Human Capital Flight, Remittances and the Problem of Achieving Sustainable Economic Growth in Africa

Samuel B. Adewumi1, Chinedu J. Ogbodo2, James E. Onoh3

1,2,3Department of Economics, University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Abstract:- The research employed data from twenty African countries namely: Nigeria, Ghana, Benin, Senegal, Niger, Cote d’Ivoire, Gambia, Rwanda, Tanzania, Sudan, Kenya, Ethiopia, Tunisia, Morocco, Egypt, Algeria, Zambia, South Africa, Namibia and Mozambique; and with variables such as real GDP, stock of physical capital, labour force, remittances received, per capita income, human capital flight proxy by net migration, education-proxy by secondary school enrolment and technology-proxy by total factor productivity. The data were collected for the rage of 40 years (1977-2016). The result shows that remittances, per capital income, labour force, stock of physical capital, education and total technology exert positive relationship with economic growth, while human capital flight shows non-significant relationship with economic growth. We therefore recommend proper channeling of remittances in productive activities, as remittances can serve as compensation for human capital flight.

Key world: Remittances, Human capital flight and economic growth

I. INTRODUCTION

The problem of human capital flight has reached quite disturbing proportion in LDC’s with African countries in exceptional and this tends to be more detrimental in the LDC’s because of weak institutional framework (Lalla; 2012). Though some research in the middle-income countries proved that brain drain generates higher income which helps in ameliorating poverty, improves health, educational outcomes, as well as promoting the economic development of those regions (Schiff and Ozden, 2007; Görlrich and Trebesch, 2008; Sherr et. al., 2012; Adela and Dietmar; 2016).

Riccardo (2006) in their analysis strongly disagreed with the ‘augmented effects’ of remittances, as the researchers show that the argument that the negative impact of brain drain could be mitigated by its favorable effect on remittances was not generally true. He showed that brain drain is associated with a lower rather than a larger flow of remittances. Other researchers like Banga and Sahu (2010) further argued that regardless of the usage of remittances – either for investment, consumption or in purchasing other assets – it has a positive impact on economic growth of the source countries by enhancing aggregate demand for goods and services. To them, migration creates an avenue for capital transfer – finance and physical technology which could influence the economic, political and social life of the people – to the source region, which has a developmental impact. Therefore, the real effects of brain drain and remittances have not received a clear cut.

As sound as some assertions of the mitigating impact or remittances appears, there is no such evidence in African countries, given the current indices of low investment, high rate of unemployment, increase in mortality rates, reduction in life expectancy, political instability and the problem of achieving meaningful economic growth among others.

To begin with the mitigating impact of remittances on poverty reduction (as reported by Muhammad, Arif and Quayyum, 2012; Muriel, 2015; Bogaards, 2016; Jordanna (2015) reveals that African countries accounted for 75% of the poorest countries of the world in spite of the huge remittances flow to the region. The hydra-headed monster of poverty in Africa endangers more than 500 million people suffering from water-borne diseases, with more than 50% of Africans suffering from water-related diseases like cholera, and 109 million of Nigeria falls in this category (WHO, 2015). Nigeria is also ranked the fourth country in the world with the largest population without access to improved drinking-water despite being the highest African country with huge inflows of remittances. The educational sector also in Africa has not experienced any tremendous change due to remittances flow, as 80% of African women are without education (WHO, 2015). The World Bank (2015) research shows that poor education – among women in this region – make them more vulnerable to sickness like AIDS, and less likely to immunize their children due to illiteracy and ignorance.

Global Finance (2017) reveals that the ten countries with the highest population living in extreme poverty are located in sub-Saharan countries. The data shows that more than 414 million of the population of this region lives in abject poverty, which according to World Bank represents 49% of the population of sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2015). The continuous increase in extreme poverty in Africa has led to approximately one in every three people living in the region being undernourished (Jonathan, 2017). The problem of food insecurity in Africa still continues on an increase of more than 239 million people (approximately 30% of the population) are poorly fed. Africa has the highest percentage of people living in hunger in the world (Agriculture Organization, 2016).

More also, in terms of improved health outcomes resulting from remittances cannot be affirmed in Africa given the deteriorating state of healthcare facilities and health outcome
in Africa. As estimated in the United Nation Millennium development Project (UNMDP, 2012), Malaria alone account for more than 1 million children’s deaths in Africa. The malaria death recorded in Africa accounted for 90% of the cases of malaria’s death in the world, and 80% of the victims are African children. Furthermore, it was also estimated in the millennium project that every 30 seconds, children in Africa die of malaria and approximately 3000 each day. Neonatal and post-natal mortality rate was on an increase verge in Africa also, as African women were estimated to be 230 percent likelihood to die during pregnancy and childbirth compared to 1/4000 women in North America. In sum, 1 out of 16 African women is likely to die during childbirth.

Driving home to West Africa, it has been a general belief that West African countries are afloat high-risk market for investment because of factors such as bad governance, violent attack, and unstable macroeconomic policies among others. All these factors indicate that majority of the income remitted to this region cannot be efficiently utilized due to weak institutional frameworks – poor political and social environment. Sani, Zuber, Stoijilovska and Koneska (2012) argued that international agreement and migration policies, especially in the LDC’s can lead to high rate of unemployment since many LDC’s are large recipients of migrant’s flow. In West Africa, for instance, the Economic Community of West African State (ECOWAS) – an international agreement formed by member states – permits members citizens to stay in another country within the region for a period of 90 days without an international passport, can lead to serious unemployment. Sani, therefore, argued that such migration will bring the challenges of integrating these migrants into the working economy. Such free migration will, in turn, result in job competition between the migrants’ population and the domestic workforce. Free migration too is associated with fiscal costs on the host region – in the provision of social services to the people – which tends to incur more cost on the government.

At the peak of the problems of brain drain is the migration of medical and academics professionals in LDC’s, and most especially West African countries. Ethiopia, Nigeria, Ghana, and Kenya were the highest countries affected with brain drain in sub-Saharan Africa (Jonathan, 2017). From 1993 to 2004, the number of Ghanaian’s trained medical staff that left the country to work abroad was estimated at 68% of the total trained medical staff (Sani et al., 2012). Also, Lalla (2012) posit that more than 10,000 academia in tertiary institutions in Nigeria left the country between 1986 and 1990. Furthermore, over 30,000 people left the industrial, public and private organization within the same period. His estimate revealed that 64% of Nigerians in USA age 25 and above have a university degree. This pinpoint to the fact that developed countries lived and harnessed the human capital from developing countries which should contribute to the growth of their domestic countries after much investment in terms of education funding by developing countries. These findings made some authors argue that brain drain is an obstacle to development in the LDCs (Adams, 2005). For example, migration of health workers has been held conventionally as being dangerous to the source countries development.

Also, in the medical sector of Nigeria for instance, New Telegraph (2007) reports that more than 500 medical professionals (doctors) emigrate to the country annually. The information obtained from the interview of Mike Ogirima – President of the Nigerian Medical Association (NMA), more than 10,000 doctors’ currently practice outside the country. This conformed to the earlier proposition gave by the Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria (MDCN) that more than 10,000 medical doctors are in the diasporas in search for greener pasture, and were now practicing medicine. The report also stated that about 90% of those working outside the country are trained in Nigeria where they obtained their capacity. Ogirima further said that Nigeria government has invested in the education of this people only to be harnessed by developed countries. He linked this menace to the poor working environment and lack of necessary technology for the doctors to work with and poor working conditions.

As reported in World Bank (2017), Nigerian living abroad, on the average, remits more than $23,721.1 million annually from 2010 to 2017, which is the highest remittances in West African countries as well as African counterpart, and the 7th largest in the world. Liberia on the other hand also had its remittances amount to $508.6 million annually, and bearing in mind that on the average, Liberia has its average remittances as a percentage of GDP equals 18.5; and Gambia with the highest remittances as percentage of GDP of 19.8% and on the average of $177 million remitted annually from 2010 to 2017. But despite these above data, West African countries are still wallow in abject poverty, high unemployment, low investment, lack of incentives to attract foreign investors, and these have transcendent to act as a cog to the wheel of economic growth and development in Africa. Therefore, the huge remittances flow to West African countries, had not shown a clear-cut impact on developmental indices of this region, hence the motivation for this study.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The Concepts of Human Capital Flight

Human capital flight simply refers to the migration of highly skilled or well-educated individuals for better opportunities. The benefits from skilled migration refer to as brain gain, and the cost is referred to brain drain. Human capital flight always involves the movement of skilled professionals from less developed countries to developed ones. Andrew and Baomin (2015) identified four factors of brain drain in Africa which are economic factors, social and educational factor, push factors and pull factors. The economic factor is due to the deterioration in the economic performance of LDC’s (Kwok and Leland, 1982; Docquier and Rapoport, 2012). Social and educational factors are the migration due to advancement in education (Dodoo and Takyi, 2002). The pull factor is due to
wage differential between the developed and developing countries (Todaro, 1969; Murphy, Shleifer and Vishny, 1989; Krueger, 1997), and the push factors are high rate of unemployment in the domestic countries, political instability, the high cost of running businesses, underdevelopment, lack of research facilities and institutes, political and social unrest, employment discrimination, economic lack of freedom, poor working conditions, etc. (Massey et. al., 1993; Carree, Van Stel, Thurik and Wennekers, 2002; Kaba, 2011; Ngoma and Ismail, 2013).

**Concept of Remittances**

Remittances are the transfer of an asset, usually in monetary form from migrants' family living outside their countries to family members in the source countries. According to International Monetary Fund (IMF, 1999), remittances only account for migrants that have stayed up to one year in their destination region, while those below one year and the self-employed migrants are excluded. International organization for Migration (IMO) 2006, broadly defined remittances as the financial flows associated with migration or migrants' workers or immigrants to a relative in the country of origin. On the other hand, International Organization for Migration. (IOM, 2008), defines remittances as the portion of migrant workers’ earnings sent back from the country of origin.

Remittances in the world are now forming a huge source of income for developing countries (Caitlin and Mohamed, 2008). Arguably, remittances have been established globally as a key factor to reduce poverty because of its impact on micro and macroeconomic performance and development. One of the major reason why remittances were seen as a key factor in mitigating poverty is due to the fact money sent gets to the target people who need them most and the fund is well utilized in the fashion that results in the greatest benefits and betterment for individual recipient household. Also, remittances sent are at minimal cost with little waste of resources, and as such, it is conventionally believed that remittances can potentially be an ideal tool for economic development.

**Concept of Economic Growth**

From various conventional views emanated from different economists, economic growth was viewed as a result of the transition of surplus labour from the capitalist sector and the subsistence sector (Lewis, 1954). To Harris and Todaro (1970) and Fields (1980) economic growth and development involves the movement of people from rural to the urban area due to expected income differentials between rural and urban. Solow and Swan (1956) on the other hand viewed growth in economic output as basically a function of the stock of capital (capital formation/accumulation), coupled with the growth rate in labour force and technological progress. Denison (1967) also buttresses the importance of capital accumulation in propelling economic growth. Romer (1986) considered the endogenous aspect of economic growth, and to him, economic growth hinged on investment in human capital, innovation, and knowledge. Economic growth in the long-run to Romar was seen has been a function of investment in research and development which will increase the incentive for innovations. Other empirical work had also established economic growth to different factors such as foreign aids or foreign direct investment (Papanek 1973; Chinery and Strout, 1966; Victor 1987) foreign aid and investment (de Mello, 1999), human capital investment (Lucas, 1988), and political, institutional and the degree of accountability (Owen, 1987) among others as a source of economic growth.

**III. LITERATURE REVIEW**

Adelaand Dietmar (2016) based their study on the impact of remittances on economic growth of six highest remittances receiving countries of Macedonia, Albania, Bosnia Herzegovina, Moldova, Romania, and Bulgaria, using data from 1999-2013. Their result shows a positive and significant relationship with economic growth as well as an increase in growth in relation to increasing in remittances relative to GDP.

Other studies in the quest to examine the impact of remittances on economic growth posited by Muhammad and Asmatullal (2011) in their study of workers’ remittances and economic growth in Azerbaijan and Armenia countries. Using the ordinary least squares (OLS) methodological approach, they found that remittances are significant and have a positive impact on economic growth and development for the area under study. Hence, they believed strongly that adequate macroeconomic policies that promote remittances will boost the economic growth and the efficient utilization of the remittances received will generate the same result.

Katsushi et al. (2011) also remittances, economic growth and poverty from Asian countries in order to re-examine the effects of remittances on the growth of GDP per capita used annual panel data from 24 Asian and Pacific countries. Their result shows a positive significant relationship between remittances inflows and economic growth. Furthermore, they also observed that volatility in capital outflow in form of remittances and foreign direct investment (FDI) is harmful to economic growth. This means that despite the beneficial impact of remittances on economic growth, they also saw as a source of output shocks. Moreover, it was also observed that remittances contribute to poverty reduction. Therefore, they conclude that remittances are a potentially valuable component of broad-based development efforts.

Kanu and Ozurumba (2013) also provide an empirical support on the subject of remittances and economic growth. Focusing on the sub-Saharan African countries with evidence from Nigeria, South Africa, and Ghana, their result shows that migrant’s remittances have a positive impact on economic growth of the aforementioned economies. Also considering the causal relationship between remittances and economic growth, remittances were found to Granger cause economic growth in Ghana and South Africa, but the report shows that
the impact was felt more in South Africa than Ghana. The opposite was the case for Nigeria where remittances were not found to Granger causes GDP, rather economic growth was seen to granger causes remittances.

Bakare, Kashif, and Amna (2014) examine human capital flight and its impact on the economy, a case study of Pakistan. In their quest to examine whether there exists a correlation between human capital flight and government policy. With data from 1980-2011, it was found that workers’ remittances have a positive impact on economic growth and per capita income.

Pernilla and Josfin (2014) in their study of remittances and development, with evidence from 99 developing countries, using annual panel data of these countries, the researchers aimed at answering the question of how impactful is remittances to the broader aspect of development? Using development index as part of their dependent variable, they found out that there exists a positive relationship between remittances and the level of human development in developing countries.

Achouak and Mohamed (2013) study the effect of remittances on economic growth through education in Tunisia, with the aim of studying the effect of migrants’ remittances on economic growth. To this end, the application of co-integration on the variables of interest shows a long run relationship in the variables of interest. The obtained result also indicates that the direct effect of remittances is negative, while the indirect effect induced by the inclusion of education is positive. This result conforms to what other researchers obtained in their studies such as Achouak, Mohamed and Mourad (2013) but contradict that of Giuliano and Arranz (2009), Chami et al (2005), Azam and Guber (2006), and other literature reviewed earlier.

Siddique, Selvanathan and Selvanathan (2012) in his empirical analysis of remittances and economic growth with evidence from Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka, employed the Granger-causality test approach to examine the causal link between remittances and economic growth in the three countries (Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka). Using a time series data of 25 years for each country, the researcher found that growth in remittances does not lead to growth in Bangladesh. Furthermore, it was observed that there is no causality between remittances and economic growth in India; while Sri Lanka exhibit bidirectional causality between remittances and economic growth, meaning that economic growth and remittances influence each other. The result, however, conform to the one obtained by Achouak, Mohamed and Mourad (2013), Chami et al. (2005), Azam and Guber (2006), Thanh Le (2008).

Muriel (2015) further examine the impact of remittances on economic growth in four selected countries of West Africa countries (Cameroon, Cape Verde, Nigeria, and Senegal) from 2000-2010. Remittances flow to Nigeria and Senegal was found to exert a positive impact on economic growth which conforms to the result possed by Achouak et al. (2013), and Barnes et al. (2015). On the other hand, remittances flow to Cape Verde and Cameroon was found to exert negative impact on economic growth which further support the result obtained by Achouak, Mohamed and Mourad (2013), Chami et al. (2005), Azam and Guber (2006), Thanh Le (2008), and Khatiwada (2005).

Wolfgang, Tim and Volker (2007) in studying education, unemployment, and migration in India uses a two regions model and took unemployment, education and interregional migration as being endogenous. The regions were divided into the poor region and the rich region. The poor region exhibits low wages and high rate of unemployment, and migrants to the rich region were disproportionately high skilled labour. They observed that brain drain from the poor region was motivated by strong incentives to acquire skills even for immobile workers. It was also observed that regional shocks tend to affect both regions in a symmetric fashion, and skill-based technological change reduces wages of the unskilled. In conclusion, both education and migration decisions are found to be distorted by uniform unemployment compensation, which proves the corrective subsidization.

Anastasia and Christos (2014) investigate the macroeconomic effects of remittances in two small, transition emigration countries, namely Moldova and Albania, employed the Keynesian macroeconomic modelling, and examines the impact of remittances on three macroeconomics variables (consumption, imports and investment) of the aforementioned economy, in order to assess the use of the growth potential of remittances. Their results show that remittances exert a positive impact on consumption, import and investment in the two countries. Their result further shows that a remittance has a greater impact on Albania than Moldova, but exert more impact on investment and import more in Moldova than experienced in Albania. They, therefore, conclude that both Albania and Moldova should focus on finding the utilization patterns of remittances that can bring the best results in terms of productive investments and long-term growth.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This work will adopt the augmented Solow model of economic growth. The Solow growth theory postulates that economic growth occurs when the relative share of capital increase than that of labour from the national income. To them, increase in capital relative to labour in national income creates economic growth since the productivity of labour will increase when more capital is given to them (i.e increase in capital per labour). More also, they posit that marginal productivity of labour is higher in the less developed economy, and therefore, increase in capital investment will produce higher returns than countries with large capital accumulation.

Neoclassical model is built on four variables which are output (Y), capital (K), Labour (L), and Knowledge (A). At every
point in time, it was assumed that capital, labour, and knowledge are combined to produce the economic output. The production function can be stated as:

\[ Y(t) = F[(K(t), A(t)L(t))] \]  

(1)

Some basic assumptions of this theory are that labour force growth rate is given as \( n(t) \) and the growth rate of knowledge is \( g(t) \), investment and saving are considered to be a fixed proportion of output and the production function exhibit constant returns to scale (CRS), capital and labour has perfect substitutability and diminishing marginal productivities. The Cobb-Douglas version of augmented Solow growth model can be stated as:

\[ Y(t) = K^\delta A L^{1-\delta} \]  

(2)

Obtaining the log of 2.2 and adding the other variables of interest yield:

\[ \ln RGDP_{it} = \ln PC_{it} + \ln LF_{it} + \ln REM_{it} + HCF_{it} + TEC_{it} + \ln PCI_{it} + \mu_t \]  

(3)

This model will be used to examine the impact of remittances on economic growth of West African countries.

- \( \ln RGDP \) is the log of real gross domestic product
- \( \ln PC \) is the log of fiscal capital, and it is expected to be positively related to economic growth,
- \( \ln LF \) is the log of labour force, and it is expected to exert positive relationship with economic growth.
- \( \ln REM \) is the log of remittances received, and the a priori expectation of this variable should be positive.
- \( HCF \) represent human capital flight – proxy by net migration (also used by Bakare, et al., 2014) – it is expected exert negative impact on economic growth. Also, it should be noted that this variable is not logged because most of the data are negative.
- \( TEC \) represent technology – proxy by total factor productivity – and it is expected to exert positive relationship with economic growth.
- \( \ln PCI \) is the log of per capita income. We expect a positive relationship between per capita income and economic growth.

V. RESULT DISCUSSION

Panel Unit Root Test

In order to ascertain the behavioural pattern of the variables of interest, the unit root test will be carried out – simply to examine the order of integration of the variables. The Levin–Lin–Chu panel data unit root test will be employed since it assumes a common autoregressive parameter for all panels. The Levin–Lin–Chu test with panel-specific means, but no time trend, requires that the number of time periods grow more quickly than the number of panels, so the ratio of panels to time periods tends to zero. The test involves fitting an augmented Dickey–Fuller regression for each panel; and it required that the number of lags to include be selected based on the AIC with at most 10 lags.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>ADF Statistic at Level</th>
<th>Prob. Value</th>
<th>ADF Statistic at First Difference</th>
<th>Order of integration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RGDP</td>
<td>16.8772</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>-2.6783</td>
<td>0.0037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCI</td>
<td>0.5539</td>
<td>0.7102</td>
<td>-2.6743</td>
<td>0.0037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LF</td>
<td>-0.2965</td>
<td>0.3834</td>
<td>-4.5773</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REM</td>
<td>-0.0853</td>
<td>0.4660</td>
<td>-4.6342</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCF</td>
<td>-4.3713</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCI</td>
<td>0.0853</td>
<td>0.5340</td>
<td>-7.1353</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDU</td>
<td>0.5000</td>
<td>0.6914</td>
<td>-17.1019</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFP</td>
<td>5.7701</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>-8.3303</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The unit root result presented above shows that it is only human capital flight that is stationary at the level form, while real GDP, labour force, remittances, stock of physical capital, per capita income, education and technology are stationary at first difference. This is a necessary step to proceed into the analysis.

Cointegration

Having ascertained the individual order of integration of the variables of the model, it is important to examine the relationship of these variables in the long-run. The Westerlund cointegration technique developed in 2007 will be employed in this analysis. This test examines the absence of integration by determining whether there is an error correction for each individual in the model or for the entire panel as a whole. The test encompasses large degree of heterogeneity both in the short-run dynamics and the long-run cointegrating relationship, as well as dependence on within and across the cross sectional unit (Persyn, 2010).

The \( Gt \) and \( Ga \) statistics test for the presence of short-run relationship or long-run cointegration for at least one individual country. The statistics are computed using the weighted average of the individually estimated t-ratio’s in the model. One the other hand, the \( Pt \) and \( Pa \) test statistics examine the pool information across the sectional unit. The rejection of \( H0 \) suggests the rejection of the presence of cointegration for the model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gt</td>
<td>-0.737</td>
<td>6.424</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga</td>
<td>-3.061</td>
<td>5.046</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pt</td>
<td>-6.063</td>
<td>1.924</td>
<td>0.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pa</td>
<td>-5.143</td>
<td>1.624</td>
<td>0.948</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The cointegration result presented in the table above shows that \( Gt, Ga, Pt \) and \( Pa \) all have their probability greater than
5% level. This shows that the variables are cointegrated in the long-run, both on country’s specific studies and joint analysis.

**Hausman Test**

The Hausman test can help us to the analytical method between the fixed effect or the random effect. The test examine whether there are correlation in residuals of each countries The null hypothesis of this model is the preference of random effect to fixed effect against the alternative hypothesis of fixed effect (Greene, 2008). The decision rule here is that the appropriate model to be used is fixed effect if the probability level is less than 5%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.95</td>
<td>0.0523</td>
<td>Random Effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that the probability value of the Hausman test is greater than 5 percent. Hence we conclude that the appropriate model for this analysis is the random effect.

**The Result**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t – value</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>11.28117</td>
<td>34.81*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LnREM</td>
<td>0.0911057</td>
<td>12.08*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCF</td>
<td>1.28e-08</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LnL</td>
<td>0.0495162</td>
<td>5.00*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LnPCI</td>
<td>0.9522287</td>
<td>28.24*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEC</td>
<td>6.64e-06</td>
<td>2.16*</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LnPC</td>
<td>0.1184944</td>
<td>11.12*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDU</td>
<td>0.0069146</td>
<td>8.45*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where * represent 5% level of significance.

Thus

\[
LnRGDP = 11.28 + 0.09LnREM + 1.3e^{-8}HCF + 0.05LnLF + 0.95LnPCI + 6.6e^{-6}TEC + 0.12LnPC + 0.01EDU
\]

The result above shows that all the variables conformed to their a priori theoretical expectation. The result shows that real GDP is relatively inelastic in relation to all the variables used in the model. Also, the model shows that a one percent increase in remittances leads to 0.09 percent increase in economic growth in the long-run. The coefficient of brain drain was found not to be significant in the model.

Furthermore, the coefficient of labour force shows that a one percent increase in labour force will lead to 0.05 percent increase in economic growth. Per capita income also exerts a positive relationship with economic growth. The result shows that a one percent increase in per capita income will lead to 0.95 percent increase in economic growth. Technology also exert positive relationship with economic growth, the percentage increase of this variable on growth is relatively small. Stock of fiscal capital also shows a positive relationship with economic growth. It also shows that a one percent increase in stock of fiscal capital will lead to 0.12 percent increase in economic growth in the long-run. Lastly, education shows a positive relationship with economic growth. It equally shows that a one percent increase in education leads to0.01 percent increase in economic growth in the long-run.

**VI. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATION**

The research employed data from twenty African countries namely: Nigeria, Ghana, Benin, Senegal, Niger, Cote d’voire, Gambia, Rwanda, Tanzania, Sudan, Kenya, Ethiopia, Tunisia, Morocco, Egypt, Algeria, Zambia, South Africa, Namibia and Mozambique; and with variables such as real GDP, stock of physical capital, labour force, remittances received, per capita income, human capital flight, education and technology- proxy by total factor productivity. The data were collected for the rage of 40 years (1977-2016).

The result shows that remittances, per capital income, labour force, stock of physical capital, education and total technology exert positive relationship with economic growth, while human capital flight shows non-significant relationship with economic growth.

The implication of this result, firstly, is that remittances can serve in ameliorating the impact of skilled migration on economic growth. Hence, we recommend proper channeling of the remittances receive to productive ventures. This basic problem with this is that remittances flows directly to some targeted population. Hence, the government should re-orientate the citizens on the need to utilize the realized remittances. Also, human capital flight has no impact on economic growth in Africa. The implication is that proper policies might be neglected in curbing this menace. We recommend that proactive effort be taken to cub the problem of human capital through the provision of basic necessities in African countries

Also labour force and capital stock shows positive relationship with economic growth. Given the current indices of high unemployment, Poverty, low income and saving etc, human capital development might not be feasible and capital accumulation tends to be low. Therefore we recommend that government in this region should take active part in creating more enabling environment for entrepreneurs’ activities, creation of jobs, provisions of social amenities, etc. this will promote the efficiency of labour in Africa.

**REFERENCES**


