to Adam (1965), people assess their inputs (effort) to a work situation and their outcomes (rewards). The theory further states that a person is motivated in proportion to the perceived fairness of the reward received for a certain amount of effort. Individuals have decreased motivation to perform when they perceive an inequity. Therefore, inequity serves as a motivational force for an individual to change his/her behavior (it creates tension) and return to a state of equity.

Summary

In the expectancy theory, people tend to work harder when they think that working hard is likely to lead to a desirable organizational reward. However, the expected value approach argues that if people knew all the alternatives, all the outcomes, all the action-outcome relationships, and knew how they felt about the outcomes, they would use a rather complex formula to come up with an estimate of the best choice of action. However, it is obvious that people don't have all the above information, nor do they use complex formulas in determining actions (Behling et al., 1975). Regarding the goal setting theory, it appears

rather convincingly that goal setting is the major source of achievement motivation for most people. Yet two areas of research need to be done. First, more knowledge about the psychological process underlying goal setting needs to be uncovered. Little is known about the roles of commitment and acceptance and their relationship to goal difficulty or goal specificity. Second, more research is needed on how external factors such as financial rewards, social pressure, money, promotion, and others enhance or act independently of the goal setting process. Lastly, the equity theory also has its own difficulty. A comprehensive literature review done by Goodman (1977) points out some of the problems with this theory: (a) very little is known about how people select a "comparison other," (b) it is very hard to define inputs and outcomes, (c) there is little knowledge about how combinations of inputs and outcomes are accomplished, and (d) it is hard to know when and how these factors change over time.

Nevertheless, these four theories represent the major theoretical approaches to motivation that have dominated the field for the last 10 years. Except for a few articles on specific motivational issues (Wheaton et al., 1976) on how ability becomes more important as task difficulty increases and some work by Chung and Vickery (1976) on the effect of performance feedback, most of the work has focused on these topics. One major exception has been work on the motivating effects of intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes which will be discussed later in the chapter under separate heading.

Motivation

Motivation is broadly concerned with contemporary determinants of choice (direction), persistence, and vigor of goal-directed behavior. The word motivation is a hypothetical construct which is but one set of limits in the web

of factors determining behavior. A major difficulty in defining motivation occurs because the term has no apparent fixed meaning in contemporary psychology (Atkinson, 1964). It is a vague, imprecise word that means all things to all people (drive, need, commitment, prestige, etc.) and raises all the horrendous philosophical questions having to do with causes.

Motivation is a complex of forces, drives, tensions, states, or something within a person and other internal psychological mechanisms that start and maintain activity toward the achievement of personal goals (Hoy & Miskel, 1978). It is a catch-all term to express the direction and force behind an individual's behavior that incites him/her to action. As Ball (1982) put it, "Motivation is a process of arousing, sustaining, and directing behavior" (p. 125).

According to Steers (1979), most definitions of motivation include three components: (a) energizing human behavior, (b) directing or channeling behavior by providing a goal-orientation for an individual, and (c) maintaining and sustaining behavior. Combining components yields the general definition of motivation as a complex of forces, drives, needs, tension, or other mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activities toward achievement. It means having a clear and sensible reasons to want to succeed (Page, 1973). In general, theories have agreed that motivation refers to a process that guides individual choices among different terms of voluntary activities of personal goals (Vroon, 1964).

Mun (1962) defines motivation as "the dynamics of behavior." In terms of its derivation, the word motive means to move, to activate. In this sense, it is anything that initiates activity, whether external or internal. In psychology,, however, the terms motivation and motives refer to activation from within an organism. Sanford (1962) also agreed that a motive is an energizing condition of an organism that serves to direct that organism toward a certain goal. For

further inquiry, for almost a quarter of a century, Atkinson (1964, 1966, 1970) has directed a very useful research program on human motivation. His central findings are especially relevant to education.

Motivation for most human behavior is discussed from the perspective of Maslow's (1968, 1970) theory. Speculation as to the forces that inspire and drive human behavior has long occupied the attention of many psychologists (Maier, 1949; McClelland, 1955a, 1955b; Bindra, 1959; Young, 1966). Extensive observations and empirical research have concentrated on analyzing the central determinants and goals of human actions and recognized the concept of motivation as a driving force. Generally, motivation occurs as a result of a need or goal which spurs an organism into action.

Kirkpatrick (1979) observed that a need exists when a desire to attain or acquire something compels a person to act or feel in a certain way. "When needs are satisfied, the person grows and seeks satisfaction of higher, more complex needs" (p. 386). Morgan and King (1966) see motivation as a cyclic phenomenon wherein motive leads an individual to perform an instrumental behavior which in turn results in the attainment of a goal and achievement of satisfaction. In the words of Uba (1980), the theory sees humans as perpetually-wanting animals. McCormick and Tiffin (1979) shared the same view that people are typically in motivational states, that human beings rarely reach states of complete satisfaction except for a short time.

Motivators

As mentioned in the first chapter of this study, a perennial impulse within global perspectives that compels international students to seek higher education overseas is usually seen in terms of "push from within" an individual or homeland or "pull from outside" of the individual or abroad (Boodhoo et al., 1981). Such

"push" and "pull" factors found in literature pertaining to motivation include advanced training not available in homeland (Hall, 1978; Hans, 1975; Singh, 1976), ambition for distinction and promotion (Rashdall, 1936; Metraut, 1952), better employment opportunities after graduate degree is earned (Bardouille, 1981; Andor, 1983), better way of life (Ashby, 1964), commitment (Atkinson, 1970; Biggs, 1982), curiosity (Atkinson, 1970), desire for personal advancement (Cieslak, 1955), desire for social upward mobility (Bardouille, 1981; Andor, 1983), desire to see the world (Metraut, 1952), encouragement from parents (Spenner & Featherman, 1978), foreign scholarships or bursary incentives (Masland, 1967; Atkinson, 1970; Biggs, 1982), higher prestige of degrees obtained overseas (Masland, 1967), intellectual enthusiasm (Beal, 1980; Thompson, 1974), intrinsic and extrinsic interests (Andor, 1983; Biggs, 1982), limited choice of education at higher level in the homeland (Masland, 1967), material value (Overall, 1982; Meredith, 1968; Bardouille, 1981), motive to achieve (Reitzes & Mufrah, 1980), national development objectives (Bardouille, 1981), prestige (Andor, 1983), power (Mehta, 1969; DeCharms & Muir, 1978), social and economic upward mobility (Bardouille, 1981), achieve higher salary or make more money (Astin, 1979), getting a better job (Wandria, 1977), learn new skills (Beal, 1980), and many more.

Given the above combination of various push and pull (internal and external) driving forces which influence an individual's decision toward a determined goal, numerous studies show that internal push forces are better motivators than external pull motivators. Students with internal push forces tend to have higher needs for achievement and are more persistent than students with external pull forces who tend to give up in the face of frustration or fatigue (Deci et al., 1975; Mitchell & Nebeker, 1973; Kolesink, 1978).

Internally motivated persons have their own built-in systems of rewards and punishments. Their motivation is based on their ability to sense

discrepancies or mistakes in various perspectives they consider. These discrepancies, incongruities in the environment, act as stimulants (Schroder, 1973). For instance, although academically capable, not all students have equal opportunities nor equal access to available funds to pursue university education. Family background, the environment within which one is raised, or socio-economic status may deny many young, able students the chance to go overseas to pursue their studies. In spite of the odds against them, however, there are those individuals whose inner driving forces push them until they achieve their goals in one way or another. A female who did not have a scholarship and whose parents and customs failed to support her either morally or financially stated:

> I wanted to go to a university, but the family could not afford to send me, nor did they believe in university careers for girls. Besides, I was a useful stockman. So I went back to Adelaide on my own, determined to get a job in the public library, not because I wanted to be a librarian, but because the library was near the university. (White, 1954, p. 166)

As indicated in Chapter I, during the pre-war era, foreign students coming to the United States for the purpose of education were motivated by the potential advance of their social positions in their respective societies when they returned "rather than the intent of contributing to the enhancement of development in their societies" (Tuso, 1981, p. 133). Individuals with high achievement motivation were interested in excellence for its own sake rather than for the reward it brings. Perspectives by students are often very straight forward.

> I maintain correspondence with my American contacts . . . . I was restless because I was constantly anxious to go to the United States for my higher education . . . . I had one thing and one thing only in my mind--that come what may, I would obtain a university degree. I did not think any power on earth could ever stop me from pursuing this objective. (Gatheru, 1965, p. 73)

Such frankness causes a concern as to what such individuals will want to do after obtaining their graduate degrees. But the post-war era witnessed the

arrival of a good many students who were motivated by the desire to achieve academic excellence so that the knowledge and skills they had received in America would contribute to the social and economic betterment of their respective societies.

Altruistic Motives

Foreign students come to the United States (a) in search of better education (Scholken, 1968), (b) for scientific technology where quality of instruction and applied research facilities for science are available (Cieslak, 1955), and (c) to receive education of high status not available at home (Brubeher, 1976). Several reasons contributed to the outflow of foreign students from developing countries to American colleges and universities:

1. limited opportunity for majority. Some felt that universities in Africa as they have developed in the 1960s were hardly more than white elephants and flashy symbols of modernization--ivory towers occupied by a minority elite, expensively educated, and as expensively continuously maintained at the expense of the vast majority of the population with whom they have little in common (Yesufu, 1973, p. 39);

2. limited space. African universities' inability to accommodate all qualified students forces graduate students to look for other institutions of higher learning overseas. The few institutions of higher learning and universities in developing countries cannot absorb all eligible applicants and others who want the university education;

3. rigid entrance screening process. The inability to absorb or accommodate qualified students into universities forced administrators of higher learning to develop a policy by which students are to be accepted for higher degree studies. The policy enforced rigid entrance qualifications so that only a small number of students is admitted each year. Those who are admitted must withstand a most rigorous screening process. Therefore, many students who aspire to come to the United States have been denied by African institutions on the basis of written exams, interviews, or formal preparations;

4. limited educational facilities. Many technically underdeveloped nations launched programs of economics and social development that required trained personnel at higher levels for whom educational facilities were not immediately available in home

lands. The pre-eminence of the United States in many technical and scientific fields made this country an obvious "magnet" for international students to secure such training;

5. government control. Although African students can go to home country universities (if they exist) or go overseas if funds are available, a meaningful choice is considerably more restricted since most African universities are controlled by the state, and the primary differences among them are in areas of study. The result is that potential activists usually decide where to go on the basis of proximity, opportunity, or course of study rather than political climate;

6. specialization. Graduate students from overseas come to the United States in search of higher degrees or specialized forms of training. In developing countries with limited ranges of universities, certain forms of specialization can only be obtained abroad;

7. credential of an advanced Western certified status. A great number of African students whose ability equals or exceeds that of successful applicants to African universities prefer to study abroad. Once they get into universities overseas, they are reluctant to return to Africa without acquiring recognized degrees since the formal requirements for most high positions give no credit for incomplete study toward a degree. Furthermore, a degree or certificate earned in Europe or America has been and is still regarded as more prestigious than one acquired locally. It gives its owner prestige and influence that otherwise would be virtually impossible to obtain at a young age (Donkor, 1982, p. 78);

8. social and economic upward mobility. Bardouille (1981), who studied African students' higher education motives, documented that social and economic upward mobility as a key factor for pursuing university degrees. As one economist concluded, the function of education is not to confer skill and, therefore, increased productivity and higher wages on the worker; it is, rather, to certify an individual's trainability and to confer upon him/her a certain status by virtue of his/her certification. Jobs and higher wages (income) are then distributed on the basis of this certified status (Thurou, 1980). No doubt, higher education provides even those with lower socioeconomic backgrounds with maximum opportunities to bridge the gap between the worlds of school and place of work, thus providing some degree of upward mobility and prestige (Thomas, 1979);

9. scholarships. Since the late 1950s when the United States first undertook significant assistance to African education, the number of African students in the United States has continued to mount, supported by foreign scholarship offers and, to a degree, by African governments themselves (Masland, 1967).

> The provision of scholarships is one of the easiest forms of assistance, but too often its value is reduced because the content is determined more by the donor's convenience than by the needs of the African nation (Masland, 1967). Although local institutions are gaining in status, study abroad has retained its high prestige value, and the number of students abroad has continued to mount, supported by foreign scholarship offers as well as by African governments themselves; and

10. career opportunities: most of the African students graduating will enter the world of work immediately on graduation. They expected their newly acquired university qualifications to be passports to better employment (Wandria, 1977). According to the U. S. Senate Subcommittee on Immigration (1983), the issuance of a student visa declares that there are career opportunities in the prospective student's native country for the skill that s/he will acquire as a result of studying in the United States. Although such investigation as to what discipline of study in the U. S. will guarantee job openings upon students' return to their homelands is hardly possible, if not at all, it at least shows that the realities which increasingly impinge upon an individual as s/he ascends the educational ladder and approaches entry into the labor market serve to moderate the dreams of African graduates (Hanna, 1975).

Parental Influence

In addition to the above reasons for study abroad by African students, parental influence is a major motivating factor. A significant proportion of African students in graduate schools overseas may have parents who would help them to satisfy the criteria of background information on occupation aspirations and for resources to nourish their motivation. Most of these parents are highly educated, occupy professional posts, and appear to be sufficiently interested in their children's further occupational prospects (Durojaniyi, 1970). Related findings confirm this concept.

> The encouragement of one's parents and the plans of one's peers appear to shape ambitions more directly and with greater impact than any other source. Their effects are stronger than the direct influence of one's scholastic aptitude or previous academic achievement, and much stronger than any direct influence from one's social origins per se. (Spenner & Featherman, 1978, p. 392)

The sons and daughters of elite parents usually get a head start in educational achievement. Their parents are well educated and may teach their children to read before they even enter primary school. Child-rearing patterns emphasizing self-reliance, working toward remote goals, periods of quiet, and ability to work and play on their own socialize children for schooling. Records show that the Gisu welcomed education because "to read is to become a Muganda, a superior man" (Twaddle in Gulliver, 1969, p. 196). Anderson (1975) also reported that a Kenyan father whose son was doing badly at his secondary school wanted him to continue because it "would improve his ability to cope with life" (Jolly, 1966, p. 121).

The emphasis in poorer, illiterate homes, on the other hand, ". . . is on group activities, instant obedience, aspiration and satisfaction of short-term needs, making adjustment to school life more difficult" (Lloyd, 1966, p. 206). Parents who lack education do not understand their children's needs to be alone to study; they expect the children to help with work on the farm, in trade, or around the house. "Traditional education opposes schooling because it drives children away from the farms. Such parents may see education as a good thing, but may not know how to help their children succeed" (Peil, 1977, p. 196).

Environmental and Social Factors That Influence Academic Motivation

The academic achievement of a pupil is determined, basically, by two factors: (a) his/her will to achieve and (b) his/her ability to achieve. Some of the environmental and social factors which may have a bearing on students' will and ability as significant motivators in academic fields are:

1. the subculture or ethnic community to which a student belongs, be it race, tribe, linguistic community, or religious group;
2. a student's social class or stratum;

3. a student's family; and

4. a student's peer groups.

All these are likely to expose a student to certain attitudes, values, and levels of aspiration.

Ethnic Subculture

The subculture of an ethnic group may have some influence on the academic motives of a student because it may be instrumental in transmitting certain ideas and attitudes affecting motivation and level of aspiration, personality traits that may bear on academic ability, and linguistic and logical concepts which mediate the learning process.

Ottenberg (1959) who tried to relate such attitudes to the demography of Iboland was similar to Datta (1984) who summarized the situation as follows.

> Perception of emphasis on individual achievement and initiative, a preference for egalitarian leadership, availability of alternative goals and paths of action, and cultural and social variation due to incorporation of strangers in local societies produce persons who are likely to strive for high income, status, and political power through their own efforts by manipulation of newly introduced opportunities in the field of education and economy. (pp. 153-4)

Contrasting the stress in Ibo culture on individual achievement with a culture that emphasizes traditional values such as stress of ascriptive leadership, personal sacrifice for group solidarity, submission to established authority, and rejection of innovation, Datta (1984) concluded the following.

> Individuals brought up in such a cultural environment are less motivated to seek personal achievement outside the traditional community or even to make use of new opportunities available within it. This may explain why the establishment of educational institutions away from developed areas does not necessarily led to this full utilization by the communities for whom they have been set up. (p. 154)

A study by King (1975) in which the utilization of educational opportunities has been assessed with reference to primary school enrollment of the Kikuyu,

Kipsigis, and Masai also concluded that Masai enrollment lags far behind that of the other ethnic groups, despite various compensatory measures (such as provision of boarding facilities and the waving, or at least lowering, of school fees in some cases) which have been in force in Masailand for several decades. The author wonders if modern education has any attraction for the Masai except for a small group, some of whom have intermarried with other ethnic groups. Similar problems in inducing isolated ethnic communities, especially nomads, to send their children to school have been reported from elsewhere in Africa.

There may be something in a cultural system which, other things being equal, spur those who are exposed to it to move ahead, make use of existing opportunities, exert themselves, and achieve success, be it in educational or economic fields. Attempts have been made variously to measure this "driving force" of a culture in terms of central concepts. One example is McClelland's (1955a) concept of achievement motivation or need for achievement. According to McClelland, people who obtain high scores on achievement motivation are marked by persistent efforts, aiming at higher but realistically attainable goals involving competition with a standard of excellence.

McClelland analyzed the need for achievement among various ethnic communities in Africa. It was found that the Yoruba ranked high on the list of high need for achievement, the Masai a little lower, and the Kikuyu and Changa near the bottom. Followed by McClelland's research on achievement motivation in African societies, Ostheimer (1978) attempted to measure the need for achievement among the Changa on Tanzania compared with that of a sample of school children belonging to the Bondei Moslems, a neighboring people to the Changa, and a group of Tanzanian Asians, Hindu by religion. Due to the inadequacy of standard tests for measuring achievement motivation when applied

to African conditions, Ostheimer found negligible differences in the achievement motivation of these groups.

Taken as a whole, the studies of achievement motivation in Africa remain inconclusive. It is possible that traditional cultures transmit to children diverse values regarding success in life, the possibility of attaining successes through individual efforts and by making use of existing opportunities such as modern education and economy, and the areas in which such goals are to be attainable and to be pursued. But the effectiveness of the techniques so far devised for necessary achievement motivation has not been conclusively demonstrated. Thus the influence of a traditional culture on a child's will and ability to do well in school should be not overstressed. Apart from the fact that not all research findings in this field are conclusive, it is now very difficult to find traditional societies entirely isolated and unaffected by social change. Even if such societies are identified, personality differences may be no less important than those between two such communities.

> Individuals do not receive their culture passively; they interact with it and, in the process, may reject or revolt against some of its element. In all this, the influence emanating from other agencies such as the social stratum or class, the neighborhood community and the family cannot be ignored. (Datta, 1984, pp. 158-9)

The environment within which an individual is brought up also has a high amount of influence on achievement motivation. Neubaur (1982) attempted to determine whether or not there are differences between students brought up in rural and urban areas as far as aggressiveness and achievement motivation are concerned. Sample subjects were aged between 15 and 18, and they came from both grammar and vocational training schools in both urban and rural areas.

The investigation indicated that rural youth measure as strong on aggressiveness as their urban peer groups. Moreover, there is a higher level of greater achievement motivation (striving for achievement) in young people from

rural areas than in their counterparts from towns or cities. The main reason for these differences lies in the tendency of parents from rural areas to educate their children more strictly than urban parents, provoking in the children a more distinct sense of respect toward authority.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Two closely related terms, intrinsic and extrinsic, have long been used in motivational literature to distinguish between general classes of outcomes, rewards, motives, and needs related to internally- and externally-initiated behavior. A careful reading of this literature, however, shows considerable variance among authors in definitions of these terms and in the way specific outcomes are classified as one or the other type.

With respect to definition, at least four variations can be found. Seleh and Grygier (1969), for example, define intrinsic factors as "those directly related to the actual performance of the job" and extrinsic factors as "those related to the environment in which the job is being performed" (p. 446). To Deci (1972), however, intrinsic rewards are those "mediated by the person himself" (p. 219), while extrinsic rewards are "externally mediated, e.g., mediated by someone else other than the employee himself" (p. 218). Slocum (1971) implied that intrinsic rewards are associated with the satisfaction of higher order needs and stated firmly that "extrinsic rewards such as pay, promotion, and security are often primarily associated with satisfaction of the lower order needs as discussed by Maslow" (p. 312). Finally, Wernimont (1972) said that "all intrinsic factors are internal feelings, while extrinsic factors are external situations" (p. 173).

Although many classical theories of work motivation have either explicitly or implicitly assumed that the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards were additive (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964), recent evidence (Deci, 1971, 1972,

1975) suggested an interaction between these two sources of reward. According to cognitive evaluation, there are two potential effects associated with extrinsic rewards: (a) as a source of competence information or as a means of behavioral control and (b) as a source of information, confirming an individual's feelings of competence, which should increase intrinsic motivation. If extrinsic rewards are perceived as controlling agents, however, feelings of self determination should decrease, reducing intrinsic motivation.

Monetary rewards can serve either of these two functions, depending on how they are administered. Deci suggested that contingent financial rewards may be perceived as attempts at behavioral control; hence, they should decrease intrinsic motivation. This effect has been demonstrated in a variety of situations and experimental tasks (Kruglanski, Alon, & Lewis, 1972; Druglanski et al., 1975; Pinder, 1976; Pritchard, Campbell, & Campbell, 1977). Several researchers, however, have been unable to replicate the finding that contingent pay decreases intrinsic motivation (Farr, 1976; Farr, Vance, & McIntyre, 1977; Hamner & Foster, 1975). One explanation for failures to find reduction in intrinsic motivation under contingent pay is simply that the financial incentives were administered in a manner that did not cause them to be perceived as the source of control. Alternatively, contingent financial rewards may significantly affect causal aspirations, but such effects may be too small relative to other potential determinants of locus of control to significantly reduce intrinsic motivation.

The intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy has become a topics of intense debate among scholars. Most individuals interested in the subject of work motivation can provide definitions they feel are adequate. However, the controversy arises because little agreement exists about what things constitute intrinsic and extrinsic factors. For example, Dyer and Parker (1975) asked a sample of

organizational psychologists to define the words intrinsic and extrinsic and then to classify 21 outcomes into categories of intrinsic or extrinsic rewards or both. The findings showed little consistency and a lot of confusion characterized the response.

A number of researchers have indicated that intrinsic factors are better motivators than extrinsic ones (Mitchell & Nebeker, 1973). Task behavior that allows an individual to feel competent and self-determining is intrinsically motivated. When external rewards are introduced, they may provide evidence about a person's competence, and the individual may perceive that s/he is performing the activity for the reward itself. In either case, the locus of causality shifts from within the person to the external reward. Consequently, extrinsic outcomes can reduce both feelings of competence and self-determination. No doubt the debate will continue, and only findings from additional research efforts will ameliorate the conflict.

Atkinson (1964, 1966, 1970) directed research for almost a quarter of a century on human motivation. According to humanistic psychologists (Maslow, 1968; Rogers, 1969; Combs, 1974), the highest and most desirable motivation is that which comes from within an individual. "The most critical is the individual student motive" (Kolesink, 1978, p. 5). Such motivation is said to be intrinsic and the consequent behavior self-motivated.

Overseas Training

Overseas training is often regarded as complementary to local training (limiting education abroad to older students, to more advanced levels, to shorter periods of time, and to persons who have made career starts at home), mainly due to lack of training facilities in some disciplines or at appropriate levels. This is one reason why overseas training is predominantly at graduate and post-

graduate levels. The demand for such training could be maintained by the use of expatriates, but they are often expensive and seldom conform to local socioeconomic conditions.

The rationale for overseas training should be understood from two perspectives, that of recipient countries and donor countries. Recipient countries send trainees overseas to pursue courses not available locally. Sumra and Ishumi (1980) have pointed out that the bulk of Tanzanian students abroad were studying science, particularly medicine and engineering, reflecting inadequate training facilities at home in these subjects. Local institutions offered largely arts-oriented courses. In the case of Kenya, the emphasis of training abroad has shifted to disciplines not available at home. The experience of Zambia (Koloko, 1980) and Somalia (Adam, 1980) are similar to those of Tanzania and Kenya, respectively.

Donor countries, on the other hand, see overseas training first and foremost as an instrument for fostering a sense of international community and encouraging diplomatic cohesion between two countries. Climm (1980) observed that overseas training helps in fostering relations between different peoples and contributes to their understanding of the problem of economic and socio-cultural development processes in other parts of the world. The Swedish government saw this kind of assistance as an expression of international solidarity and an instrument for spreading ideas of social equality, ideas that have helped promote development in Western Europe (Kann, 1980). Wells and Boogaard (1980) also indicated that the aim of United States Agency for International Development training programs include the introduction of attitudes and values asserted to development goals.

Prior research concerning motives for study abroad revealed a host of factors proposed to explain why students go abroad. It has been suggested that

some students are trapped by the small size of their national universities; that is, their records ought to permit them to enter good universities at home, but facilities simply do not exist. There are others, particularly those sons of the local aristocracy or upper class, who see study abroad as either a lark or as a kind of "finishing school." For them, foreign diplomas are marks of social prestige rather than of academic accomplishment (Bereday et al., 1960). For some, ambitions outstrip local facilities; their interests cannot be met at home, simply because their subjects are inadequately taught or not taught at all.

Given the decision to study abroad, the choice of country in which to study is influenced by a student's intellectual and occupational interests and by his/her nation's cultural tradition. Cultural tradition often reflects the colonial history of the various African countries involved. For example, students from former British colonies tend to go to the United Kingdom, while Fracophone Africans go to France, etc. These students usually have some knowledge of the language and traditions of the former imperial powers and adopt more readily to that country's universities. Furthermore, because the United States is the world's technological leader, the proportion of foreign students in technological fields is greater for the United States than for any other industrial nation (UNESCO, 1968).

Motivating Forces for Overseas Training

Speculation as to the "push" and "pull" forces that inspire and drive human behavior has long occupied the attention of many psychologists (Bindra, 1959; McClelland, 1955; Young, 1966). Extensive observations and empirical research have concentrated on analyzing the central determinants and goals of human actions. An inquiry of motives for overseas study suggests that, before going abroad, international students balance the reasons for leaving their countries of origin against the influences that would keep them there. In other words,

students decide to go abroad only if the net benefit of studying overseas is expected to be significantly higher than the net benefit of studying in the home country.

Since the application of Western technology is regarded as highly essential for the social and economic progress of developing nations, individuals from developing countries with educational qualifications from Western countries may, perhaps, have greater employment opportunities and higher standards of living than those educated and trained at home.

Almost every study on overseas students explored the factors that motivate students to go abroad for study. A review of cross-sections of these studies suggests that students go abroad for a variety of reasons: low quality of education at home; lack of proper educational and training facilities; complete absence of some fields of study; wider, better, and superior educational facilities in developed countries; prestige of foreign training; prospects of higher employment and salary opportunities due to overseas education; and discrimination against minority social and political groups in home countries (Appleyard, 1970; Ruth, 1970a, 1970b; Myers, 1972; Mansingh-Das, 1972; Rao, 1979).

However, researchers have recognized that the attitudes and experiences that encourage students to study abroad are "pushes" from home countries while others use inducements that "pull" from foreign countries. While some are short-term stimuli, some are long-term expectations of benefits. Each individual, perhaps, has his/her own combination of motives for going overseas to pursue higher education. Under such circumstances, the right approach to uncovering motivating factors is to analyze a large number of individual reasons for going abroad by socioeconomic and attitudinal variables.

Why do people with high educational levels migrate? Many authors have tried to answer these questions by analyzing what are usually considered as pull and push factors. From a motivational point of view, the decision to migrate has always been affected by comparative considerations. It is the comparison of the potential migrant's situation in his/her country of origin with the situation of a person with similar qualifications in the country of destination that enters into the decision.

The causes of migration apply to all, but they relate in a particular way and with particular force to those with professional training. Professional persons are more migration-prone and more susceptible than other groups to the pushing and pulling forces that give rise to migration. The fact that they are highly trained (educated), whatever their professions, tends to make them less tightly bound to their home countries. The special case of push would occur when a new situation develops in the country of origin which has negative repercussions in the view of groups with high levels of education. Typical push incidents in a country of origin might be political crises, military coups, university crises, racial or political persecutions, and the loss of war or foreign invaders. Adams (1968) confirms this, "A first rate African student has been offered a prominent job in Kenya, but he wanted to stay away longer until the dust settles after independence. The experience is not uncommon for students from the 'new' nations" (p. 139).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The methodology and research design for this study are presented in 10 parts: (a) review of the purpose of the study, (b) procedure for identifying and selecting the study population, (c) procedure for collecting information, (d) preliminary preparation for data collection, (e) development of the instrument, (f) pretesting the instrument, (g) anonymity, (h) timing for data collection, (i) actual data collection, and (j) data analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the motives of Eastern African students for seeking graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities during the 1984-85 academic year. Specific purposes were discussed in Chapter I.

Study Population

The population for the study was limited to all graduate students from Eastern African countries enrolled as full-time students at Andrews and Michigan State Universities for the 1984-85 academic year. The Eastern African countries included Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. A total of 87 students from these countries pursuing graduate studies at the time of inquiry were identified. Of the 87, 16 were from Andrews University and 71 were from Michigan State University. Thirty-eight of these students were studying for Masters' degrees, and 49 were working toward Ph.D.

degrees. Only those enrolled as full-time graduate students from the seven countries mentioned above on both campuses and meeting the criteria for the study were selected as the sample.

There were at least five major reasons for excluding undergraduate students from some Eastern African countries and surrounding islands for consideration in this investigation.

1. The undergraduate population of African students enrolled both at Andrews and Michigan State Universities from the region under consideration at the time of the study was relatively small (about five, altogether), and the majority of them were children or wives of African students pursuing graduate degrees.

2. Academic orientation in undergraduate programs differs substantially from that of graduate programs, and the same is true regarding students involved in these academic activities.

3. The review of literature indicated that an overwhelming number of studies done on foreign students in the United States lump together undergraduate and graduate students (Tuso, 1981). Thus, the decision to limit the scope of the study was based on the objective of this research to investigate academic motives particular to Eastern African graduate students.

4. Not all Eastern and Southeastern African countries were included in the study because no graduate students from Somalia, Sudan, Mozambique, and the surrounding islands were represented at Andrews University at the time the present study was done, although some were represented at Michigan State University. A graduate sample from each of the seven countries selected from the region was represented on both campuses.

5. The graduate students chosen use English as either their second or only language, as compared to students in the other countries and surrounding islands where either Arabic, French, Italian, or another language is dominant.

The population was divided into two basic parts, according to a ladder of vertical academic hierarchy.

1. The first group was comprised of those graduate students pursuing Masters' degree programs.

2. The second group was comprised of those graduate students pursuing Ph.D. degree programs.

Procedure

For the data sources, the researcher selected two separate institutions of higher learning (one private and the other non-private) where a large number of international students in graduate schools were represented.

1. Andrews University is one of the largest private institutions of higher learning operated by the Seventh-day Adventist Church where international students from over 85 different countries around the globe come for training at advanced levels.

2. Michigan State University is one of the largest non-private institutions of higher learning with student representation from over 110 different countries around the world.

Students come to these institutions for advanced training with intentions to return home, upon completion of the training programs, to develop their respective countries in various capacities.

Objectives

The objective for selecting these two separate institutions of higher learning was based on three clearcut purposes:

1. not to compare private and non-private nor religiously-oriented and non-religiously-oriented institutions. Instead, the major concern was to investigate academic motives of students for seeking graduate degrees, regardless of the institutions they attend or their countries of origin;

2. to investigate individual motives for seeking desired degrees beyond national boundaries (overseas); and

3. to extend data sources beyond one university campus. Both universities fit very well because a sufficient number of individuals for a population sample from the countries used for the study were enrolled on both campuses at the time of the inquiry.

Procedure for Collecting Information

The preliminary procedure for collecting data for this investigation entailed the following arrangements.

1. Prior to acquiring information about students' names, addresses, and telephone numbers, a written authorization to the appropriate university authority was required. Following the University's standing policy regarding release of confidential information concerning students for research purposes, a summary of the proposed research abstract, the questionnaire to be used, and a cover letter, co-signed by the research director and researcher, were submitted to Dr. Henry E. Bredeck, chair of the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS), requesting permission for the release of such information.

2. Dr. Bredeck's committee reviewed the request, recommended some changes and suggestions, and returned the request to the researcher for proper adjustment. After correction, the request was again submitted for consideration.

3. After the UCRIHS approved the request, Dr. Bredeck wrote a letter of approval to conduct the project (see Appendix C).

4. As a result of that letter, a list containing names, addresses, and telephone numbers of all male and female Eastern African graduate students at both Andrews and Michigan State Universities was obtained.

5. Sixteen names at Andrews University and 71 at Michigan State University were identified at the time of the study (a total population of 87 male and female Eastern African students at the graduate level).

6. The researcher drove to Andrews University (eight miles south of Benton Harbor, Michigan) to contact the 16 people there. People were contacted by phone, at their homes, at work/study, and on campus by the researcher who introduced himself and the project, with the intent of securing their willingness to participate.

7. Identified students at Michigan State University were also contacted at apartments, by phone, at work/study, and on campus. They were told about the research and asked if they were willing to participate. With positive responses from both campuses, further arrangements were deemed necessary to carry out the research project.

Preliminary Preparation for Data Collection

The preliminary preparation for data collection included development of the instrument, pre-testing the instrument, anonymity, timing for data collection, and actual data collection.

Development of the Instrument

The instrument used to collect data for the research was the result of many long hours by several individuals who provided valuable contributions by deleting irrelevant and inappropriate items and including pertinent materials as the instrument was refined.

A rough outline of the questionnaire selected from various sources, such as Amalaha (1974), Dugger (1965), Bardouille (1981), Okediji (1973), Tuso (1981), and Wolfgang (1979), was included in the instrument to be reviewed by the researcher's colleagues. Colleagues examined each area and made several useful suggestions as to alterations and inclusions.

The questionnaires were revised as a result of suggestions made by colleagues and were presented to Dr. Max Raines, the research director, for his review of the instrument. He offered valuable suggestions and recommendations which were adopted accordingly.

A research consultant in the Office of Research Consultation, College of Education, Michigan State University, then reviewed the instrument to make sure each question was consistent with current assumptions held in educational research. Incorporating her valuable suggestions, the researcher rewrote the final draft of the questionnaire for use in data collection.

Pretesting

Prior to administering the adjusted questionnaire to the subject population, 15 African students enrolled in graduate school at Michigan State University were pretested. Those 15 selected to participate in the pretest exercise were chosen on the basis of five major criteria: they

1. were graduate students from developing African countries,

2. represented various socioeconomic backgrounds in their respective societies, including sponsored and non-sponsored students,

3. represented various academic fields of specialization,

4. held academic levels of graduate study to be reflected in the composition of the study's participants (Masters' and Ph.D. degrees), and

5. were not among Eastern African male and female students on whom the actual data collection was to be carried out.

After completion, the pre-test questionnaires were collected, and useful suggestions, comments, and recommendations were taken into account with adjustments made accordingly. The final copy of the instrument was then printed and stapled into a booklet form for use.

Anonymity

A study of this nature obviously causes some apprehension and sensitivity concerning confidentiality among those subjects selected to participate in the research project. To ensure absolute anonymity, each individual was advised, both on the cover letter and in directions given with the questionnaire, not to write his/her name anywhere on the instrument. Subjects were assured their names would not appear in the manuscript, either.

Timing for Data Collection

Summer was not the best choice of time to collect data on university students, particularly due to the fear that many of them might leave campus for vacation. But since African students would most likely stay on campus, the decision was made to try to collect the data during a summer term.

Two steps were taken to investigate the availability of students needed for the study.

1. The researcher drove to Andrews University to contact students, asking if they would be available during the summer quarter.

2. Students at Michigan State University were also contacted to determine their availability during summer quarter.

Of the total contacted on both campuses, 98% said they would stay around, and two percent would be moving off campus to seek jobs but could be reached without any problem.

The time for actual data collection was set as the period between the first half and before the beginning of the second half of summer session, 1985. The original plan called for data collection during the spring of 1985, but circumstances beyond the researcher's control caused a delay:

1. delay of authorization for the research by UCRIHS, without which the project could not be carried out;

2. another dissertation study using African students at Michigan State University in progress at the time. Almost all African graduate students at whom the present study was aimed had been selected to participate in the other study;

3. the end of spring quarter was assessed as an inappropriate time to collect data because of final examinations, graduation, vacations, and other activities. Respondents may not be expected to respond objectively and constructively to the questionnaire at that time since too much else was going on in their lives; and

4. the summer quarter is short and concentrated. The time chosen for data collection was considered ideal for this purpose.

Actual Collection of Data

The questionnaire was administered to each subject on both campuses by the researcher within a period of one week. The instrument was not mailed to avoid delay and to maximize responses through personal contact with the subjects.

During the meeting with each individual, the researcher presented the instrument accompanied by a letter of introduction outlining the purpose of the study and additional details for anonymity. Respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaire while the researcher was there so they could ask questions or

seek clarifications. An alternative was filling it out within two or three days so the researcher could collect it at that time. If they chose the second method, subjects were asked to call the researcher when they finished for the collection of the instruments.

Some subjects filled out the questionnaires while the researcher waited, but the majority filled out the questionnaires at a later time and called the researcher to pick them up at their homes. Those who were not able to have the questionnaires ready when the researcher arrived were contacted by phone as needed until the instruments were filled out and returned. In a few cases where subjects had misplaced the questionnaires, additional instruments were given to them by the researcher to encourage 100% return.

One student helped the researcher distribute the instruments and collect the data at Andrews University. Those who filled out the questionnaires contacted and gave them to the student helper so that the researcher did not have to go around to each home to collect the data. After the rest were contacted by phone, the response from Andrews University was 100%.

The response from Michigan State University students was a little less than 100%. Following the acquisition of the list of names, it was discovered that four students on the list graduated at the end of spring quarter and left the country before they had been contacted. Three more changed their addresses and phone numbers, making it impossible to reach them during the summer. To make every attempt to include all possible students from the region, the researcher waited until fall quarter for those not possible to trace during the summer and to include any newcomers to replace those who graduated before the questionnaire was distributed. All three students who had been off campus were contacted, and each filled out the instrument during the fall of 1985. In addition, four new

students (one at Andrews, three at Michigan State) participated during the fall of 1985.

As mentioned earlier, responses from Michigan State University did not total 100%. Of all contacted, two students declined from participating for personal reasons and two left the country for research without returning the questionnaires. The overall response when both campuses were combined was 83 of 87 total returned (95.4%). The attitudes of students who participated were generally very understanding, cooperative, friendly, and open. Every individual visited by the researcher was hospitable and offered a warm welcome to his/her home. They were all very encouraging and helpful.

Data Analysis

Responses to the questionnaire by Eastern African graduate students at Andrews and Michigan State Universities were collected, coded, and analyzed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used to obtain the characteristics of the sample and to identify and find the extent of academic motives of Eastern African graduate students studying at Andrews and Michigan State Universities.

Chi-square tests were used to examine the relationship between students' demographic characteristics and the importance of internal/external motives. Subgroup means were used to indicate differences in the means between subgroups of each demographic characteristic having a significant relationship with motives for seeking graduate degrees. A five percent level of significance was used in all chi-square tests.

Results of the analysis will be shown in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of analysis of the data received from 83 respondents to the questionnaire distributed by the researcher to Eastern African graduate students at Andrews University (AU) in Berrien Springs, Michigan, and those at Michigan State University (MSU) in East Lansing, Michigan. The reports include survey returns and respondent characteristics.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the motivations of Eastern African graduate students for seeking graduate degrees at AU and MSU. More specifically, the research questions were based on the following.

1. What are those self-reported internal and external motivating reasons and influences of Eastern African graduate students for seeking graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities?

2. To what extent do those self-reported motivating reasons and influences of Eastern African graduate students for pursuing graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities occur regardless of the country of origin and selected demographic characteristics?

3. To what extent are selected demographic variables, the community in which the students were raised and schooled, the students' religious affiliations, and their major fields of study related to Eastern African students' motivation for pursuing graduate degrees at AU and MSU?

4. To what extent are selected variables of the students' parents' religious affiliations, level of income, occupation, and level of education related to Eastern African students' motivation for seeking graduate degrees at AU and MSU?

5. To what extent are Eastern African graduate students' perceptions about their parents' attitudes toward motivating their daughters for higher education overseas reflected?

Hypotheses

Twelve null hypotheses were tested to examine the relationship between students' demographic characteristics and their academic motivations for seeking graduate degrees abroad.

H_1 There will be no relationship between the type of community in which Eastern African students were raised and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_2 There will be no relationship between the type of high school environment which Eastern African students attended and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_3 There will be no significant relationship between the type of college environment which Eastern African students attended and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_4 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' religious affiliations and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_5 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' mothers' religious affiliations and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_6 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' fathers' religious affiliations and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_7 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' major fields of study and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_8 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' mothers' levels of education and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_9 There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' fathers' levels of education and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_{10} There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' mothers' professional occupations and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_{11} There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African students' fathers' professional occupations and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

H_{12} There will be no significant relationship between Eastern African graduate parents' level of income and the students' motivations for seeking graduate degrees.

Descriptive statistics were used to identify and find out the extent of motivations for seeking graduate degrees, while chi-square tests and subgroup means were used to examine the relationship between demographic characteristics and motivations.

Survey Returns

Survey questions returns are reported in Table 4. Respondents at both universities were contacted by the researcher to facilitate maximum returns of collected questionnaires. Over ninety percent (94.4%) of the questionnaires were returned at MSU, while the return from AU was 100%. This was consistent with the original population proportion.

Table 4
Report of Survey Returns

School	A	B	C	D	E	F
Andrews University	16	0	0	16	16	100.0
Michigan State University	71	2	2	67	67	94.366
TOTAL	87	2	2	83	83	95.40

KEY:
A = Number of questionnaires distributed
B = Number of questionnaires unable to be collected
C = Number of questionnaires not completed
D = Number of questionnaires returned
E = Number of usable questionnaires returned
F = Percentage of usable questionnaires returned

Two of the respondents from whom the researcher was unable to collect questionnaires changed addresses after receiving their questionnaires and could not be reached at the time of data collection. The other two individuals returned incomplete questionnaires and gave personal reasons for not participating in the study.

Respondent Demographic Characteristics

The first two pages and the last page of the questionnaire asked for routine demographic information so that the overall profile of the respondent group might be presented as background for the study's results. Table 5 presents summary data for demographic characteristics.

Table 5
Demographic Characteristics (N = 83)

Characteristic	N	%
University		
Andrews	16	19.3
Michigan State	67	80.7
		100.0
Gender		
Female	9	10.8
Male	73	88.0
Missing	1	1.2
		100.0
Marital status		
Single	36	45.0
Married, both living here	36	45.0
Married, spouse not living here	8	10.0
Missing	3	3.6
		100.0
Home country		
Ethiopia	25	30.1
Kenya	19	22.9
Zimbabwe	12	14.5
Malawi	9	10.8
Tanzania	9	10.8
Uganda	4	4.8
Zambia	4	4.8
Missing	1	1.2
		100.0

(continued)

Table 5, continued

Characteristic	N	%
Community in which raised		
Rural, population less than 20,000	49	59.0
Small town, population of 20-40,000	18	21.7
Large city, population over 60,000	16	19.3
		100.0
Major field of study		
Education	19	22.9
Religion	8	9.6
Natural science	34	41.0
Social science	14	16.9
Business	7	8.4
Missing	1	1.2
		100.0
Parents' total income in U.S. dollars		
Less than $10,000	69	83.1
$10,000-14,999	8	9.6
$15,000-19,999	1	1.2
$20,000-24,999	1	1.2
$25,000 and over	1	1.2
Missing	3	3.6
		100.0
Students' religion		
Christian	42	50.6
Seventh-day Adventist	27	32.5
African religions	6	7.2
Missing Islam	2	2.4
Missing	6	7.2
		100.0
Age		
22 - 25	6	7.2
26 - 29	23	27.7
30 - 33	28	34.9
34 - 37	13	15.6
38 - 41	7	7.2
42 - 45	3	3.6
Missing	3	3.6
		100.0

It was thought that the data would have the most significance if it came from a group likely to comprise different countries with varieties of socioeconomic backgrounds, cultures, communities in which respondents were

raised, environments in which they attended high school and college, religious affiliations, and parents' levels of income.

Over 80% of the respondents were from Michigan State University, representing seven Eastern African countries. Males responding to the survey outnumbered female respondents by eight to one.

All respondents were over the age of 22 with a majority (62.6%) were between the ages of 26 and 33. Over 83% of the students' parents had yearly incomes of less than $10,000 (U.S. dollars).

The majority of the students (41%) studied in the field of natural science, with majors in education coming next at 22.9%. Eighty-three percent of the respondents listed a religious affiliation, with 51% of them claiming Christianity and 33% stating they were Seventh-day Adventists.

Reasons and Influences

Academic motives include motivations and influences for seeking graduate degrees. In order to find out the most important reasons for seeking graduate degrees in the United States, East African graduate students were asked to choose the most important reason and influence to them from a list of 13 reasons and 11 influences included in this study. Responses obtained were reported in Tables 6 and 7 by frequencies and percentages.

As shown in Table 6, the highest proportion of Eastern African graduate students at both AU (43.8%) and MSU (35.5%) indicated that their most important reason for seeking graduate degrees was "to develop one's potential contribution for greater service to his/her country." The overall proportion for both universities was 37.2% in favor of this reason as being their most important motivation. The next highest proportions of students at AU (25%) and MSU (29%) indicated that their most important reason for seeking graduate degrees

was "to get advanced training which was not available in the homeland." In both universities, 28.2% of the students were in favor of this reason as being the most

Table 6
Most Important Reasons for Seeking Higher Education by University

Reasons	Andrews N	Andrews %	Mich.State N	Mich.State %	Totals N	Totals %
To develop one's potential contribution for greater service to country	7	43.8	22	35.5	29	37.2
To get advanced training which are not available in homeland	4	25.0	18	29.0	22	28.2
To take advantage of available opportunities	0	0	6	9.7	6	7.7
To acquire more marketable knowledge for my future career	0	0	5	8.1	5	6.4
To create networks with professionals in other countries	1	6.3	3	4.8	4	5.1
To develop one's chosen career and secure a better position	0	0	3	4.8	3	3.8
To fulfill serious commitment to my lifestyle and career	1	6.3	1	1.6	2	2.6
To overcome unfavorable conditions in the homeland	0	0	2	3.2	2	2.6
To discover the world	0	0	2	3.2	2	2.6
To get training that reflects the needs of African countries	1	6.3	0	0	1	1.3
To get training that gets bread and butter for the family	1	6.3	0	0	1	1.3
To live a better life after graduation	1	6.3	0	0	1	1.3
To get advanced degrees from overseas	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTALS:	16	100.3	62	100.0	49	100.0

important motivation. For respondents at MSU, reasons of less importance were "to take advantage of available opportunities" (9.7%) and "to acquire more marketable knowledge for future career" (8.1%). The overall least important reasons were "to get training that reflects the needs of African countries," "to live a better life after graduation," "to get training that gets bread and butter for the family," and "to get advanced degrees from overseas."

Table 7
Most Important Influence for Higher Education Decision Making

Influences	Andrews N	Andrews %	Mich.State N	Mich.State %	Totals N	Totals %
Available funds from overseas	0	0	12	24.5	12	19.4
The existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for African at universities in the homeland	4	30.8	5	10.2	9	14.5
Dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degree	2	15.4	6	12.2	8	12.9
Correspondents with friends overseas	3	23.1	4	8.2	7	11.3
Encouragement of family members	3	23.1	3	6.1	6	9.7
Recommendation of faculty and staff members in home country	0	0	6	12.2	6	9.7
Available funds from institutions of higher learning in home country	1	7.7	3	6.1	4	6.5
Encouragement from the institution s/he has served for years	0	0	4	8.2	4	6.5
Feeling of remaining behind from peer group who went overseas	0	0	4	8.2	4	6.5
Information given by home school for possibility of studying abroad	0	0	1	2.0	1	1.6
Desire to change job	0	0	1	2.0	1	1.6
TOTALS:	13	100.0	49	100.0	62	100.0

Table 7 shows the degree of importance students place on influences to seek graduate degrees at both universities. Factors which influenced students differed at the two universities. For those at Andrews University, the four most frequently mentioned influences were "the existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the homeland" (30.8%), "correspondence with friends overseas" (23%), "encouragement of family members" (23%), and "dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degree" (15.4%). For Eastern African graduate students at MSU, the four most important influences were "available funds from overseas" (24.5%), "recommendations of faculty and staff members in the home country" (12%), "dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degrees" (12%), and "the existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the homeland" (10.2%). The overall least important influences were "information given by home school for possibility of studying abroad" (1.6%) and "desire to change jobs" (1.6%).

Identification of Academic Motivators

Academic motivators were identified by measures of importance of each reason and influence for seeking graduate degrees as perceived by Eastern African graduate students at both Andrews and Michigan State Universities. Tables 8 and 9 show the total number of responses, proportions of responses according to degree of importance, mean and standard deviation of the importance of each reason, and influence, respectively. Percentages indicate the proportions of students who perceived the importance of each reason or influence according to various degrees of importance.

According to the means shown in Table 8, there were two very important reasons students sought graduate degrees: (a) to get advanced training not available in the homeland (mean of 4.20) and (b) to develop one's potential contribution for greater service to his/her country (mean of 3.95).

Table 8
Means, Standard Deviations, and Percentages of Degrees of Importance of Reasons for Seeking Graduate Degrees

Reason	N	%, A	%, B	%, C	%, D	%, E	Mean	S.D.
To obtain advanced training not available in the homeland	82	4.9	0.0	20.7	19.5	54.9	4.20	1.08
To develop potential contribution for greater service to one's country	80	5.0	1.2	22.5	36.2	35.0	3.95	1.04
To acquire more marketable knowledge for one's future career	78	11.5	14.1	30.8	25.6	17.9	3.24	1.24
To obtain training that reflects the needs of African countries	80	17.5	21.2	21.2	20.0	20.0	3.04	1.39
To develop one's chosen career to secure a better position	79	16..5	11.4	40.5	19.0	12.7	3.00	1.22
To take advantage of available opportunities	78	25.6	12.8	29.5	19.2	12.8	2.81	1.36
To create networks with professionals in other countries	79	15.2	22.8	4.18	17.7	2.5	2.70	1.02
To live a better life after graduation	78	17.9	25.6	33.3	16.7	6.4	2.68	1.15
To fulfill serious commitments to one's lifestyle and career	79	26.6	21.5	25.3	12.7	13.9	2.66	1.37
To get training that gets bread and butter for one's family	79	32.9	21.5	24.1	10.1	11.4	2.46	1.35
To overcome unfavorable conditions in homelands	79	37.7	15.6	23.4	11.7	11.7	2.44	1.40
To get an advanced degree from overseas	78	34.6	17.9	28.2	12.8	6.4	2.39	1.26
To discover the world	77	32.5	23.4	35.1	9.1	0.0	2.21	1.00

KEY: A = least important, B = somewhat important, C = important, D = very important, E = most important

Table 9
Means, Standard Deviations, and Percentages of Degrees of Agreement on the Importance of Influences for Pursuing Graduate Degrees Overseas

Influence	N	%, A	%, B	%, C	%, D	%, E	Mean	S.D.
Recommendation of faculty and staff members in home country	79	15.2	13.9	31.6	26.6	12.7	3.08	1.24
Existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for African at universities in homeland	59	18.9	18.9	31.1	21.6	9.5	2.84	1.24
Correspondence with friends overseas	77	15.6	20.8	40.3	18.2	5.2	2.77	1.09
Dissatisfaction with low pay without grad. degree	77	29.9	11.7	23.4	23.4	11.7	2.75	1.41
Encouragement of family members	77	24.7	16.9	32.5	14.3	11.7	2.71	1.31
Available funds from overseas	78	28.2	12.8	30.8	19.2	9.0	2.68	1.31
Information given by home school for possibility of studying abroad	78	20.5	17.9	47.4	14.1	0.0	2.67	1.05
Feeling of remaining behind from peer group	76	19.7	18.4	42.1	14.5	5.3	2.67	1.11
Encouragement from institution one has served	78	24.4	20.5	33.3	10.3	11.5	2.64	1.28
Desire to change jobs	77	46.8	19.5	23.4	5.2	5.2	2.03	1.18
Available funds from institutions of higher learning in home country	76	31.6	32.9	18.4	10.5	6.6	2.00	1.30

KEY: A = very strongly disagree, B = strongly disagree, C = agree, D = strongly agree, E = very strongly agree

Seven of the reasons included in this study were perceived as important motivators for seeking graduate degrees: (a) to acquire more marketable knowledge for a future career (mean of 3.24), (b) to get training that reflects the needs of African countries (3.04), (c) to develop one's chosen career to secure a better position (3.00), (d) to take advantage of available opportunities (2.81), (e) to create networks with professional in other countries (2.70), (f) to live a better life after graduation (2.68), and (h) to fulfill serious commitment to one's lifestyle and career (2.66). The remaining four motivators were perceived as somewhat important: (a) to get the training that gets bread and butter for the family (mean of 2.46), (b) to overcome unfavorable conditions in the homeland (2.44), (c) to get an advanced degree from overseas (2.39), and (d) to discover the world (2.21).

According to the means shown in Table 8, there were four major influences affecting the decisions of Eastern African students to seek graduate degrees: (a) recommendations of faculty and staff members in the home country (mean of 3.08), (b) the existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the homeland (2.84), (c) correspondence with friends overseas (2.77), and (d) dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degrees (2.75).

Five influences included in this investigation that affected the decisions of Eastern African students to seek graduate degrees were perceived as minor influences for seeking graduate degrees overseas: (a) encouragement of family members (mean of 2.71), (b) available funds from overseas (2.68), (c) information given by home school services for the possibility of studying abroad (2.67), (d) the feeling of remaining behind from one's peer group who went overseas (2.67), and (e) encouragement from the institution one has served for several years (2.64). Two influences included in the study were not perceived as motivators: (a) the

desire to change jobs (mean of 2.03), and (b) available funds from institutions of higher learning in the home country (2.00).

Tables 10 and 11 show the means of importance of the more significant internal and external motivators (means greater than 2.5) as perceived by Eastern African students as their motivations for seeking graduate degrees in the United States. The mean of importance of the internal motivators was 3.10 with the range between 2.66 and 4.20, while the mean of importance of external motivators was 2.76 with the range between 2.64 and 3.08. Results indicated that Eastern African students were more motivated by internal than external motivators.

Table 10
Means and Standard Deviations of Degrees of Importance of Internal (Intrinsic) Motivators for Seeking Graduate Degrees

Motivators	N	Means	S.D.
To get advanced training not available in the homeland	82	4.20	1.08
To develop one's potential contribution for greater service to country	80	3.95	1.04
To acquire more marketable knowledge for one's future career	78	3.24	1.24
To get training that reflects the needs of African countries	80	3.04	1.39
To develop one's chosen career to secure a better position	79	3.00	1.22
Dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degree	77	2.75	1.41
To create networks with professional in other countries	79	2.70	1.02
To live a better life after graduation	78	2.68	1.15
The feeling of remaining behind from a peer group who went overseas for higher education	76	2.67	1.11

Table 10, continued

Motivators	N	Means	S.D.
To fulfill serious commitment to one's lifestyle and career	79	2.66	1.37
ALL INTERNAL (INTRINSIC) MOTIVATORS	79	3.10	1.20

Table 11
Means and Standard Deviations of Degrees of Importance of External (Extrinsic) Motivators for Seeking Graduate Degrees

Motivators	N	Mean	S.D.
Recommendations of faculty and staff members in the home country	79	3.08	1.24
The existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the homeland	59	2.84	1.24
To take advantage of available opportunities	78	2.81	1.36
Correspondence with friends overseas	77	2.77	1.09
Encouragement of family members	77	2.71	1.31
Available funds from overseas	78	2.68	1.31
Information given by home schools for the possibility of studying abroad	78	2.67	1.05
Encouragement from the institution one has served for many years	78	2.64	1.28
ALL EXTERNAL (EXTRINSIC) MOTIVATORS	76	2.76	1.23

Tables 10 and 11 show the means of importance of the more significant internal and external motivators (means greater than 2.5) as perceived by Eastern African graduate students as their motivations for seeking graduate

degrees in the United States. The mean of importance of the internal motivators was 3.10 with the range of between 2.66 and 4.20, while the mean of importance of external motivators was 2.76 with a range of between 2.64 and 3.08. The results indicated that Eastern African students were more motivated by internal motivations than by external motivators.

Motivations and Demographic Characteristics of Students

Chi-square tests were used to examine the relationship between students' demographic characteristics and motivations for seeking graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities. An actual significant level of equal to or smaller than 0.05 indicated that there was a significant relationship between motivation and demographic characteristics. Table 12 shows the actual levels of significance of the relationship between reasons for seeking graduate degrees and students' demographic characteristics.

Greater Service to Home Country

As shown in Table 12, motivation for developing one's potential contribution for greater service to home country was related to students' religion. The subgroup means shown in Table 13 indicated that Eastern African graduate students whose religion was Seventh-day Adventist (mean of 4.27) expressed higher motivation to develop their potential contribution for greater service to their home countries than did other Christian students (mean of 3.98) and those whose religions were African (2.60).

Table 12
Actual Significant Levels of Chi-square Tests of Relationship Between Reasons and Demographic Characteristics of Students

Reasons	A	B	C	D	E
To get advanced training not available in the homeland	.81	.45	.66	.28	.76
To get advanced degrees from overseas	.75	.42	.57	.57	.38
To take advantage of available opportunities	.41	.69	.98	.39	.48
To fulfill serious commitment to one's lifestyle and career	.09	.62	.37	.17	.80
To develop one's potential contribution for greater service to one's country	.48	.25	.09	.01**	.45
To develop one's chosen career to secure a better position	.93	.91	.28	.20	.42
To create networks with professionals in other countries	.67	.26	.44	.30	.97
To overcome favorable conditions in the homeland	.15	.61	.08	.75	.32
To get training that reflects the needs of African countries	.59	.81	.26	.66	.61
To get the training that gets bread and butter for the family	.24	.54	.70	.19	.43
To live a better life after graduation	.02**	.09	.40	.02**	.19
To acquire more marketable knowledge for one's future career	.08	.14	.64	.28	.17
To discover the world	.75	.43	.01**	.54	.97

* = .05
** = .01
*** = .001

KEY: A = significance of community in which raised, B = significance of home school location, C = significance of college location, D = significance of student's religion, E = significance of student's major.

Table 13
Subgroup Means of Importance of Developing One's Potential Contribution for Greater Service to Home Country According to Students' Religion

Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	41	3.98	0.99
Seventh-day Adventist	26	4.27	0.87
African	5	2.60	1.67
TOTALS:	72	3.99	1.07

Better Life after Graduation

The results shown in Table 12 indicated that motivation for living a better life after graduation was related to community of upbringing and religion. The subgroup means shown in Table 14 indicated that students who were Christians, including Seventh-day Adventists (combined means of 2.77) perceived living a better life after graduation as a more important motivation for seeking graduate degrees than did those students who were of African religions (mean of 2.20).

Table 14
Subgroup Means of Importance of Living a Better Life after Graduation According to Students' Religion

Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	40	2.80	1.29
Seventh-day Adventist	26	2.73	0.96
African	5	2.20	0.84
TOTALS:	71	2.73	1.15

As shown in Table 15, the subgroup means indicated that students brought up in rural areas (means of 2.85) perceived living a better life after graduation as

more important motivation for seeking graduate degrees as compared to students brought up in small towns (mean of 2.69) or large sized cities (2.19).

Table 15
Subgroup Means of Importance of Living a Better Life after Graduation According to Type of Community in Which Eastern African Graduate Students Were Raised

Community in Which Raised	N	Mean	S.D.
Rural, population under 20,000	46	2.85	1.12
Small town, population up to 40,000	16	2.69	0.95
Large city, population over 60,000	16	2.19	1.33
TOTALS:	78	2.68	1.15

Discover the World

Another motivation related to one of the selected demographic characteristics was to discover the world. Results shown in Table 12 indicated that the motivation of discovering the world was related to location of college. The subgroup means shown in Table 16 indicated that students who attended colleges located in small towns (mean of 2.40) perceived discovering the world as a more important motivation for seeking graduate degrees than those who attended colleges located in either rural areas or large sized cities (combined mean of 2.16).

Table 16
Subgroup Means of Importance of Discovering the World According to Location of College Setting Attended by Eastern African Graduate Students to Pursue Their First Degrees (College Education)

College Location	N	Mean	S.D.
Rural, population under 20,000	14	2.14	1.03
Small town, population up to 40,000	15	2.40	1.30
Large city, population over 60,000	48	2.17	0.91
TOTALS:	77	2.21	1.00

A total of 11 influences on decision for seeking graduate degrees were included in this study. Table 17 shows the actual significant levels of chi-square tests of relationship between these influences and students' demographic characteristics. Six of the influences were found to be related to some of the demographic characteristics.

Funds from Overseas

Results of Table 17 indicated that the influence of the availability of funds from overseas on a student's decision to seek a graduate degree overseas was

Table 17
Actual Significant Levels of Chi-square Tests of Relationship Between Students' Decisions and Demographic Characteristics

Reasons	A	B	C	D	E
Available funds from overseas	.44	.37	.07	.01**	.12
Available funds from institutions of higher learning at home country	.02**	.56	.07	.20	.82
Information given by home school for possibility of studying abroad	.11	.01**	.07	.70	.60
Correspondence with friends overseas	.60	.45	.15	.16	.00***
Encouragement of family members	.30	.01**	.01**	.01**	.17
Recommendations of faculty and staff members in home country	.49	.34	.19	.19	.38
Dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degree	.78	.66	.75	.75	.66
Encouragement of the institution one has served for many years	.92	.15	.14	.14	.25
The feeling of remaining behind from a peer group who went overseas	.77	.25	.31	.31	.15
The existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the homeland	.27	.48	.64	.64	.74
Desire to change jobs	.26	.70	.09	.09	.08

* = .05, ** = .01, *** = .001

KEY: A = significance of community in which raised, B = significance of home school location, C = significance of college location, D = significance of student's religion, E = significance of student's major.

related to that student's religion. The subgroup mean shown in Table 18 indicated that Eastern African students who were non-Seventh-day Adventist Christians (mean of 3.07) were more strongly influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than those students who were of African religions (mean of 2.50) and those who were Seventh-day Adventists (2.00).

Table 18
Subgroup Means of Influence of Availability of Funds According to Students' Religion

Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	41	3.07	1.27
Seventh-day Adventist	25	2.00	1.16
African	6	2.50	1.38
TOTALS:	72	2.65	1.32

Funds from Home Country

Results shown in Table 17 indicated that the influence of availability of funds from institutions of higher learning in the home country on one's decision to seek a graduate degree was related to the type of community in which a student was raised. The subgroup means shown in Table 19 indicated that students raised in small towns (mean of 2.80) were more strongly influenced by the availability of funds from their home country than those students brought up in large sized cities (2.38) or those raised in rural areas (2.07).

Table 19
Subgroup Means of Influence of Availability of Funds from Home Country Institutions of Higher Learning According to Type of Community in Which Eastern African Graduate Students Were Raised

Community in Which Raised	N	Mean	S.D.
Rural, population under 20,000	45	2.07	0.96
Small town, population up to 40,000	15	2.80	1.61
Large city, population over 60,000	16	2.38	1.31
TOTALS:	76	2.28	1.21

Information Given by Home School

Results shown in Table 17 indicated that the influence of information given by home schools for the possibility of studying abroad on one's decision to seek a graduate degree was related to the location of the high school the student attended. The subgroup means shown in Table 20 indicated that students who attended high schools located in small towns (mean of 3.00) were more strongly influenced by the information given by their schools on the possibility of studying abroad than were those students who attended high schools located in rural areas (mean of 2.5) or in large cities (1.89).

Table 20
Subgroup Means of Influence of Information Given by Home School for Possibility of Studying Abroad According to the Location of the High Schools Students Attended

Location of High School	N	Mean	S.D.
Rural, population under 20,000	33	2.55	1.00
Small town, population up to 40,000	27	3.00	0.68
Large city, population over 60,000	18	1.89	0.96
TOTALS:	78	2.55	0.98

Correspondence with Friends Overseas

The results shown in Table 17 indicated that the influences of correspondence with friends overseas on students' decisions to seek graduate degrees was related to the students' major fields of study. The subgroup means shown in Table 21 indicated that those who studied religion as a major (mean of 3.71) were strongly influenced in their decisions to seek graduate degrees by correspondence with friends overseas. Those students who studied education as a major (mean of 3.17) were next in terms of the strength of this influence. Students who studied business, social science, or natural science as majors were less strongly influenced by correspondence with friends overseas (means of 2.86, 2.62, and 2.36, respectively).

Table 21
Subgroup Means of Influence of Correspondence with Friends Overseas According to Major Field of Study

Major Field of Study	N	Mean	S.D.
Education	18	3.17	1.10
Religion	7	3.71	1.50
Natural Science	31	2.36	0.80
Social Science	13	2.62	1.04
Business	7	2.86	1.22
TOTALS:	76	2.76	1.02

Encouragement of Family Members

The results shown in Table 17 indicated that the influence of encouragement from family members was related to the location of the high school and college students attended and their religions (those of the students,

their mothers, and their fathers). Results shown in Table 22 indicated that students who attended high schools located in rural areas (mean of 2.94) perceived that encouragement of family members was a more important influence in pursuing their graduate degrees than did those students who attended high school in small towns (mean of 2.56) or large cities (2.53).

As shown in Table 23, subgroup means indicated that students who attended college in rural areas (mean of 3.29) perceived that encouragement of family members was a more important influence in seeking their graduate degrees than did students who attended college in small towns (2.85) or large cities (2.47).

Table 22
Subgroup Means of Motivation of Encouragement of Family Members According to the Location of the High Schools Students Attended

Location of High School	N	Mean	S.D.
Rural, population under 20,000	33	2.94	1.54
Small town, population up to 40,000	27	2.56	1.01
Large city, population over 60,000	17	2.53	1.23
TOTALS:	77	2.71	1.31

Table 23
Subgroup Means of Influence of Encouragement of Family Members According to Location of College Setting Attended by Eastern African Graduate Students to Pursue Their First Degrees (College Education)

College Location	N	Mean	S.D.
Rural, population under 20,000	17	3.29	1.57
Small town, population up to 40,000	13	2.85	1.57
Large city, population over 60,000	47	2.47	1.06
TOTALS:	77	2.71	1.31

The subgroup means shown in Table 24 indicated that students who were Seventh-day Adventists (mean of 3.27) perceived the influence of encouragement from family members as more important in influencing their decisions for seeking graduate degrees than did those students who were Christians (2.49) or of African religions (2.00).

Table 24
Subgroup Means of Influence of Encouragement from Family Members According to Students' Religions

Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	39	2.49	1.17
Seventh-day Adventist	26	3.27	1.43
African	5	2.00	1.22
TOTALS:	70	2.74	1.33

Motivations and Demographic Characteristics of Parents

The relationship between reasons for seeking graduate degrees and parents' religions, education, occupations, and incomes was examined by using chi-square tests. The results are shown in Table 25. The results indicated that greater service to home country, creating professional networks, and acquiring more marketable knowledge for future careers were related to parents' demographic characteristics.

Greater Service to Home Country

As shown in Table 25, motivation in developing one's potential contribution for greater service to home country was related to mother's religion. As shown in Table 26, subgroup means indicated that students whose mothers were Seventh-day Adventists (mean of 4.24) expressed higher motivation in developing

Table 25
Actual Significant Levels of Chi-square Tests of Relationships Between Motivations and Demographic Characteristics of Eastern African Graduate Students' Parents

Reason	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
To obtain advanced training not available in homelands	.32	.18	.08	.18	.37	.92	.08
To obtain an advanced degree from overseas	.58	.78	.38	.73	.85	.18	.36
To take advantage of available opportunities	.31	.26	.50	.94	1.00	.28	.30
To fulfill serious commitments to lifestyle and career	.29	.14	.32	.47	.75	.13	.39
To develop one's potential contribution for greater service to country	.01**	.12	.53	.73	.10	.68	.17
To develop one's chosen career to secure a better position	.23	.67	.74	.37	.59	.34	.66
To create networks with professionals in other countries	.12	.01**	.18	.63	.84	.50	.46
To overcome unfavorable conditions in the homeland	.53	.84	.58	.49	.61	.37	.61
To get training that reflects needs of African countries	.28	.12	.12	.87	.60	.17	.57
To get training that gets bread and butter for the family	.50	.24	.58	.45	.85	.30	.89
To live a better life after graduation	.21	.25	.79	.38	.36	.41	.86
To acquire more marketable knowledge for future career	.31	.21	.82	.05*	.46	.38	.71
To discover the world	.41	.25	.82	.72	.92	.72	.95

KEY: A = mother's religion, B = father's religion, C = mother's education, D = father's education, E = mother's occupation, F = Father's occupation, G = parents' income; * = .05, ** = .01, *** = .001

one's potential contribution for greater service to country than did students whose mothers belonged to other Christian religions (mean of 3.93) and those whose mothers claimed African religions (3.00).

Table 26
Subgroup Means of Importance of Developing One's Potential Contributions for Greater Service to Home Country According to Mothers' Religions

Mother's Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	43	3.93	0.99
Seventh-day Adventist	25	4.24	0.89
African	5	3.00	2.00
TOTAL:	73	3.97	1.07

Creating Professional Networks

The results shown in Table 25 indicated that motivation in creating networks with professional in other countries was related to fathers' religions. The results shown in Table 27 indicated that the importance of creating networks with professionals in other countries was a very low motivation (mean of 1.78) for seeking graduate degrees. However, the degrees of importance of this motivation differed according to fathers' religions. Subgroup means indicated that those students whose fathers were Christians and Seventh-day Adventists (means of 2.78 and 2.71, respectively) were somewhat motivated by the possibility of creating professional networks, as opposed to those students whose fathers were of African religions (1.78).

Table 27
Subgroup Means of Importance of Creating Networks with Professionals in Other Countries According to Fathers' Religions

Father's Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	40	2.78	1.03
Seventh-day Adventist	21	2.71	0.64
African	9	1.78	1.09
TOTAL:	70	2.63	0.98

Acquiring Marketable Knowledge

Results shown in Table 25 indicated that acquiring more marketable knowledge for future careers was related to fathers' education. Results shown in Table 28 indicated that students whose fathers completed high school education (mean of 3.50) or elementary school education (3.35) were more strongly motivated by acquiring marketable knowledge for seeking graduate degrees than those students whose fathers had no formal education (mean of 3.26), who completed college education (3.20), junior high school (3.10), or junior college (3.00).

Table 28
Subgroup Means of Importance of Acquiring More Marketable Knowledge for Future Careers According to Fathers' Education

Father's Education	N	Mean	S.D.
No formal education	27	3.26	1.48
Elementary education	23	3.35	1.11
Junior high school	10	3.10	0.57
High school	4	3.50	1.29
Junior college	9	3.00	1.73
College and above	5	3.20	0.45
TOTAL:	78	3.24	1.24

The results of chi-square tests of relationship between importance of influences and parents' religions, education, occupations, and incomes are shown in Table 29. These results indicated that the availability of funds from overseas and local institutions, encouragement of family members, and the existing plan for training national leaders in homelands were related to parents' background characteristics.

Funds from Overseas

Results shown in Table 29 indicated that the influence of availability of funds from overseas was related to mothers' religions and education and to fathers' religions, education, and occupations. The relationship between the influence of availability of funds from overseas and fathers' religions was different from that of students' and mothers' religions. Subgroup means shown in Table 30 indicated that students whose mothers were Christians were more strongly influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than those students whose mothers were Seventh-day Adventists or of African religions.

Table 29
Actual Significant Levels of Chi-square Tests of Relationships Between Motivations and Demographic Characteristics of Eastern African Graduate Students' Parents

Reason	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Available funds from overseas	.02**	.01**	.03*	.05*	.12	.02**	.91
Available funds from institutions of higher learning in the home country	.34	.23	.03*	.38	.04*	.48	.54
Information given by home school for possibility of studying abroad	.58	.87	.22	.26	.46	.70	.27
Correspondence with friends overseas	.66	.28	.50	.17	.35	.39	.27
Encouragement of family members	.02**	.00***	.05*	.12	.37	.68	.32
Recommendation of faculty and staff members in home country	.08	.23	.23	.60	.60	.06	.31
Dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degree	.71	.66	.17	.22	.81	.98	.30
Encouragement of institution served for years	.11	.28	.95	.44	.57	.99	.60
Feeling of remaining behind from peer group	.55	.66	.21	.34	.19	.21	.53
Existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for African at universities in homeland	.02**	.10	.23	.37	.52	.56	.58
Desire to change job	.98	.35	.44	.97	.48	.65	.45

KEY: A = mother's religion, B = father's religion, C = mother's education, D = father's education, E = mother's occupation, F = Father's occupation, G = parents' income; * = .05, ** = .01, *** = .001

Table 30
Subgroup Means of Influence of Availability of Funds from Overseas According to Mothers' Religions

Mother's Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	43	3.00	1.25
Seventh-day Adventist	24	2.00	1.14
African	6	2.50	1.38
TOTAL:	73	2.63	1.30

Table 31 indicates that students whose fathers were non-Seventh-day Adventist Christians (mean of 3.08) were more strongly influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than those students whose fathers were either Seventh-day Adventists or members of African religions (combined mean of 1.99).

Subgroup means shown in Table 32 indicated that students whose mothers had elementary educations (mean of 3.36) were more strongly influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than those students whose mothers had junior high (3.00), high school (2.67), or no formal (2.24) education, with the last category being the least influenced.

Table 31
Subgroup Means of Influence of Availability of Funds from Overseas According to Fathers' Religions

Father's Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	39	3.08	1.24
Seventh-day Adventist	21	1.95	1.07
African	10	2.00	1.25
TOTAL:	70	2.59	1.30

Table 32
Subgroup Means of Influence of Availability of Funds from Overseas According to Mothers' Education

Mother's Education	N	Mean	S.D.
No formal education	42	2.24	1.25
Elementary education	25	3.36	1.25
Junior high school	5	3.00	1.22
High school	6	2.67	1.03
TOTAL:	78	2.68	1.31

Subgroup means shown in Table 33 indicated that students whose fathers had junior college educations (mean of 4.00) were most strongly influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than were those students whose fathers' education was at junior high (mean of 2.91) or elementary (2.65) levels. Students whose fathers had high school educations (1.00) were less influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than those whose fathers had college and above (2.40) or no formal (2.41) education.

Table 33
Subgroup Means of Importance of Availability of Funds from Overseas According to Fathers' Education

Father's Education	N	Mean	S.D.
No formal education	27	2.41	1.34
Elementary education	23	2.65	1.23
Junior high school	11	2.91	1.14
High school	3	1.00	0.00
Junior college	9	4.00	1.12
College and above	5	2.40	0.89
TOTAL:	78	2.68	1.31

Subgroup means shown in Table 34 indicated that students whose fathers were employed by organizations (mean of 2.74) and peasant farmers (2.69) were somewhat influenced by the availability of funds from overseas, as compared to those students whose fathers were self employed (2.55).

Table 34
Subgroup Means of Importance of Availability of Funds from Overseas According to Fathers' Occupations

Father's Occupation	N	Mean	S.D.
Employed by organization	28	2.74	1.30
Self employed	31	2.55	1.18
Peasant farmer	16	2.69	1.62
TOTAL	75	2.64	1.31

Funds from Home Country

Results shown in Table 29 indicated that the influence of availability of funds from institutions of higher learning in the home country was related to mothers' education and occupations. Subgroup means in Table 35 indicated that students whose mothers had completed high school (mean of 2.83) and junior high school (2.60) were more influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than were those students whose mothers had completed elementary (2.32) or no formal (2.13) education.

Table 35
Subgroup Means of Importance of Availability of Funds from Home Country According to Mothers' Education

Mother's Education	N	Mean	S.D.
No formal education	40	2.13	1.18
Elementary education	25	2.32	1.18
Junior high school	5	2.60	1.34
High school	6	2.83	1.47
TOTAL:	76	2.28	1.21

Subgroup means in Table 36 indicated that students whose mothers were employed by organizations (mean of 2.70) were more strongly influenced by availability of funds from their home countries than those students whose mothers were self-employed (2.75) and housewives (2.03). Those whose mothers were housewives were less encouraged than those whose mothers were self-employed.

Table 36
Subgroup Means of Importance of Availability of Funds from Home Country According to Mothers' Occupations

Mother's Occupation	N	Mean	S.D.
Employed by organization	10	2.70	1.42
Self employed	31	2.28	0.92
Housewife	34	2.03	1.29
TOTAL	73	1.40	1.18

Encouragement from Family Members

Results shown in Table 29 indicated that the influence of family members was related to mothers' religions and education and to fathers' religions. Subgroups means shown in Table 37 indicated that those students whose mothers were Seventh-day Adventists (mean of 3.36) perceived that the influence of encouragement from family members was very important, as compared to those students whose mothers' religions were Christian (2.49) or African (2.40).

Table 37
Subgroup Means of Influence of Encouragement from Family Members According to Mothers' Religions

Mother's Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	41	2.49	1.10
Seventh-day Adventist	25	3.36	1.44
African	5	2.40	1.52
TOTAL:	71	2.79	1.31

Subgroup means shown in Table 38 indicated that encouragement from family members influencing decisions to seek graduate degrees was higher for students whose fathers were Seventh-day Adventists (mean of 3.59) than for those whose fathers were Christian (2.41) or of African religions (2.77).

Table 38
Subgroup Means of Influence of Encouragement from Family Members According to Fathers' Religions

Father's Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	37	2.41	1.07
Seventh-day Adventist	22	3.59	1.44
African	9	2.22	1.20
TOTAL:	68	2.77	1.33

Existing Plan for Training Indigenous National Leaders

Results shown in Table 29 indicated that the influence of existing plans for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the home country was related to mothers' religious affiliations. Subgroup means shown in Table 39 show that students whose mothers' religions were African (mean of

3.80) perceived the influence of an existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the homeland as very important in influencing their decisions to seek higher education, as compared to those students whose mothers' religions were Seventh-day Adventist (mean of 2.91) or Christian (2.71).

Table 39
Subgroup Means of Influence of an Existing Plan for Training Indigenous National Leaders for African at Universities in the Homeland According to Mothers' Religions

Mother's Religion	N	Mean	S.D.
Christian	41	2.71	1.12
Seventh-day Adventist	23	2.91	1.44
African	5	3.80	0.84
TOTAL:	69	2.86	1.14

Parents' Attitudes Toward Daughters' Education

Two items were included in the questionnaire in order to determine Eastern African graduate students' perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward motivating their daughters toward higher education. The items were as follows.

1. Suppose your parents have two daughters and two sons with similar qualifications and can only send two of them to school. Which two of them would your parents send overseas?

2. If you parents can only pay school fees for one child overseas, will they readily pay for the first child?

Responses to these two items related to gender of students were reported in Tables 40 and 41.

Chi-square tests indicated that there were no significant differences in patterns of responses between female and male students regarding their parents' attitudes toward daughters and sons' higher education overseas. The greatest

proportion of both female (83.3%) and male (43.4%) students perceived that their parents would send their two oldest children, irrespective of gender, for higher education overseas. Assuming that it is equally likely that the first child would be a female or male, parents would send more sons (67.3%) than daughters (32.7%) for higher education overseas.

Table 40
Students' Perceptions of Parents' Attitudes Toward Sons and Daughters' Education (Item 1), According to Students' Gender

	Female		Male		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
Send two girls	0	0.0	1	1.5	1	1.4
Send two boys	1	16.7	25	37.9	26	36.1
Send one boy and one girl	0	0.0	12	18.2	12	16.7
Send two oldest	5	83.3	28	42.4	33	45.8
TOTAL:	6	8.3	66	91.7	72	100.0

$X^2 = 3.88$, degree of freedom = 3, significance = .28

Table 41 shows the perceptions of female and male students of their parents' attitudes if they were only to send one child for higher education overseas. Chi-square tests indicated that there were no significant differences in perceptions according to students' gender.

Table 41
Students' Perceptions of Parents' Attitudes Toward Sons and Daughters' Education (Item 2), According to Students' Gender

	Female		Male		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
Send a boy	0	0.0	7	12.1	39	61.9
Send a girl	3	60.0	36	62.1	7	11.1
Send either	2	40.0	15	25.9	17	27.0
TOTAL:	5	7.9	58	92.1	83	100.0

$X^2 = 0.95$, degree of freedom = 2, significance = 0.62

Again, perceptions of parents' attitudes indicated that greater numbers of parents would send their sons for higher education overseas (75.4%) rather than their daughters (24.6%). The two results indicated that parents were less in favor of sending their daughters overseas for higher education.

Summary

This chapter has presented research questions, null hypotheses, methods of statistical analysis, and results. Results reported were related to the identification and extent of academic motives; the relationship between Eastern African students' demographic characteristics and motivation, influences, and career aspirations; and Eastern African students' perceptions of parents' attitudes toward motivating their daughters for higher education overseas. The next chapter presents the summary of this research, conclusions, and recommendations.

Comments from Open-Ended Questions

Eastern African graduate students were asked to comment on (a) what encourages African graduate students to pursue graduate degrees overseas, and

(b) what discourages African graduate students to continue graduate degrees overseas. The responses to the two questions follow.

Those items that encouraged African graudate students to pursue overseas degrees were:

1. finance:

   --availability of funds, scholarships, private sponsorships, graduate assistantships, and available work opportunities

   --better facilities, technological advancement, specialization in graduate studies programs, variety of career program choices, reputable libraries and universities, qualified faculty and staff in various fields, and better training in less time duration

   --chance for better jobs after completion of graduate degrees overseas

   --easy accessability of university entrance procedures academically (not financially) from home countries

   --stable university programs

2. career:

   --better qualifications and better achievement in the field of study, expectation of better employment after graduation, scholastic venture, and achievement of expected goal in life

   --commitment and dedication in pursuing lifelong dreams, to make contributions effectively as a result of training at higher level

   --desire for productive and useful knowledge and interest in academic achievement and to learn advanced skills related to career specialization

   --exposure to outside world, curiosity about outside life; expectation of higher salary, life style, higher position, greater prestige that overseas degrees confer; and to achieve international recognition for employment with international organizations

3. inavailability:

   --lack of incentives from institutions back home for higher education

   unstable university programs in developing countries

--scarcity of quality education and facilities at higher levels back home

--political instability in African countries spur educated African students to seek higher education elsewhere abroad

Those items that discouraged Eastern African students from seeking graduate degrees overseas were:

1. expense:

--high cost of education, of living standards; inability to get grants expensive to support family while at school

--financial deposit requirements to obtain I-20 forms

--"the cost of education is so high that I wonder if what a person pays to educate himself can ever be earned back after one completes his/her studies"

--"as for me, it was poverty; but I told poverty not to stand in my way

2. family:

--extended family responsibilities and commitment, responsibility of married life (difficult to stay home with children and no time for family, either)

--family ties, especially for women from developing countries; separation from family members for a long period of time

--family size: mobility becomes almost impossible for some family members--some are forced to leave some family members at home (some students have to prove they have enough money to sustain their families while abroad, and the majority of them are poor while sponsorship is rare for both husband and wife at a time)

3. curriculum

--a few students commented on lack of courses that were directly related to the needs of developing countries

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The Purpose

The purpose of this study was to inquire into the motives of Eastern African students for pursuing graduate degrees at Andrews (AU) and Michigan State Universities (MSU). More specifically, the study asked the following questions.

1. What are those self-reported internal and external motivating reasons and influences of Eastern African students for seeking graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities?

2. To what extent do those self-reported motivating reasons and influences of Eastern African students for pursuing graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities occur regardless of the country of origin and selected demographic characteristics?

3. To what extent are selected demographic variables, the community in which the students were raised and schooled, the students' religious affiliations, and their major fields of study related to Eastern African graduate students' motivation for pursuing graduate degrees?

4. To what extent are selected variables of the students' parents' religious affiliations, level of income, occupation, and level of education related to Eastern African graduate students' motivation for seeking graduate degrees?

5. To what extent are Eastern African graduate students' perceptions about their parents' attitudes toward motivating their daughters for higher education overseas reflected?

Population

The population for this study was limited to graduate students from Eastern African countries enrolled as full-time students at Andrews and

Michigan State Universities for the academic year of 1984-85. A total of 83 students (16 from AU, 67 from MSU) responded to the questionnaire. Thirty-six of these were studying for Masters' degrees, and 47 worked toward Ph.D. degrees.

Sampling

The designed instrument, an open-ended questionnaire, was distributed by the researcher to all Eastern African graduate students at AU and MSU during the summer of 1985. This method of distribution was chosen to facilitate a higher response than would be probable if the instrument were mailed to respondents. The sample excluded undergraduates, part-time, and post-graduate students from the region. It was felt that the response from such individuals would contaminate the results of the investigation.

After one week, respondents were contacted by the researcher in person, by telephone, in their homes, and at work to collect the instrument. Of the total of 87 questionnaires distributed, two were returned incomplete, two respondent could not be traced, and 83 usable questionnaires were filled in and collected by the researcher.

Instrument

A total of 119 questions with space for open-ended responses were designed to collect the data. The questionnaire included demographic questions; parents' religious affiliation, education, professional occupations, and levels of income; students' community of up-bringing, schooling, reasons for going overseas to pursue graduate degrees and the influences that affected their decisions to do so, the most important reasons and influences they perceived as motivators, sources of funds, major fields of study, and perceptions regarding their parents' attitudes toward providing equal opportunities for females in the family. At the end of

the instrument, students were asked to list what they thought would encourage/discourage Eastern African students to pursue graduate degrees overseas.

Data Analysis

Responses to the questionnaire were coded and analyzed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were used to obtain the characteristics of the sample and to identify the extent of academic motives of Eastern African graduate students studying at Andrews and Michigan State Universities. Chi-square tests were used to examine the relationship between students' demographic characteristics and the importance of academic motives. Subgroup means were used to indicate differences in the means between subgroups of each demographic characteristics that had significant relationships with academic motives. A five percent level of significance was used in all chi-square tests.

Sample Characteristics

Sixteen graduate students from AU and 67 from MSU (a total of 83), all from Eastern African countries, responded to the questionnaire. Of these 83, 9 were female and 73 were male. One student did not specify gender. Thirty-six students were single, and 44 were married, with three not specifying their marital status. Seven countries were represented in the sample: 25 from Ethiopia, 19 from Kenya, 9 from Malawi, 9 from Tanzania, 4 from Uganda, 4 from Zambia, and 12 from Zimbabwe (one student did not identify country of origin). Subjects' ages ranged from 22 to 45, with the majority falling between 26 and 31. The majority identified themselves as Christian, with a very few claiming African religions and Islam.

Findings

This section presents the findings of this research based on the results of data analysis presented in Chapter IV. Findings will be presented according to each research question.

Research Question One

The majority of Eastern African graduate students at Andrews and Michigan State Universities indicated that there were two major motivators for students to seek graduate degrees in the United States: (a) to develop one's potential contribution for greater service to country, and (b) to get advanced training not available in the homeland. There were also three minor motivators: (a) to take advantage of available opportunities, (b) to acquire more marketable knowledge for a future career, and (c) to create networks with professionals in other countries.

As for influences, the availability of funds from overseas became the major factor which influenced Eastern African students to seek graduate degrees in the United States. There were five minor factors which influenced their decisions: (a) the existing plan for training indigenous national leaders at homeland universities, (b) dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degrees, (c) correspondence with friends overseas, (d) encouragement of family members, and (e) recommendations of faculty and staff members in the home country.

Other factors included in this study were not important in motivating or influencing Eastern African graduate students to seek graduate degrees in the United States.

Research Question Two

Results suggest that Eastern African students were motivated and influenced to seek graduate degrees in the United States by several reasons and

influences. Two major reasons were rated as very important: (a) to get advanced training not available in the homeland, and (b) to develop one's potential contribution for greater service to country. Seven motivators were rated as important: (a) to acquire more marketable knowledge for future careers, (b) to get training that reflects the needs of African countries, (c) to develop one's chosen career to secure better positions, (d) to take advantage of available opportunities, (e) to create networks with professionals in other countries, (f) to live a better life after graduation, and (g) to fulfill serious commitments to one's lifestyle and career. The remaining motivators were rated as somewhat important: (a) to get training that gets bread and butter for the family, (b) to overcome unfavorable conditions in the homeland, (c) to get advanced degrees from overseas, and (d) to discover the world.

As for ratings of influence for seeking graduate degrees in the United States, Eastern African graduate students agreed that the following were major and minor influences: (a) recommendations of faculty and staff members in the home country, (b) the existing plan for training indigenous national leaders at the university in the homeland, (c) correspondence with friends overseas, (d) dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degrees, (e) encouragement from family members, (f) availability of funds from overseas, (g) information given by home schools for the possibility of studying abroad, (h) a feeling of remaining behind from peer groups overseas, and (i) encouragement from the institution one has served for years. However, respondents disagreed on two factors as being major or minor influences on their decisions: (a) desire to change jobs and (b) availability of funds from institutions of higher learning in the home country.

When comparing the importance of internal and external motivators, Eastern African graduate students rated internal motivators as more important than external motivators.

Research Question Three

This question examined the extent to which five selected demographic characteristics--community in which students were raised, location of their high schools, location of their colleges, their religious affiliations, and their major fields of study--related to Eastern African graduate students' academic aspirations.

Community in Which Raised

The importance of living a better life after graduation and the influence of available funds from institutions of higher learning in one's home country were related to the communities in which respondents were raised. Students brought up in rural areas or small towns had higher aspirations for living better lives after graduation than those brought up in large cities. Students raised in small towns were more influenced by available funds from their home country institutions of higher learning in their decisions to seek graduate degrees in the United States than were those students brought up in large cities or rural areas.

High School Location

The influences of information given by one's home school for the possibility of studying abroad and encouragement from family members were related to the location of respondents' high schools. Students whose high schools were located in small towns were more influenced by the information given by their home schools for the possibility of studying abroad than were students whose high schools were located in rural areas. Students whose high schools were located in large cities were least influenced by home school information. Also, students whose high schools were located in rural areas were more influenced by the encouragement of family members than were those whose high schools were located in small towns or large cities.

College Location

The importance of discovering the world and the influence of encouragement from family members were related to the location of respondents' colleges. Students whose colleges were located in small towns had higher aspirations for discovering the world than those whose colleges were located in either rural areas or large cities, and they were also more influenced by encouragement from their family members.

Students' Religions

The importance of developing one's potential contribution for greater service to country, the importance of living a better life after graduation, and the influences of availability of funds from overseas and encouragement from family members were related to students' religion. Those whose religions were Christian (including Seventh-day Adventist) showed higher aspirations for developing their potential contributions for greater service to their countries and for living better lives after graduation than did students of African religions.

Students who were non-Seventh-day Adventist Christians were more influenced by the availability of funds from overseas than were students of African religions, but they were least influenced by the availability of funds from overseas. Students who were Seventh-day Adventists were more influenced by encouragement from family members in their decisions to seek graduate degrees in the United States than were other Christian students or those from African religions.

Major Area of Study

Correspondence with friends overseas was related to students' major areas of study. Those who were studying religion were most highly influenced in their decisions to seek graduate degrees in the United States by correspondence with

friends overseas, followed, in order, by those majoring in education, business, social science, and natural science.

Research Question Four

To investigate the extent to which selected variables related to Eastern African graduate students' academic motivation (aspirations), their parents' religious affiliations, levels of education, occupations, and income were examined.

Parents' Religious Affiliation

The importance of motivation and influences of developing one's potential contribution for greater service to home country, creating networks with professionals in other countries, availability of funds from overseas, encouragement of family members, and existing plans for training national leaders were related to parents' religious affiliation.

Students whose mothers were Christians, including Seventh-day Adventists, had higher aspirations for developing one's potential contribution for greater service to home country than did those students whose mothers were of African religions. Students whose fathers were Christians, including Seventh-day Adventists, had higher aspirations for creating networks with professionals in other countries than did those students whose fathers were of African religions.

It was found that students whose parents were Christians were more influenced in their decisions to pursue graduate degrees in the United States by the availability of funds from overseas than were those students whose parents were Seventh-day Adventists or of African religions. Students whose parents were Seventh-day Adventists were more influenced by encouragement from family members than were students whose parents were of other Christian or African religions. Finally, students whose mothers were of African religions

were greatly influenced by existing plans for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the home country than were those students whose parents were Christians, including Seventh-day Adventists.

Parents' Education

The importance of motivation and influences in acquiring more marketable knowledge for future careers and availability of funds from overseas and from institutions of higher learning in the home countries were related to parents' education. Students whose fathers had completed high school were more strongly motivated by the acquisition of more marketable knowledge for their future careers than were other students. Those whose mothers had completed elementary school or whose fathers had completed junior college were more strongly influenced by availability of funds from overseas than other students. Students whose mothers had completed high school were more influenced by availability of funds from institutions of higher learning in their home countries than other students.

Parents' Occupations and Incomes

Influences of funds from overseas and from institutions of higher learning in the home country were related to parents' occupations, while parents' incomes was not related to any motivators or influences. Students whose parents were employed by organizations were found to be more influenced by the availability of funds both from overseas and from institutions of higher learning in the home country, compared to students whose parents were self employed or peasant farmers.

Research Question Five

In order to determine Eastern African graduate students' perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward motivating their daughters for higher education overseas, possible relationships between students' genders and the perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward the education of their daughters were first examined. Results indicated that there was no relationship between the pattern of perceptions and the gender of the students. Based on the assumption that first-borns are equally likely to be boys or girls and that "either a boy or a girl" was equally likely to be a boy or a girl, it can then be concluded that 75% of Eastern African parents were in favor of sending their sons overseas for higher education rather than their daughters.

Conclusions

Conclusions based on the findings of the present inquiry can only be stated as tentative. With the limitations of the study in mind, the following conclusions seem appropriate.

The present study revealed that there were 10 relatively important internal motivators (drives) which motivated Eastern African students to seek graduate degrees in the United States: (a) to get advanced training not available in the homeland, (b) to develop one's potential contribution for greater service to country, (c) to acquire more marketable knowledge for future careers, (d) to obtain training that reflects the needs of African countries, (e) to develop one's chosen career to secure a better position, (f) to live a better life after graduation, (g) dissatisfaction with low pay without a graduate degree, (h) to create networks with professionals in other countries, (i) the feeling of remaining behind from a peer group that went overseas, and (k) to fulfill a serious commitment to one's lifestyle and career.

The choice of internal motivators is consistent with the theory posited by expectancy researchers (Vroon, 1964; Lawler, 1951) that individuals seek to maximize valued outcomes determined by the reward system of an organization as well as a person's capability in achieving high performance. The results of the present study also support the goal setting theory (Locke, 1976) that argues that intention to work toward a goal-directed behavior is the primary motivating force of work behavior and effort on a task.

Specific internal motivators found in this study were also consistent with findings from other studies: (a) advanced training not available in the homeland (Hall, 1978; Hans, 1975; Singh, 1976), (b) ambition for distinction and promotion (Rashland, 1936; Metraut, 1952), better employment opportunities after graduate degree is earned (Wandria, 1977; Bardouille, 1981; Andor, 1983), desire for personal advancement (Cieslak, 1955), limited choice of education at a higher level in the homeland (Marshland, 1967), and national development objectives (Bardouille, 1981). An earlier study done by Donkor (1982) indicated that degrees or certificates earned in Europe or American were and still are regarded as more prestigious than those acquired locally. However, the findings revealed by the present study did not support this claim.

The present study revealed that there were eight relatively important external motivators (drives) that motivate Eastern African students to seek graduate degrees in the United States: (a) recommendations of faculty and staff members in the home country, (b) existing plans for training indigenous national leaders at universities in the homeland, (c) taking advantage of available opportunities, (d) correspondence with friends overseas, (e) encouragement of family members, (f) availability of funds from overseas, (g) information given by home schools for the possibility of studying abroad, and (i) encouragement from institution one has served for years.

Specific external motivators found in the present investigation were consistent with findings of earlier studies concerning (a) encouragement from parents (Spenner & Featherman, 1978) and (b) foreign scholarships or incentives (Marshland, 1977; Atkinson, 1970; Biggs, 1982). The present inquiry also revealed that Eastern African graduate students indicated that internal motivators had greater influence than external motivators on their decisions to seek graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities. Since internal motivators are related to inner drives, the results of this study confirm the argument of need theorists (Porter, 1961; Locke, 1976) that knowledge of the need state of an individual is essential to behavioral predictions since much human motivation comes from inner drives that augment and define the value of external pleasures and pain.

Specific Conclusions

1. Eastern African students who were Seventh-day Adventists or whose high schools or colleges were located in small towns indicated, more than did other groups, that they were encouraged and influenced by family members in making their decisions to seek graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities.

2. Eastern African students brought up in small towns or whose mothers had completed high school or whose parents were employed by organizations indicated they were influenced by the availability of funds from institutions of higher learning in their home countries.

3. Eastern African graduate students who were Christians (other than Seventh-day Adventists) or were employed by organizations indicated they were influenced by the availability of funds from overseas.

4. Eastern African graduate students who majored in religion, education, or business were influenced by correspondence with friends overseas.

5. Eastern African students who were Christians, including Seventh-day Adventists, were influenced by the motivation of developing their potential in order to give better service to their home countries.

6. Eastern African students whose fathers completed high school were motivated by more marketable knowledge.

7. Eastern African graduate students whose fathers were Christians, including Seventh-day Adventists, were motivated by the creation of networks with professionals from other countries.

8. Eastern African graduate students brought up in rural areas were motivated by living better lives after graduation, and those whose colleges were located in small towns were motivated by the intention of discovering the world.

9. The study also revealed that Eastern African students perceived their parents' attitudes toward the education of the daughters overseas as negative, compared to that of their sons.

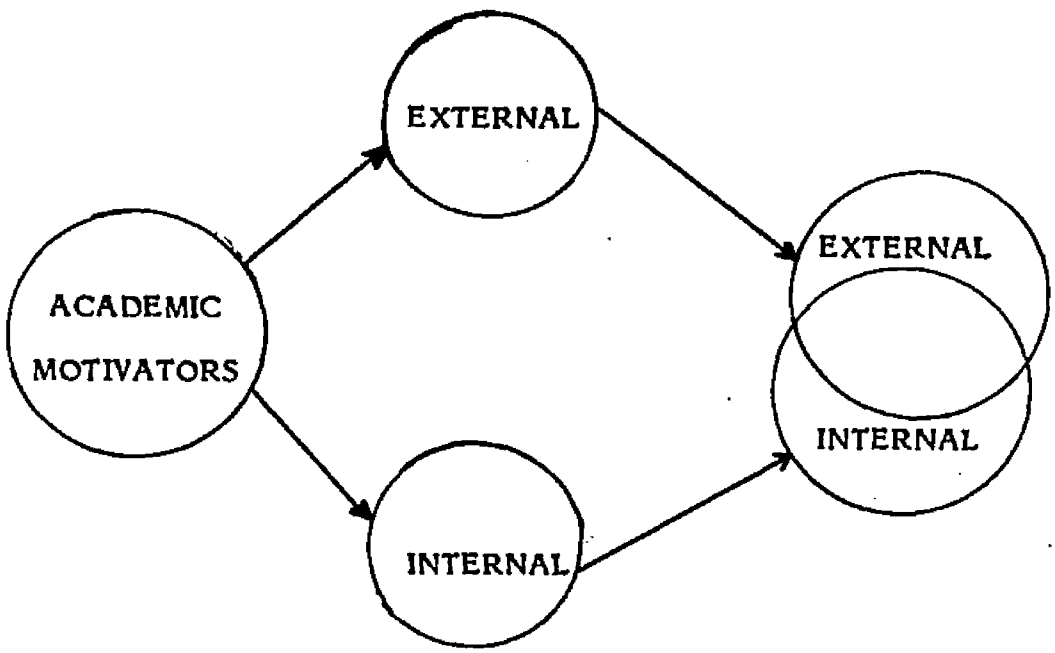
Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations for program implementations and further research are suggested.

1. This study revealed that although 83% of Eastern African graduate students' parents' annual income was less than $10,000 per year, encouragement of family members, friends, and employers seem to influence students' decisions to seek graduate degrees. Encouragement of institutions of higher learning in Eastern African countries--morally, financially, and otherwise--should get more attention in order that those students will be continuously motivated in their academic pursuits abroad. Information centers should be established at institutions of higher learning or in school districts to provide guidelines needed by graduate students in their decisions for graduate work overseas.

2. The findings of this study indicated that Eastern African graduate students were willing to acquire appropriate knowledge and skills to serve their home countries. Andrews and Michigan State Universities' curricula and program planners should keep in mind the kind of skills and training Eastern African graduate students need that are directly related to the needs of developing countries. Home governments and institutions of higher learning in Eastern Africa should have properly trained personnel who are experts in facilitating students' motives for higher education by providing appropriate counseling related to kinds of training needed for countries' development, choice of universities, sources of funds available overseas or at home, and continuing communication while students are overseas to keep them apprised of current developments, problems, and needs and to encourage them in any way possible until they complete their overseas' training programs.

3. This study indicated that Eastern African graduate students were influenced by both internal and external drives in their decisions to seek graduate degrees at Andrews and Michigan State Universities. However, it is difficult to be explicit about internal and external motives of graduate students who go overseas to seek graduate degrees. For instance, a person whose motive for seeking a graduate degree was to prepare him/herself for better service will, no doubt, get a better position, higher salary, prestige, and promotion, which are all external rewards. The literature review indicated that internal motivations are more effective than external ones.



Suggestions for future research are presented as follows.

1. Further study should be carried out by using samples obtained from other universities (private and non-private) so that the results of the present study can be confirmed or disconfirmed by using larger and more representative samples from developing countries.

2. A study over a long period of time is required to inquire what will happen to student motives over a period of time while in graduate schools overseas or after graduate students have achieved their perceived motives.

3. Further study is required to determine the "true" attitude and reasons of parents of Eastern African graduate students regarding their daughters' education in home countries and overseas. What motivates daughters of Eastern African students and what does not motivate them (culture, customs, etc.)? Why do we have so many male and so few females in graduate schools overseas? The findings of further studies will help to improve programs for Eastern African graduate students, in particular, and African students, in general.

4. Finally, a study needs to be done that examines the whole question of who makes the decision for a student to pursue a field of study abroad. For whose benefit will the study be? And under what circumstances will students complete their studies overseas?

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE WITH DR. BARDOUILLE, COORDINATOR, MANPOWER RESEARCH UNIT, UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
ERICKSON HALL

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1034

Feb. 22, 1985

Dr. Raj Bardouille
Coordinator
Manpower Research Unit
University of Zambia
P.O.Box 32379
Lusaka

Dear Dr. Bardouille:

I am a student from Ethiopia studying at Michigan State University in the Department of Higer Education Administration. Currently I am in the process of designing a proposal for my doctoral dissertation on Academic Motives of Eastern African Graduate Students in selected American Universities.

In my search for related documents related to African students achievement motives I came across of two sources. One is Amalah's (1974) Academic Achievement Motives of Fifth Grade on Nigerian High School Students. The second, which is the most significant contribution to the understanding of African students' higher education motives so far, is your study on University of Zambia Students' Career Expectations. Unfortunately, your dissertation is not available here in the United States, and I only read the Working Document Manpower Research Report of it.

Is there a possibility of securing a copy of your dissertation? I will be more than happy to pay the cost. At the same time I kindly request your permission to use the instrument you used for your questionnaire. I would be greatful if you let me know at your convenience.

I am willing to share with you my findings when I am done if you are interested. Thanking you in advance for your cooperation, I remain awaiting your reply.

With kindest regards,

Kebede Daka
1647 K Spartan Village
East Lansing, Michigan 48823

APPENDIX B

CORRESPONDENCE FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

LUSAKA CAMPUS

P.O. Box 32379,
LUSAKA. ZAMBIA.
Telephone: 219624
Telegrams: UNZA LUSAKA.
TELEX: ZA 44370

Our. Reference:

12th March, 1985.

Mr. Kebede Daka
1647K Spartan Village
East Lansing
Michigan 48823
U.S.A.

Dear Mr. Daka,

Thank you for your letter of 22nd February, 1985 inquiring about relevant reading material on academic motivation of African graduate students.

My work you referred to is not part of any graduate work. I am afraid, I do not have anything more regarding thus except my report you already have. You may consult J. Barkan's (1975) book on An African Dilemma. This study analyses career expectations of graduates from Ghana, Uganda and Tanzania.

I am sorry, I am not of much help to you. Little research in this area on African graduates has been done. I am sure, your research will add to the scanty material in this area.

Wish you good luck in your research. I will be happy to comment on your questionnaire design if you want me to do so.

Best wishes.

Yours sincerely,

R. Bardouille

R. Bardouille,

APPENDIX C

LETTER GRANTING APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON HUMAN SUBJECTS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH INVOLVING
HUMAN SUBJECTS (UCRIHS)
238 ADMINISTRATION BUILDING
(517) 355-2186

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824

June 6, 1985

Mr. Kebede Daka
1647 K Spartan Village
East Lansing, Michigan 48823

Dear Mr. Daka:

Subject: Proposal Entitled, "Academic Motives of Eastern African Graduate Students at Andrews and Michigan State Universities"

I am pleased to advise that I concur with your evaluation that this project is exempt from full UCRIHS review, and approval is herewith granted for conduct of the project.

You are reminded that UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year. If you plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval prior to June 6, 1986.

Any changes in procedures involving human subjects must be reviewed by the UCRIHS prior to initiation of the change. UCRIHS must also be notified promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

Thank you for bringing this project to my attention. If I can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to let me know.

Sincerely,

Henry E. Bredeck
Chairman, UCRIHS

HEB/jms

cc: Dr. Max Raines

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE WITH
DIRECTIONS AND COVER LETTER

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
ERICKSON HALL

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1034

May, 1985

Dear Fellow Eastern African Students:

I am pleased that the majority of you with whom I have spoken about my doctoral dissertation on the Motives of Eastern African Students for Seeking Graduate Degrees at Andrews And Michigan State Universities have shown keen interest and have indicated to co-operate.

Since you are currently graduate students here on both campuses of Andrews and Michigan State Universities you are in a position to assist me to complete my academic requirements by completing the questionnaire. Your participation is based on voluntary and there will be no penalty for not participating nor any influence on your study program. You don't have to answer any question that you object.

The research is purely academic and not political. All the information you provide will be kept confidential. You do not have to write your name anywhere on the questionnaire, and your name will not appear in the manuscript. This is to assure you of anonomity with respect to any personal data and opinion which will be obtained.

Realizing the the completing of a questionnaire can be a nuisance, particularly for graduate students with such a tight and hectic schedule, the questionnaire is designed in multiple choice format, and will not take you more than 10 minutes of your time. I value your input and hope that you will be able to spare few minutes of your time within the next three days to fill out the questionnaire. A copy of my dissertation will be placed in the Andrews and Michigan State Universities libraries so that any interested individual can read the findings.

Thank you in advance for your time and co-operation.

Dr. Max Raines
Dissertation Director
Professor, Educational Administration

Kebede Daka
An African Graduate Student

SURVEY

DIRECTIONS

1. PLEASE ANSWER EACH OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS TO THE BEST OF YOUR KNOWLEDGE

2. THERE IS NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. AN HONEST EXPRESSION OF YOUR JUDGMENT IS THE CORRECT ANSWER.

3. YOUR RESPONSE WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL. INDIVIDUALS WILL NOT BE IDENTIFIED WITH THEIR RESPONSES.

KEEPING THESE THREE THINGS IN MIND, RESPOND TO THE ITEMS BY DOING THE FOLLOWING:

a. Read each statement as many times as you wish.

b. Decide which one of the given choices will best answer the question.

c. Indicate your choice by placing a check mark (✓) on the line given to the left side of the statement.

d. Please indicate your answer for each and every item.

e. Please double check to see that you have checked a response for each and every item.

f. At the end write any comment, suggestion, and remarks you wish to bring to the attention of the questionnaire.

g. Return the completed instrument as directed.

1. University:

   _____ a) Andrews University

   _____ b) Michigan State University

2. Gender:

   _____ a) Female

   _____ b) Male

3. Marital Status:

   _____ a) Single

   _____ b) Married and my wife/husband is here with me at the university

   c) Married and my wife/husband is at home in Africa

4. If married and have child/children, where are they now?

   _____ a) All are back in Africa with relatives

   _____ b) Some are back home in Africa and some are here

   _____ c) All are here at the university with me

5. Where is your home country?

   _____ a) Ethiopia

   _____ b) Kenya

   _____ c) Malawi

   _____ d) Tanzania

   _____ e) Uganda

   _____ f) Zambia

   _____ g) Zimbabwe

6. The type of community in which you were brought up in your home country was:

   _____ a) Rural area with population less than 2,000

   _____ b) Small town with population up to 40,000

   _____ c) Large size city with population of more than 60,000

7. Where did you complete your undergraduate degree?

_____ a) In non-African country

_____ b) In Africa, but outside of my own country

_____ c) In my own country

8. What type of school did you attend to pursue your high school education?

_____ a) Government school (non-private)

_____ b) Private school (non-government)

_____ c) Boarding School

_____ d) Day School

9. What type of school did you attend to pursue your undergraduate degree?

_____ a) Government school (non-private)

_____ b) Private school (non-government)

_____ c) Boarding School

_____ d) Day School

10. The high school you attended was located in:

_____ a) Rural area with population less than 2,000

_____ b) Small town with population up to 40,000

_____ c) Large size city with population of more than 60,000

11. The college you attended was located in:

_____ a) Rural area with population less than 2,000

_____ b) Small town with population up to 40,000

_____ c) Large size city with population of more than 60,000

12. Please indicate the HIGHEST level of education completed by your mother

_____ a) No formal School

_____ b) Elementary Education (completed grades 1 to 6)

_____ c) Junior high school (completed grades 7 and 8)

_____ d) High school (completed grades 9 to 12)

_____ e) Junior College (completed grades 13 to 14)

_____ f) Bachelor's Degree

_____ g) Master's Degree

_____ h) Doctorate Degree

13. Please indicate the HIGHEST level of education completed by your father

_____ a) No formal School

_____ b) Elementary Education (completed grades 1 to 6)

_____ c) Junior high school (completed grades 7 and 8)

_____ d) High school (completed grades 9 to 12)

_____ e) Junior College (completed grades 13 to 14)

_____ f) Bachelor's Degree

_____ g) Master's Degree

_____ h) Doctorate Degree

14. Please indicate the professional occupation of your mother

_____ a) Government employee

_____ b) Private sector employee

_____ c) Religious organization employee

_____ d) Self employee

_____ e) Other, please specify _____

15. Please indicate the professional occupation of your father

_____ a) Government employee

_____ b) Private sector employee

_____ c) Religious organization employee

_____ d) Self employee

_____ e) Other, please specify _____

16. Please indicate the level of your parent's income per year in $US dollars

_____ a) Less than $10,000

_____ b) From $10,000 to $14,999

_____ c) From $15,000 to $19,999

_____ d) From $20,000 to $24,999

_____ e) Over $25,000 per year

17. My religious affiliation is _____

18. My mother's religious affiliation is _____

19. My father's religious affiliation is _____

Students from overseas come to the United States to pursue advanced training for various reasons. Below is a list of reasons often given by students for going abroad for graduate studies. for EACH reason please CHECK the one that expresses your opinion

	A	B	C	D	E
20. To get advanced training not available in the homeland	1	2	3	4	5
21. To obtain advanced degrees from overseas	1	2	3	4	5
22. To take advantage of available opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
23. To fulfill a serious commitment to one's life-style and career	1	2	3	4	5
24. To develop potential contributions for greater service to one's country	1	2	3	4	5
25. To develop one's chosen career to secure a better position	1	2	3	4	5
26. To create networks with professionals in other countries	1	2	3	4	5
27. To overcome unfavorable conditions in the homeland	1	2	3	4	5
28. To get the training that reflects the needs of African countries	1	2	3	4	5
29. To get the training that gets bread and butter for the family	1	2	3	4	5
30. To live a better life after graduation	1	2	3	4	5
31. To acquire more marketable knowledge for my future career	1	2	3	4	5
32. To discover the world	1	2	3	4	5

33. Other, please specify_____

KEY: A = least important, B = not important, C = important, D = very important, E = most important

34. If you were invited to select THE MOST IMPORTANT REASON from the above list, which one would it be? _____

Below is the list often given students as major influence for their decision to come to the United States for higher education. To what extent do you AGREE or DISAGREE with EACH of the following?

	A	B	C	D	E
35. Available funds from overseas	1	2	3	4	5
36. Available funds from institutions of higher learning at home country	1	2	3	4	5
37. Information given by home schools for possibility of studying abroad	1	2	3	4	5
38. Correspondance with friends overseas	1	2	3	4	5
39. Encouragement of the family members	1	2	3	4	5
40. Recommendations of faculty and staff members in the home country	1	2	3	4	5
41. Dissatisfaction with low pay without graduate degrees	1	2	3	4	5
42. Encouragement from the institution one has served for years	1	2	3	4	5
43. The feeling of remaining behind from peer groups who went overseas	1	2	3	4	5
44. The existing plan for training indigenous national leaders for Africa at universities in the homeland	1	2	3	4	5
45. Desire to change job	1	2	3	4	5

46. Other, please specify _____

KEY: A = very strongly disagree, B = strongly disagree, C = somewhat agree, D = strongly agree, E = very strongly agree

47. If you were invited to choose the SINGLE MOST IMPORTANT INFLUENCE FOR YOUR DECISION to come to study abroad, which one would it be?_____

How did you find out about this university?

48. _____ From my parents

49. _____ From my colleagues

50. _____ From counseling offices at home universities

51. _____ From foreigners working in my homeland

52. _____ Never heard about this university before I came to the United States

How do you finance your education currently?

53. _____ I am on a full scholarship

54. _____ I am on a partial scholarship

55. _____ I have a graduate assistantship

56. _____ Friends and relatives contribute to get through my studies

57. _____ I am totally on my own

58. _____ Other, please specify_____

To what extend did you depend on the following sources for your financial support when you started your graduate program? Please indicate your partial or total dependence on the sources of finance which apply to you

	Extent of Dependence	
	Totally	Partially
59. The government of your country	_____	_____
60. Foreign agency	_____	_____
61. Religious organization	_____	_____
62. Graduate assistantship	_____	_____
63. Personal finance	_____	_____
64. Other, please specify	_____	_____

Toward what degree(s) are you working now?

65. _____ Master's degree

66. _____ Doctoral degree

67. What is your major field of study? _____

68. In which department _____

How related are the courses you are taking to your career goal?

69. _____ Totally unrelated

70. _____ Not related

71. _____ Somewhat related

72. _____ Totally related

What is your plan after you complete your graduate studies? After completion of my studies I may remain in the United States for short/long term, because of the following reasons:

73. _____ Political and social unrest in my country

74. _____ Family ties here in the United States

75. _____ Pressure from husband/wife to stay here in the United States

76. _____ To support the other family member to complete my study

77. _____ To make some money before I return to my country

78. _____ I have no obligation to return home since I am on my own

79. _____ I have not made up my mind yet

After completion of my studies I will return to my country, mainly because of the:

80. _____ Inability to adopt to the life style of American society

81. _____ Pressure I receive from the United States Immigration Department

82. _____ Pressure I receive from familes and relatives at home in Africa

83. _____ Pressure I receive from organizations and sponsoring institutions

84. _____ Pressure I receive from organization and sponsoring institutions

Are you currently on leave from a job to which you will return?

85. _____ no

86. _____ yes

If I had my preference to do what I wanted after graduation,

87. _____ I would stay here in this country

88. _____ I would stay in Europe

89. _____ I would go somewhere other than Africa

90. _____ I would go home in no time

If s/he had a choice, my husband/wife would,

91. _____ Go somewhere other than returning to Africa

92. _____ Stay here in the United States

93. _____ Definitely go home to my country

I find the life style in this country,

94. _____ Not attractive at all

95. _____ Somewhat attractive

96. _____ Attractive

97. _____ Very attractive

Having been in this country, earning money as a student is:

98. _____ Much more difficult here than in my country

99. _____ Less difficult here than in my country

100. _____ About the same here or in my country

101. _____ Very easy here than in my country

Were you employed as a full-time employee while pursuing your Bachelor's degree?

102. _____ No

103. _____ Yes

Did you work full-time following the completion of your Bachelor's Degree and before embarking on a Master's Degree?

104. _____ No

105. _____ Yes

106. If you answered yes to the above question, how many years? _____

Did you work full-time following the completion of your Master's degree and before embarking on doctoral studies?

107. _____ No

108. _____ Yes

109. If yes to the above question, for how many years?_____

Did you work in rural or urban areas?

110. _____ Rural

111. _____ Urban

112. _____ Both rural and urban

Suppose your parents have two daughters and two sons with equal ability and can only send two of them to school, which two would your parents send overseas?

113. _____ Two girls

114. _____ Two boys

115. _____ One girl and one boy

116. _____ Two oldes irrespective of sex

If your parents can only pay school fees for one child overseas will they readily pay for the first child:

117. _____ If she is a daughter

118. _____ If he is a boy

119. How old are you?_____

THIS IS THE END. THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION VERY KINDLY. OOOPS! DON'T FORGET YOUR COMMENTS AT THE END!

YOUR SUGGESTIONS, COMMENTS, AND REMARKS ARE HIGHLY APPRECIATED

A. WHAT ENCOURAGES AFRICAN GRADUATE STUDENTS TO PURSUE GRADUATE DEGREES OVERSEAS?

B. WHAT DISCOURAGES AFRICAN GRADUATE STUDENTS NOT TO PURSUE GRADUATE DEGREES OVERSEAS?

A	B

IF NEEDED, YOU MAY USE THE BACK SIDE OF THIS PAGE

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