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INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION SECTOR: 1994 - 2001

Sepideh Rouhani

A thesis submitted to the School of Education, Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Johannesburg, 2007

ABSTRACT

This exploratory study investigated diverse facets of internationalisation at selected public higher education institutions in South Africa during the period from 1994 to 2001. The central aim of the research was to explore the responses of the South African public higher education sector to international student influx in the immediate post-apartheid era, a period characterised by the rapid restructuring and transformation of the sector.

The study was undertaken with the rationale to address the gap in the research literature on internationalisation in general, and student mobility in particular, with specific reference to South Africa. An exploratory study of this nature could also inform higher education policy makers and was deemed to be appropriate at a time when South Africa had rejoined the international community after years of isolation.

In seeking a conceptual framework for this research, a multi-disciplinary approach was pursued because globalisation and internationalisation are concepts that cut across several disciplines. The conceptual framework was thus informed by debates about globalisation and internationalisation, migration theory, international relations, political economy and higher education. Insights and knowledge from these theoretical perspectives were analysed and synthesised to formulate a plausible framework for the emergence of South Africa not just as a new global destination for international students, but also as one of the top 10 host nations in the world and the leading host country on the African continent.

A two-phase or mixed-method research design was adopted for this study. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used in a complementary fashion. Five institutional case studies were selected as a snapshot of the (public) higher education sector in the immediate post-apartheid period between 1994 and 2001. In addition, the actions of other influential bodies and role players such as the Department of Education, the Council on Higher Education, the International Education Association of South Africa, the South African University Vice-Chancellors' Association, the Committee of Technikon Principals and student formations were critically examined. The institutional case studies as well as research participants were purposefully selected on the basis of predetermined criteria, as explained in the methodology chapter. Primary and secondary data were gathered from the above

institutions, staff and students using documents and semi-structured individual and focus group interviews. The interviews were transcribed and content analysed manually in order to generate emerging themes upon which the conclusions are based. In addition to institutional data, national data on international student enrolment trends also informed the findings of this research.

Alluding to the findings, a variety of responses by South African (public) higher education institutions to international student influx between 1994 and 2001 are apparent. Whereas some institutions, mainly the larger, historically advantaged universities were more proactive and consciously decided to internationalise by adopting internationalisation policies and putting in place structures such as International Offices, other institutions, more specifically the smaller historically disadvantaged institutions, were unable to deal with internationalisation to the same extent and rather focussed on addressing the more pressing national higher education imperatives. While the responses of institutions within the South Africa (public) higher education sector have been diverse, reflecting their unequal historical legacies and future visions for strategic growth and development, it is argued that for the South African higher education sector to be more beneficial as a resource to the country, the Southern African region and the continent at large, a holistic, integrated national policy framework on internationalisation is required.

KEY WORDS

Internationalisation
South African higher education
Globalisation
International student mobility
Adaptive institutional responses
Qualitative-quantitative (mixed method) research design
Multi-site case study

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at any other university.

_____

_____ day of _____ , 2007.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAU	Association of African Universities
CHE	Council on Higher Education
CHET	Centre for Higher Education Transformation
CTP	Committee of Technikon Principals
DAAD	Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (German Academic Exchange Service)
DoE	Department of Education (South Africa)
DHA	Department of Home Affairs
EAIE	European Association for International Education
EPU	Education Policy Unit (at UWC)
HAI	Historically Advantaged Institution
HBU	Historically Black Institution
HDI	Historically Disadvantaged Institution
HEMIS	Higher Education Management Information Systems
HESA	Higher Education South Africa[1]
HWU	Historically White Institution
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IEASA	International Education Association of South Africa
NAFSA	Association of International Educators (USA)
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NCHE	National Commission on Higher Education (South Africa)
NPHE	National Plan for Higher Education (South Africa)
NMMU	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
PUCHE	Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education
RU	Rhodes University
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SANPAD	South Africa Netherlands Research Programme on Alternatives in Development

[1] SAUVCA and CTP joined forces in 2005 to form HESA which represented the merged higher education sector.

SAUVCA	South African University Vice Chancellors' Association
SRC	Student Representative Council
SU	Stellenbosch University
UCT	University of Cape Town
UDW	University of the Durban, Westville
UFH	University of Fort Hare
UN	University of the North (also known as Turfloop)
UNW	University of the North West, Mafikeng Campus (formerly UNIBO)
UP	University of Pretoria
UPE	University of Port Elizabeth
UWC	University of the Western Cape
WITS	University of the Witwatersrand

PART A: BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH DESIGN

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTERNATIONALISATION AND GLOBALISATION

South Africa is a relative new comer to the international education arena. The political regime which governed the country for four decades from 1948 up to the 1990s and the radical isolation of South Africa during the international boycott, gave most higher education institutions little or no opportunity to forge international links. In the immediate post-apartheid years, there were other more pressing national issues than the internationalisation of the university that demanded attention, even though the interdependence of nations was growing ever greater under the pressures from globalisation, and a new commitment to international education was perceived in many other nations to be a vital necessity. However in one international area – the hosting of international students — South Africa saw a dramatic growth which has continued into the present. This international student influx was most marked in the immediate post-apartheid period, during the years from 1994 to 2001, which are covered by the present study.

The number of international students in South Africa has continued to escalate and is estimated to be about 52 000[2], placing South Africa among the top ten host nations in the world[3]. Whereas student movement to major receiving countries – Australia, the countries of Western Europe, Canada and the United States — has been the subject of major studies, student mobility from, within and to Africa on the whole has received little attention, and the present thesis is the first comprehensive investigation into international student mobility to South Africa: its background and context, the conditions under which it takes place, and the responses to it of host universities, government departments and other stakeholders.

It is estimated that globally two and a half million[4] students are enrolled in higher education beyond their borders. About one million[5] of these students are in English-speaking countries,

[2] Institute of International Education, Atlas of Student Mobility. www.atlas.iienetwork.org accessed on 13 November 2006.
[3] Inferred from IIE data referred to in footnote 2 above.
[4] Source: same as in footnote 2.

such as South Africa. These figures are expected to more than double by between 2015 and 2020[6]. South Africa is likely to be a major beneficiary of this growth, given its role in the global geopolitical landscape, its position on the African continent and the use of English as one of its official languages. Its success as a major host country depends on the responses of its higher education sector to this student influx. The present study attempts to provide an analysis of some of these responses, in particular at the level of higher education institutions, through adopting a mixed-method research design using a case study approach.

Internationalisation of higher education, or "the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of an institution" (Knight 1997b:29)[7], first emerged as a major preoccupation in the 1990s. It is one manifestation of the broader phenomenon of globalisation[8], commonly described as "the flow of technology, knowledge, people, values, ideas…across borders" (Council on Higher Education [CHE] 2004:212), and the shrinking of time and space due to information and communication technologies (ICT). Marshall McLuhan (1962) coined the term "global village" to describe a world interconnected by way of electronic communication. Viewed in entirely positive terms, the global village holds the promise of a universal culture of good citizenship that transcends national borders and identities, a culture where global ideals may be put into action at the local level. Thomas L. Friedman (1999:236), running together the terms "local" and "global", describes the ideal situation as the ability to "glocalize", that is "to be able to assimilate aspects of globalization into [one's] country and culture in a way that adds to your growth and diversity, without overwhelming it".

A most influential and near universal manifestation of globalisation is the emergence of a global popular culture expressed in music videos broadcast by the international media, for example, MTV and satellite networks; the desire for brand names and fast-foods; the

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[5] Vision 2020: Forecasting International Student Mobility. http://www.britishcouncil.org/vision2020/vision2020.html accessed on 15 November 2006.
[6] See footnotes 2 and 3 above.
[7] Jane Knight's (1997b) definition will be adopted for 'internationalisation' and elaborated upon in Chapter 2 (section 2.2) in the review of the literature, although she has updated this definition.
[8] Held and McGrew (*s.a.*:1) define globalisation as "a process (or set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organisation of social relations and transactions, expressed in transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction and power". See Chapter 3 for a more detailed discussion of the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation.

emergence of transnational networks such as multinational/transnational corporations; and the shrinking of time and space due to the advancement in information and communication technologies such as email, the Internet, and cellular telephones. The 'Mc Donaldisation' and 'Disneyfication' of the world are among the catch-phrases used to highlight this 'pop culture'. Insofar as it is hegemonic, expressing the preponderant production of popular culture by the United States (US), this form of globalisation is viewed by many as undesirable and unacceptable. First and foremost, this "flattening" or "homogenising" global culture is perceived as eroding national and local ethnic cultures and identities, stifling those very differences on which human identity is built. Second, it is held responsible for destroying local providers who simply are too small to compete against the amassed wealth and resources of transnational conglomerates.

Resistance to the powerful forces of globalisation has led to the growth of an international counterculture of opposition which has given rise to the "Jihad versus McWorld" thesis (Barber 1996). In defence of local tradition in Southern France, the efforts of José Bové, a French sheep farmer and the *Confédération paysanne* that he founded, have been directed against the global food industry, fast food, what he calls "*la malbouffe*," (bad grub). Bové has served time in prison for setting fire to the construction site for a McDonald's, and also, for burning fields of genetically modified maize. Opposition to the World Trade Organization (WTO), an agency dedicated to free trade, open markets, and globalisation, has grown dramatically over the years, beginning with massive street demonstrations during the WTO meeting in Seattle in 1999 and bringing together unlikely bedfellows, ranging from trade union representatives to Non-governmental Organisation (NGO) officials to anarchists – more than 40,000 – all members of a counterculture adamantly opposed to globalisation.

On the other hand, the defenders of globalisation point to its many advantages. Globalisation has permitted workers in the developing world to improve their standard of living by providing employment opportunities in manufacturing and the provision of services at globally competitive rates. The expansion of international trade resulting from globalisation is seen as increasing prosperity and encouraging democracy, and as being an incentive – at least between and among democracies – to avoiding the waging war (Weede 2004).

While it is evident that globalisation may be perceived as having both positive and negative effects, some have argued that globalisation – and indeed internationalisation – entails an

"inherent tendency to undermine the status quo" (Weede 2004:173). To be able to live and work in a 'global village' has its challenges and opportunities. In the realm of education and human resources, employers increasingly require employees to have certain global competencies such as cross-cultural communication skills, flexibility and adaptability in order to operate under different contexts and in different environments in the so called 'knowledge society/economy'. These employers also require a highly literate workforce with respect to the use of ICT in order to face the challenges of the 'information age'.

In the past, national systems of higher education were able to educate competent graduates to face the challenges of national economies. However, now, more than ever before, a need is apparent for graduates who are not only competent within their national borders, but who can extend their expertise to other parts of the world and into new and dynamic contexts. National systems of higher education in isolation are therefore increasingly viewed as inadequate for producing graduates for global citizenship; hence there is a rising demand from both graduates and employers for some form of international education[9].

Incorporating an international dimension into higher education can take many different forms, including studying a foreign language, undertaking country-specific fieldwork and study visits, or voluntary service abroad. In recent years, spending a semester studying abroad has become popular if not compulsory for many students in Europe and the USA. Over and above this 'study abroad' opportunity, seeking access to basic higher education has been a necessity for many students from developing countries that lack higher education infrastructure or capacity. For this group, access to higher education has been provided more recently by means of transnational or borderless education[10].

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[9] In this respect, Aart Scholte (2005:356) states: "University curricula have also generally lagged well behind globalization … substantial coverage of globalization is still absent from most humanities and social science programmes. Moreover, all too often, newfangled 'global studies' curricula have been scarcely distinguishable from the 'international studies' offerings that preceded them. Hence most of today's degree recipients – opinion leaders of the next generation – finish university with little more education on globality and its governance than when they started".

[10] Examples of 'transnational, borderless or cross-border' education are distance education, branch campuses, offshore programmes and campuses, twinning programmes, franchise arrangements, branch campuses and virtual or electronic programmes and institutions (de Wit 2001:xiii). "Cross-border activities are often motivated by profit" (CHE 2004:212). Transnational education is considered beyond the scope of this thesis.

The number of international students[11] seeking access to South African higher education began to grow from the early 1990s and increased dramatically in the immediate post-apartheid period. Over the last decade, South African higher education institutions have found themselves at the confluence of two sets of student inflows: a major current from neighbouring countries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC)[12] and Anglophone (Commonwealth) African countries, and a minor current from European and North American students. For the former group, full-time undergraduate and some postgraduate education is an imperative, while for the latter group the opportunity to experience life in a developing country makes them more competitive.

In addition to serving the needs of international students, South African higher education institutions have been serving a greatly expanding population of local students. Since 1994 and the ending of apartheid, they have had to undertake major structural changes. These dual demands for national reform as well as global integration have placed severe constraints on the whole higher education sector.

Other manifestations of internationalisation at South African higher education institutions, some of which fall outside the scope of this research, include the signing of numerous post-apartheid exchange and cooperation agreements[13]; staff exchanges, mainly from incoming US or European academics and researchers; research visits by US or European doctoral candidates or post- doctoral fellows; undertaking collaborative research related to societies in transition, crime, poverty, and more recently, HIV & AIDS; South African postgraduate students sponsored to study abroad; research training/mentorships and funding provided by international partners/donors[14] for South African post-graduate development; increased funding and donors' insistent about sending students from the rest of the African continent to

[11] In this study, the term 'international students' refers to all non-South African students seeking university education in South Africa. This term is preferred because it is less alienating and has no negative connotations, unlike the term 'foreign students' so characteristic of the literature from the 1980s.
[12] See Appendix A for a list of SADC countries.
[13] Many of these agreements are inactive, and were entered into at a time when it was very fashionable to have a partner institution in South Africa or for South African institutions to have overseas partners. As a colleague of mine, Dr Prem Ramlachan at the University of Durban Westville noted, many of these are NATO agreements are "No Action, Talk Only", pun intended (personal communication, September, 2000).
[14] One such scheme is the Mellon postgraduate mentorship programme, offered at WITS University. Another noteworthy example is the Spencer Postgraduate Fellowship for research in Education. This is a joint venture between the US-based Spencer Foundation and a consortium of South African universities namely, WITS, UCT, UWC, UKZN, and UDW. I participated in some of these doctoral seminars and in Summer/Winter Schools in South Africa.

South Africa rather than overseas for higher education and training; and the mushrooming of private tertiary education providers[15].

Other initiatives include the participation of foreign advisors in consultative structures leading to the formulation of (higher) education policy[16]; the inauguration of the International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA) in 1997; the formulation of internationalisation policy and strategic frameworks at some higher education institutions as well as by the Committee of Technikon Principals (CTP) in the late 1990s; the marketing of South African higher education institutions abroad under a single banner[17]; the professionalisation of international education administrators at South African higher education institutions under the auspices of IEASA; the launch of a Code of Ethical Practice for international education professionals by IEASA, liaison with government departments, the South African University Vice Chancellors' Association (SAUVCA), the CTP[18] and other stakeholders with respect to internationalisation by IEASA; the government's more flexible response to issuing study visas and work permits to foreign nationals; regional initiatives such as the SADC Protocol on Education and Training (1997); and supranational developments such as South Africa's commitment to human resource development on the African continent and broader New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)[19] initiatives.

However, despite these achievements, internationalisation has been and remains a peripheral issue on the agenda of government policymakers and is handled on an *ad hoc* basis, with no long-term vision or strategic considerations. A number of larger, historically advantaged institutions (HAIs) have been proactive and given internationalisation strategic consideration. These are a minority, and on the whole, internationalisation is not a central issue for the majority of South African higher education institutions which have been preoccupied with the

[15] See for example: Subotzky (2002, 2003) and Mabizela (2004).
[16] For example, the Outcomes Based Education, Curriculum 2005 and the NCHE (1996) report. A less visible form of internationalisation has been the impact of foreign discourses on South African (higher) education policy formulation. Both Sehoole (2002) and Kraak (2004) confirm this. While Sehoole has identified the secondment of foreign consultants in key policy formulating bodies such as the NCHE and the Outcome Based Education for schooling policy, Kraak has analysed the impact of several competing discourses – both local and global – on higher education policy formulation in South Africa in the period 1990–2002.
[17] This initiative was spearheaded by IEASA, and since 2002 has been marketed under the logo 'Study SA'. I was the IEASA coordinator for the first few years of this new venture.
[18] SAUVCA and the CTP merged in May 2005 to form Higher Education South Africa, which represents the leadership of the merged higher education sector (SAUVCA, *s.a.*).
[19] The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) is a vision and strategic framework for Africa's renewal (Department of Foreign Affairs [DFA] 1996).

national agenda of transformation. Against this background of dramatic change, a need for exploratory research into internationalisation became apparent.

1.2 AIM OF THE RESEARCH AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary aim of this research was to explore the responses of the South African public higher education sector to one dimension of internationalisation namely, international student influx, in the immediate post-apartheid period between 1994 and 2001. This entailed the following secondary aims:

i. Examining the background, status, rationales, models of, and approaches to internationalisation in selected South African public higher education institutions.
ii. Identifying and comparing internationalisation strategies at these institutions.
iii. Locating internationalisation trajectories within the context of the SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and Training.
iv. Determining the role of relevant national and international agencies in the process, for example, SAUVCA, CTP, IEASA, and the Departments of Education, Home Affairs, and Foreign Affairs.
v. Examining the role of (international) student formations in the process.
vi. Examining the relationship between internationalisation and South Africa's foreign policy and international relations.

By investigating the establishment of international office structures at five South African public universities, the research could also examine the emerging policy on the internationalisation of South African (public) higher education. The policy was emerging at a number of levels: individual institutions, national statutory bodies such as the CTP, professional associations such as the IEASA, and certain government departments including the Departments of Education (DoE) and Home Affairs. However, policy research did not constitute the core of the present study.

In pursuit of the above aims, a number of research questions were formulated. The central research question was "How has the South African public higher education sector responded to the challenges of internationalisation in the immediate post-apartheid period (1994-

2001)?". This central question was formulated on the basis of the following foreground (i-iv) and background (v-vii) questions:

i. What is the nature and extent of internationalisation at selected South African public higher education institutions?
ii. What are the rationales, strategies and approaches for the internationalisation of South African public higher education institutions?
iii. What 'pull' factors motivate international student mobility to South African public higher education institutions?
iv. What are the current policies of public higher education institutions, the South African government, and other organisations regarding internationalisation?
v. What regional and continental developments have a bearing on the internationalisation of public higher education in South Africa?
vi. What are the trends in the enrolment of international students at selected South African public universities and more broadly within the public higher education sector?
vii. How do these trends reflect or reinforce disparities between higher education institutions?

The answers to these questions will provide as complete an analysis as is possible of international student movement to post-apartheid South Africa, a focus of this thesis. This entails an examination of the actual phenomenon, including its background and context, and an exegesis of how it manifests itself in a cross-section of South African public universities, along with the responses of these universities and other organisations to the influx of international students.

1.3 RATIONALE

Although a voluminous global literature on the subject of international student mobility exists, when this research was initiated in the mid-1990s, very little literature was available about internationalisation and student mobility within the African continent and even less similar materials relating to the South African public higher education sector. A gap in the literature therefore existed, which the current research sought to address. A study of the

internationalisation of the South African public higher education sector is important for several reasons. To date no comprehensive publication[20] about the process of internationalisation of the public higher education sector in South Africa exists. It was also difficult to obtain credible national statistics regarding the overall numbers and the profile of international students studying at South African higher education institutions. In addition, limited literature exists with respect to the main role-players who are involved in internationalisation. Moreover, no written description of the professionalisation of those promoting international student mobility was apparent at the time of initiating the research, although a great deal of progress has been made in this respect, mainly under the auspices of IEASA, which was inaugurated in 1997.

Further, the absence of a national policy for the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa has led to frustration on the part of leading international education administrators and practitioners driving this process within their institutions.[21] In addition, there is a growing realisation – both in South Africa and internationally – of a lack of comprehensive information and theoretical frameworks for research in international student mobility with the increasing internationalisation of higher education systems.[22]

Therefore, this study was intended to make a contribution to knowledge in several ways. It would fill an important gap with respect to the body of knowledge on the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa in particular and more broadly on the African continent. It would provide statistical data and the profiles of international students enrolled in South African universities for the period 1994 to 2001. Further, it would explore the contribution of key role-players involved in internationalisation, shed light on the policies concerning internationalisation as adopted by selected South African universities, and provide a comparative perspective for examining these policies within a national and sectoral framework. At the national level, the findings would inform those involved in policy formulation, such as the universities, the Department of Education (Higher Education

[20] The most comprehensive publication to date is a report published in 1999 by the Education Policy Unit (EPU) of the University of the Western Cape which was commissioned by the Department of Education. I was invited to conceptualise the research and was a member of the research team. This report was more factual and did not adequately explore the context for the internationalisation of the South African higher education sector.
[21] This sentiment has been echoed in IEASA circles and among international education practitioners known to the researcher, although the sentiment is not documented.
[22] See for example Blumenthal *et al.* (1996).

Division), the Department of Home Affairs and other relevant stakeholders. In addition, the study would explore socio-political contexts for the internationalisation of the South African higher education sector and propose some strategies for dealing with the process of internationalisation.

As the fieldwork progressed, many of the issues that arose with respect to South African universities were recognised to have been of concern to countries leading internationalisation elsewhere in the world. Some of these issues were discussed by a team of experts from around the world at a colloquium in Wassenaar in the Netherlands in November 1992. The themes at this colloquium, as summarised by Blumenthal, Craufurd, Smith and Teichler (1996), were incorporated into the research aims and questions where appropriate and are addressed in the findings.

It was noted at the Wassennaar Colloquium that "research into academic mobility is not simply a matter to be dealt with at the level of higher education institutions" (Blumenthal *et al*. 1996:354-355). The political, economic and social contexts affecting academic mobility and the policies related to them need to be viewed holistically at the national, regional and supranational levels. In addition, information about the identity and objectives of the various "actors" taking part in academic mobility is required, including students, senior scholars, governments, international organisations, and private foundations (Goodwin & Nacht 1991:360). Moreover, the internationalisation of higher education institutions should be viewed as a systematic process, in other words, in terms of transforming academic mobility into mainstream rather than marginal activities. Furthermore, more basic information is required about, amongst other factors, major patterns of educational and administrative support provided by institutions of higher education for internationally mobile students; examples of good practice and simple descriptions of cases; and statistical overviews (Blumenthal *et al*. 1996).

My desire to contribute to the research on international student mobility arose out of several factors: I was an international student myself; I have lived in several countries and have multiple cultural identities that are the result of being educated in different cultures and contexts; the inception of IEASA in 1997 and my active involvement in developing a research dimension within the association as convener of its research committee and later, the coordinator of a joint venture by South African higher education institutions to market

themselves in North America by participating at the NAFSA[23] conference and exhibition; my involvement in leading a research project commissioned by the South African (national) Department of Education in 1998[24]; my employment at the former University of Port Elizabeth[25] International Office; and my ongoing interest in internationalisation.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

This research is an exploratory study using a combined method *research design* which may be referred to as a "two-phase" or "mixed-method" design. The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was thought to be ideal since the research questions would yield findings which were both of a qualitative and quantitative nature. However, although this study involved a mixed-method design, it leaned towards qualitative methods.

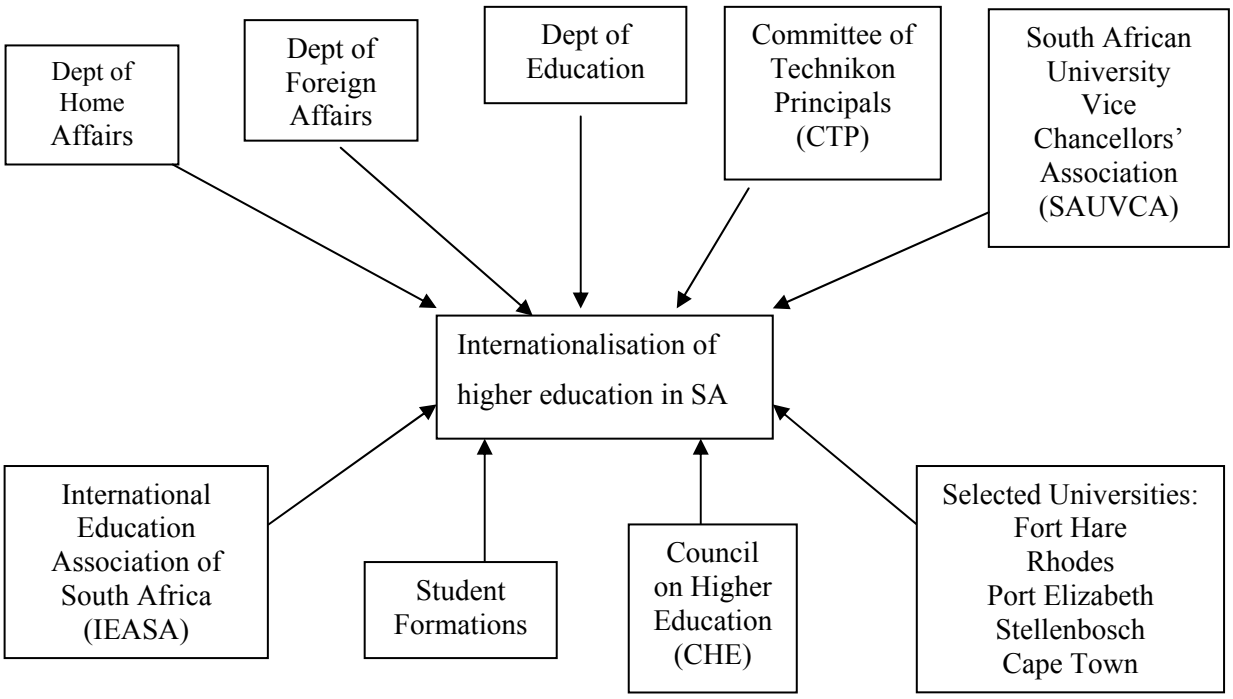
In order to explore the responses of the South African public higher education sector to international student influx between 1994 and 2001, a critical *tour d'horizon* of internationalisation was undertaken. In accordance with Knight's (2006) framework for actors involved in internationalisation outlined in Chapter 2 (Section 2.5), the key national role players in South Africa were identified (in Chapter 5) and a sample selected on the basis of the framework for this study as illustrated in Figure 1.

The key role players sampled include government departments, the higher education sector, and other associations. The three main government Departments are Education, Home Affairs, and Foreign Affairs. The higher education sector[26] is represented by the advisory CHE, the SAUVCA, the CTP, selected institutions within the case studies, and student formations. Other role players include the IEASA. A majority of these role players constituted the *sample* for this study, as is explained in Chapter 4.

[23] NAFSA is the Association of International Educators in the United States of America (www.nafsa.org).
[24] The project was conducted by the Education Policy Unit of the University of the Western Cape and a report published in 1999.
[25] The University of Port Elizabeth in now known as the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.
[26] At the time of the study, SAUVCA and CTP were two separate entities representing universities and technikons. However, following the transformation of the higher education sector and the merger of many universities and technikons, in February 2005, SAUVCA and CTP merged into one entity, HESA, representing the joint South African higher education sector.

In addressing the research questions, the research distinguished between units of analysis and units of observation. The *units of analysis* about which data were collected, were international students as a collective and selected universities as case studies. The *units of observation*, from which data were collected, included international students as collectivities, personnel involved in international student activities at selected universities, government personnel involved in internationalisation activities, associations such as the SAUVCA, CTP, IEASA, and a few other role players. Additionally national data on international student enrolment trends were gathered from most higher education institutions or the Department of Education. Primary and secondary data were gathered through document analysis and semi-structured interviews. The interviews were transcribed and content analysed manually to generate emerging themes from which the conclusions are drawn.

Figure 1: Internationalisation of higher education in South Africa: Key role players sampled.



1.5 DELIMITATIONS

It is not within the main purview of this thesis to explore the benefits of internationalisation to the host country, its students or to international students other than those mentioned in passing in Chapter 12. The assumption is made that internationalisation does benefit both home and

visiting students and that it is beneficial to the South African higher education sector at large, while acknowledging that the nature of the benefits remain open to question. Although a variety of higher education institutions exist in South Africa, this research focused on *public* institutions in which the majority of higher education students are enrolled as opposed to private service providers. Further, the focus was on universities and not technikons. Moreover, only two dimensions of internationalisation are investigated, namely student mobility and institutional/organisational strategies and responses[27].

Several reasons exist for the focus on universities. At the time of the research, the majority of international students were enrolled at universities. The different management and curriculum structures of technikons were not familiar, and I opted to focus on universities in order to ensure a deeper understanding of the case studies. In addition, inclusion of technikons in the institutional sample was not possible due to time and financial constraints. However, a few technikons were visited and the technikon sector's internationalisation policy is reviewed for the purposes of comparison.

Within the university sector, five institutions constituted the case studies for this research. These institutions were selected by purposive sampling on the basis of criteria as stipulated in Chapter 4. In addition, national data on international student enrolment trends were also gathered and analysed. Further, the study did not focus on cross-border or transnational private higher education providers. To the extent possible, and given the resources available, the pertinent national, SADC, continental and broader international developments influencing the internationalisation process have been discussed. However, national policy issues *per se* did not fall within the main purview of this thesis. The period under review was from 1994 to 2001, although literature as late as 2006 has been cited. This was the immediate post-apartheid phase during which both international student influx and higher education transformation were in full swing. Simultaneously, South Africa was beginning to assert its independence and was reintegrated into global affairs. While the case studies are of historical value, they provide a 'slice in time' or 'snapshot' of internationalisation of the South African

[27] These two dimensions are adopted from Rudzki's (1993) model, the other two dimensions being staff development and curriculum innovation. Whereas he identified four key dimensions of internationalisation, Smith (1993:9) has identified five dimensions, which include students, academic staff, courses and curricula, certification/recognition and governance/management. In South Africa, the most pronounced dimension over the last ten years has been (inward) student mobility.

public higher education sector. It must be borne in mind that since the research was conducted, many developments have occurred in these institutions and the scenarios painted have undergone some change although the comparative trends still apply.

I have selected to use the first person to write this thesis where appropriate. This is acceptable practice among many authors, for example Meloy (1994:10). Further, the referencing adopted is in accordance with the Harvard system, and in adherence with the University of the Witwatersrand style for theses. Furthermore, South African English has been adopted throughout as the standard lexicon.

1.6 THESIS OUTLINE

This thesis is made up of three parts, A, B and C. Part A (Chapters 1 to 5) provides an introduction and background to the thesis and research design. Part B (Chapters 6 to 10) paints a detailed picture of the five institutional case studies, while Part C (Chapters 11 to 13) brings the thesis to closure. A detailed chapter outline follows.

In Part A, the introduction in Chapter 1 identified the purpose of the study, the research questions, the parameters, and the rationale for the study. Chapter 2 undertakes a review of the literature on the internationalisation of higher education. Both international as well as South African sources are reviewed. In Chapter 3 a conceptual framework is developed which may explain the contemporary contexts for the internationalisation of public higher education institutions in South Africa. The research design and methodology are elaborated in Chapter 4 where, the case is presented for a mixed-method research design as well as the criteria for the purposive selection of institutional case studies. Chapter 5 provides an overview of the South African higher education system and the post-apartheid wave of transformation within which internationalisation developed.

Part B presents the unique features of the five institutional case studies, namely, the Universities of Fort Hare, Rhodes, Port Elizabeth, Stellenbosch and Cape Town respectively. Part C begins with Chapter 11, where a comparative cross-case analysis of the five institutions is undertaken and institutional responses to international student influx are presented. Next an analysis is presented in Chapter 12 of national enrolment trends and the variables which affect student mobility to South African public higher education institutions. The thesis concludes in

Chapter 13 with a summary *tour d'horizon* of the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa, followed by a number of recommendations for change that grew out of the findings in this thesis.

CHAPTER 2
INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: A REVIEW OF THE SCHOLARLY LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a review of selected scholarly literature relevant to internationalisation, going from the 1980s up to 2006. The literature reviewed was selected on the basis of its relevance to the current research, in particular, defining the term internationalisation; analysing the dimensions and manifestations of internationalisation; identifying existing analytical and conceptual models and using these models to frame the research design, the delimitations, and the framework for the current study; identifying the trends in international student mobility globally but more specifically within South Africa; and identifying South African literature about internationalisation. While much of the scholarly literature about internationalisation is reviewed in this chapter, the literature pertaining to globalisation and its relationship to internationalisation, will be reviewed in Chapter 3.

Towards these ends, this chapter first discusses the evolving definitions that have been used to describe the internationalisation of higher education and the range of activities that the term covers. Next, rationales or motives for internationalisation are identified. This is followed by a review of the literature relating to the implementation of a programme of internationalisation, including the strategies adopted, the stakeholders involved, and models of commitment, from low- to high-priority support. The chapter continues with an analysis of the literature about international student mobility and is followed by a brief conclusion that underlines the relative dearth of nationally important studies about internationalisation that are appropriate to South Africa.

2.2 EVOLVING DEFINITIONS OF INTERNATIONALISATION

While ‘internationalisation’ of higher education began to emerge as a specific concept or term in its own right in Europe and North America in the 1980s (Knight 2006), “there have always been many different terms used” (De Wit 2006) to describe the international dimension in education. Most of these terms are either curriculum related, referring for example to programmes in international studies, global studies, multi-cultural education or peace

education, or are mobility related, to cover, for example, study abroad, student and academic staff exchanges and other forms of academic mobility (De Wit 2006). Having undertaken a comparison of the meanings of the terms 'international education' and 'internationalisation of higher education', De Wit (2001) observes that while the two concepts have been used interchangeably, they are defined differently in the European and US contexts and also depend on historical developments. Whereas American authors generally used 'international education' to "emphasise activities, rationales, competencies and/or ethos", for non-American authors from Europe, Canada and Australia, "the use of the term 'internationalisation of higher education' is a reflection of the emphasis on the process" (De Wit 2001:104). Further, he notes that from a historical perspective, 'international education' reflected the period between World War II and the end of the Cold War and is more frequently found in the United States, whilst 'internationalisation of higher education' reflects the period starting with the end of the Cold War and is more predominant in Europe, Canada and Australia . Although I agree with De Wit's contextual definition of the two terms, from my experience, 'internationalization' in the USA is also used to describe a process.

From a more European perspective, Wachter (2004) is of the view that there are two types of internationalisation. While 'old internationalisation' focussed on the mobility of students and scholars, exchanges and development cooperation, 'new internationalisation' deals with joint international activities related to the structural and regulatory aspects of higher education systems, such as lifelong learning, online education and quality assurance. Knight (2006) apparently concurs with this view when she concludes that while 'international education' generally refers to activities such as receiving foreign students, student exchange and study abroad, academic staff international mobility and development projects, 'internationalisation' is a more comprehensive, all-embracing term that relates to not just institutional but also national goals, policies, strategies and activities. The term is used to refer to "the international dimension of all aspects of higher education, not just specific activities" (Knight 2006:43).

In fact, Knight is one of the authors whose definitions of internationalisation have been widely accepted and used in the literature, as confirmed by De Wit (2001:105). Her understanding of the concept has evolved over the years. In her earlier work (1997b:29), she defined internationalisation as the "process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution". Having noted some of the limitations of this definition, for example, that it is institution-based (Van der Wende 1997),

Knight (2006:44) updated her earlier definition to take into account both the institutional and the broader implications of the term, such as national policies and agencies. Her later works thus define internationalisation as the "process of integrating an international and intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education". However, it is Knight's earlier (1997b) definition of internationalisation that is adopted in this thesis as being appropriate to the institution-based case studies which are at the heart of this study.

As internationalisation has developed both in practice and as an area of research, in addition to Knight's two definitions, an array of other definitions[28] of internationalisation have been proposed by both European and North American authors as well as by practitioners and researchers. These definitions are, however, not unproblematic, and despite the existence of Knight's commonly accepted definitions, internationalisation remains a contested term. This goes to show that it is still an emerging field.

Inevitably, definitions of 'internationalisation' are context related. Internationalisation in the context of South Africa is somewhat different to that in Europe, North America and Australia. For example, while internationalisation in Europe has a longer history and has been taking place in the context of intra-regional (EU) student mobility and exchange programmes such as ERASMUS, there are no nation-to-nation student mobility programmes within the SADC. Rather the bulk of the SADC students constitute inflows to South African higher education institutions, mainly by self-financed individual students, with pockets of support from some SADC governments such as Botswana. The contexts for the internationalisation of the South African public higher education sector are examined at length in Chapter 3. Having taken these contexts into consideration and based on Knight's (2004) definition, SAUVCA (2004:14) proposed a customised, working definition of internationalisation in the South African context in November 2004:

> Internationalisation of South African higher education is defined by the sector as the process of integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of higher education, bearing in mind South Africa's internal development challenges and its

[28] See for example definitions of internationalisation by Arum and Van de Water (1992), De Wit (2001, 2006), EAIE (1992), Van der Wende (1996, 1997), AUCC (1993), AVCC (in Hamilton 1998), OECD (1994 in Knight & De Wit 1995b), Teekens (s.a.), Soderqvist (2001).

> responsibilities towards the development of higher education in the region and the continent.

This definition emphasises the importance of a responsible sectoral approach that aligns the international dimension of South African higher education with national, regional and continental development needs, and downplays the economic rationale. It is subject to change as the development needs of South Africa and the SADC region change in time.

The concept of "internationalisation at home" was proposed by Wachter (2000:6) to refer to "any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility". This definition is relevant in the context of South Africa where international student flows are mainly inward and – at least until the present - hardly any organised outflows are apparent. The internationalisation of curricula and the campus in general are alternative ways of "integrating an international dimension" for local students. However, these measures are generally not operational at most South African higher education institutions.

Most authors have identified four or five essential components or dimensions to internationalisation. For example, Rudzki (1993) identifies four: student mobility, staff development, curriculum innovation, and organisational strategies and responses; Smith (1993:9) distinguishes between five in all, namely, students, academic staff, courses and curricula, certification/recognition, and governance/management. While Kerr (1994:12-13) identifies four elements, namely, the flow of new knowledge, the flow of scholars, the flow of students and the content of the curriculum, for Scott (1998:116-117) these dimensions centre around student flows, the flow of academic staff, the flow of ideas, and institutional collaboration. Only two dimensions of internationalisation, namely, international student flows and institutional strategies and responses delimit the focus of the present study. These two dimensions of internationalisation have become more prominent in South Africa since the early 1990s, the most noticeable part thereof being the international student influx from the SADC. Thus, literature on these two dimensions is most pertinent to my study and constitutes the bulk of the literature reviewed in this chapter.

With the rise of globalisation that is characterised by the so called 'shrinking' of time and space due to the ICT revolution and with increased international mobility and the

displacement of peoples, other forms of international education or internationalisation have also emerged in the last 10 to 15 years, especially given the diminishing role of nation states, the fluidity of national borders, the increased demand for access to higher education in the modern knowledge economy/society, and the increased entrepreneurial activities by higher education institutions due to fiscal pressures emanating from cuts in public spending on higher education. These forms of international education include distance education, borderless education, trans-national education, virtual universities, satellite campuses, franchises, and off-shore and twinning programmes (De Wit 2001; Knight 2006). While these forms are beyond the scope of this thesis, they need to be mentioned in order to place South African public higher education in the broad context of global trends. In Chapter 3, the internationalisation of the South African public higher education sector will be analysed in relation not only to the SADC countries but also to the larger phenomenon of globalisation.

2.3 RATIONALES OR MOTIVES FOR INTERNATIONALISATION

Rationales address the 'why' of internationalisation. What motivates higher education institutions and the higher education sector to internationalise? Four main rationales or motives have been proposed by Knight and De Wit (1995b), De Wit (2001, 2006), and Knight (1997b, 2006). These are political, economic, social and cultural, and academic. They are not mutually exclusive, but can coexist simultaneously and overlap. Rationales vary in importance over time; for example, whereas during the Cold War the political rationale was a priority for countries such as the USA or the Soviet Union, in the current era of globalisation, the economic rationale is often the driving force behind the internationalisation agenda of many a higher education institution. Rationales can impact upon internationalisation both positively and negatively, for example, the relatively open-door policy of the US government with respect to international student immigration became more restrictive after the 11 September 2001 attacks (De Wit 2006). This has had led to a drop in international student numbers in the USA.

Rationales can have different priority levels for stakeholders within the higher education sector. For example, whereas the social/cultural rationales may be the predominant motivations for the government, the economic rationale may predominate for some higher education institutions. In addition, different rationales dominate the international agenda of different higher education institutions. For example, at larger research universities, the

academic and socio-cultural rationales may predominate, whereas for smaller institutions, the economic rationale could predominate. Examples of these rationales are highlighted in the case study Chapters 6-10 and summarised in Chapter 13. In addition to the above four broad categories of rationales, the 'moral' rationale emerged as a rationale for the South African government to open access to its higher education sector to SADC students. The SADC countries played a critical supportive role during the struggle against apartheid. Once the new government came into power, it had a moral debt to repay its neighbours. One expression of fulfilling this moral obligation is through the SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and Training. More is said about this Protocol in Chapter 5.

Knight (2006) further distinguishes among the wide range of rationales fuelling internationalisation at the institutional and national levels. At the institutional level, the motivating factors include branding and a positive international profile, student and staff development, income generation, strategic alliances, and research and knowledge production. At the national level, the rationales include human resource development, strategic alliances, commercial trade, nation building, and socio-cultural developments. These rationales are summarised in Table 1 overleaf.

Knight (2006:50) observes that the relationship between national and institutional level rationales

> depends on many factors, one of which is how much the internationalisation process is a bottom-up or top-down process within any country… In countries where internationalisation is not given much prominence at the national level, institutional rationales have greater importance and may also differ more from one institution to another.

Given the absence of a national policy framework on internationalisation of higher education in South Africa, institutional level rationales do have a greater impact on current practice as shall be noted in Chapters 5 to 10. Further, Knight explains:

> There are many factors that influence institutional level rationales. They range from mission, student population, faculty profile, geographic location, funding sources, level of resources and orientation to local, national and international interests (2006:50).

Table 1. Rationales Driving Internationalisation

Rationales	Existing: National and Institutional combined	Of emerging importance: National and institutional Separated
Socio-cultural	• National cultural identity • Intercultural understanding • Citizenship development • Social and Community Development	National level • Human resources development • Strategic alliances • Commercial trade • Nation building • Social and cultural development Institutional level • International branding and profile • Income generation • Student and staff development • Strategic alliances • Knowledge production
Political	• Foreign policy • National security • Technical assistance • Peace and mutual understanding • National identity • Regional identity	
Economic	• Economic growth and competitiveness • Labour market • Financial incentives	
Academic	• International dimension to research and teaching • Extension of academic horizon • Institution building • Profile and status • Enhancement of quality • International academic standards	

Source: Knight 2006.

Her observation holds true in the case of South Africa. As shall be observed in Chapters 5 to 10, largely because of apartheid, South African higher education institutions have had an uneven and unequal history. These disparities have given rise to diverse institutional profiles that have inevitably influenced the institutional level rationales for and trajectories of internationalisation. Irrespective of the factors that influence institutional level rationales, I agree with Knight (2006:52) that stakeholders should express clearly their "motivations for internationalisation, as policies, programmes, strategies and outcomes are all linked and guided by explicit and even implicit rationales". The institutional rationales for internationalisation are analysed at length in Chapters 6 to 10 and compared in Chapters 11 and 13.

2.4 STRATEGIES, POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

Based on the framework developed by Knight and De Wit (e.g. 1995a & 1995b), Knight (2006) identifies internationalisation strategies, policies and programmes. Knight (1997a, 2006) uses the term 'internationalisation strategies' to go beyond international activities to imply the notion of a planned and integrated approach. She distinguishes between programme and organisational strategies at the institutional level, and between national, sectoral and

institutional level policies and programmes. Programme strategies include academic programmes, research and scholarly collaboration, external relations, and extra curricular activities, while organisational strategies refer to governance, operations, services, and human resources.

Policies and programmes pertain to three levels, namely, national, sectoral and institutional (Knight 2006). At the national-sectoral level, all policies that affect or are affected by an international dimension of education are included. This can include policies related to foreign relations, development aid, trade, immigration, employment, science and technology and others. At the sector level, the policies include licensing, accreditation, funding, curricula, teaching and research. At the institutional level, policies could have a narrow as well as a broad interpretation. A narrow interpretation would include the mission statement, study abroad policies, student recruitment, international linkages and partnerships, and cross-border delivery. A broader interpretation would include directives, planning documents and statements. Programmes can be viewed as a policy instrument, namely, one of the ways policy is translated into action. Institutional level strategies are examined in Chapters 6 to 11.

2.5 STAKEHOLDERS INVOLVED IN INTERNATIONALISATION

Knight (2006:52) is of the opinion that "it is important to examine the different levels and types of actors involved in the promotion, provision and regulation of the international dimension of higher education". Due to the diminishing role of the nation state, "any analysis of internationalisation must therefore go beyond the nation-state as key actor and look at other levels of actors" (*ibid.*). Table 2 (overleaf) provides a framework for addressing the growth in number and diversity of actors/stakeholders involved in internationalisation. There are different stakeholders, for example, government departments, non-governmental organisations, foundations, and education providers. In terms of their functions, they are policymakers, regulators, funders and mediators. Their activities include student mobility, research and development, curriculum, scholarships and quality assurance. The key role players contributing to the internationalisation of public higher education in South Africa, as illustrated in Figure 1 is an application of Knight's framework.

Table 2. Framework for Actors Involved in Internationalisation

Type	Level or scope	Role	Activity
• Government departments or agencies • Non or semi-government organisations • Professional associations • Foundations • Providers	• National • Bilateral • Sub-regional • Regional • Inter-regional • International	• Policymaking • Regulating • Funding • Programming • Networking	For example: • Scholarships • Academic mobility • Research • Curriculum • Quality assurance • Science and technology

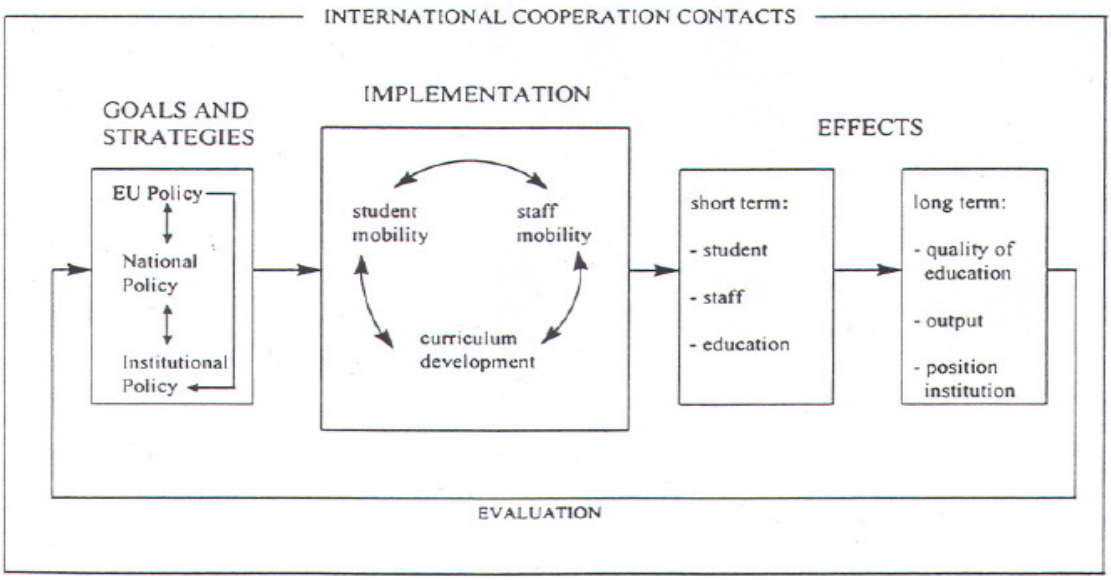
Source: Knight 2006.

2.6 MODELS OF AND APPROACHES TO INTERNATIONALISATION

A number of organisational models for the internationalisation of higher education exist in the literature that has been succinctly reviewed by De Wit (2001). These include the models formulated by Neave (1992:168), Rudzki (1998:216-218), Davies (1995:16), Van Dijk (1995:20), Van der Wende (1996:8), and Knight (1994:12). Two of these models, selected on the basis of their relevance to the present study, are summarised here. While the first model (also known as the Nuffic model) analyses the process approach to internationalisation and the relationship between goals and strategies and the implementation and effects of internationalisation, the second model (of Davies) focuses on institutional approaches to internationalisation.

In the Nuffic model (based on Van der Wende 1992, 1994), presented in Figure 2, the internationalisation of higher education is depicted as a process taking place within a higher education institution. Supra-national governments and higher education institutions formulate the goals and strategies. During the implementation phase, three interrelated elements, namely, students, staff and curriculum, plan a key role. The effects of internationalisation are both long term and short term and evaluation could lead to a redefinition of the goals and strategies (Van der Wende 1996). In Chapter 3, a conceptual macro model is developed to explain the contexts for the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa.

Figure 2. Nuffic model for internationalisation of higher education (based on Van der Wende 1992, 1994).

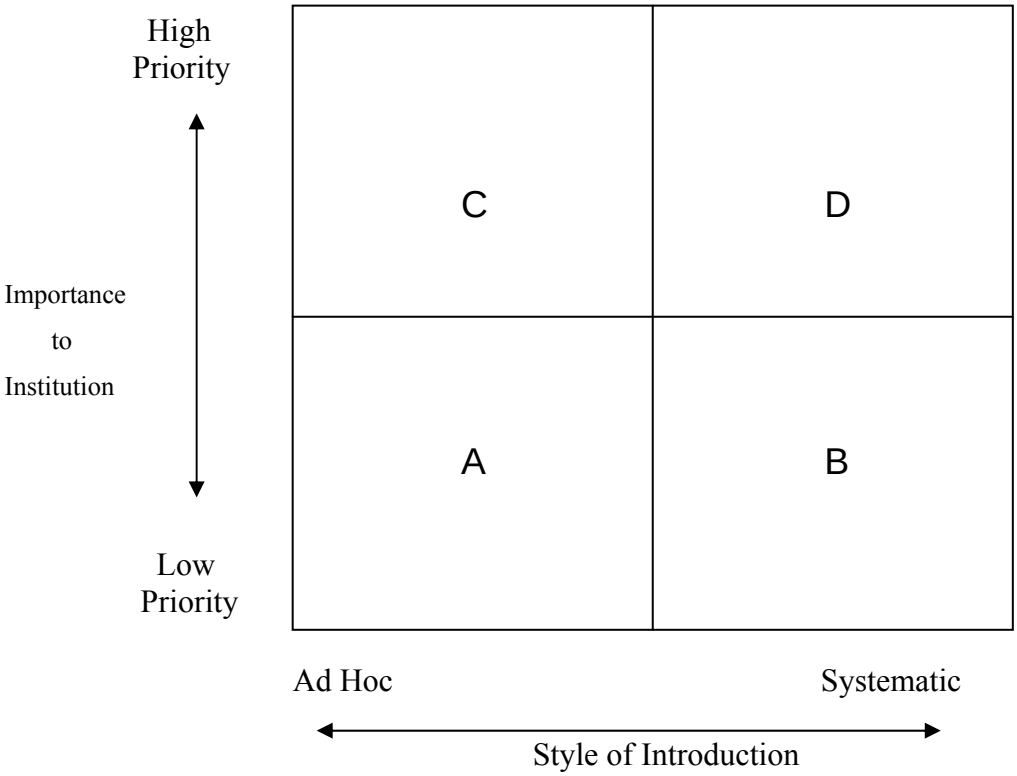


Source: Van der Wende (1996:8)

The Davies' (1995, 2003) model provides a framework for the institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation. It helps to indicate the level of commitment of an institution to internationalisation. An institution may have four broad responses, ranging from *ad hoc*-low priority, to systematic-low-priority, to *ad hoc*-high priority, to systematic-high priority. A slightly modified form of the Davies model is illustrated in Figure 3. The characteristics of institutional responses in each quadrant are detailed in Appendix E.

Of the models cited in the literature, the Davies' model is the most pertinent to my study and has been used first in Chapter 4 as a basis to select the institutional case studies and later in Chapters 6 to 11 and 13, to compare and contrast institutional approaches to internationalisation. Its usefulness lies in its simplicity and general applicability to diverse institutional profiles.

Figure 3: The modified Davies model for institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation.



Source: Modified from Davies (1995, 2003).

2.7 TRENDS IN THE LITERATURE ON INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY

In the study of international student mobility, much research is still to be done. The professional literature has examined a number of issues, including policy at various levels from local to national, questions of adaptation to a foreign environment and the consequences of globalisation. Statistical analyses and individual (institutional) case studies have been carried out. Little attention has been paid to the actual educational process as it affects foreign students, however, or the national or domestic effects of sending students abroad for an education. As a major receiving nation, South Africa is in a unique position among the countries of the developing world, and much research is needed to fill out the picture about international students in South Africa.

This section provides a review of a number of trends and themes identified in the international literature on international students' mobility. The literature was selected based on reference to specific terms and concepts. For example, while earlier literature refers to concepts such as 'foreign students'[29], 'international student mobility' or 'international education', in the 1990s and beyond, materials emerged which specifically made use of 'internationalisation' as a central concept. This shift in the use of the terms also indicates a shift in thinking about international student mobility as part of the bigger picture of internationalisation, itself a manifestation of globalisation. It should also be noted that while statistical data on international students trends and flows is available as compiled by national and international agencies such as the Institute of International Education[30], the European Union[31] and UNESCO, "information concerning the Third World remains the most difficult to obtain" (Altbach & Wang 1989:8).

In an attempt to frame a research agenda in the 1980s, Lulat (1984a, 1984b) and Altbach and Wang (1989) identified the following themes, among others, that required further research or new approaches: curricular issues; the microeconomics of foreign study; comparative studies; minority groups among foreign students, for example, women and refugees; privately funded students; foreign students from industrialised nations; the impact on academic institutions; the foreign student 'industry'; foreign scholars; and policies of home and host countries.

Although this list was compiled in the late 1980s, many of the issues in the list above had not been addressed in the South African literature on internationalisation in 2001 because internationalisation was a relatively new concept at the time. For example, although curriculum issues are a key dimension of internationalisation in Europe and North America, they were and are not at the forefront of the internationalisation agenda for most South African public higher education institutions. With regard to policy research, no national policy on internationalisation existed in 2001. Although a number of government documents

[29] Several different terms in the literature denote students who study outside their home country. These include foreign students, overseas students, study abroad students, exchange students, and international students. In this study, the preferred term is international students because it is the most inclusive.
[30] For example, the annual Open Doors reports.
[31] For example, Maiworm & Teichler (1995a, 1995b, 1996), Teichler (1996b), and Teichler *et al.* (1991, 1993).

on higher education emerged in the late 1990s, none of these[32] reports examined internationalisation. This would suggest that internationalisation was very much absent from mainstream national policy debates at the time.

At the risk of stating the obvious, international student mobility is "the movement of tertiary-level students from one country to another in quest of education or training" (Barber 1992:1020). Much of the literature about international students up to the 1990s concentrated on three major themes (Altbach 1991; Teichler 1996a)[33]. The first theme generally concerned cross-cultural and adaptational issues[34]; the second, the implications of international student mobility for national education policies and national economies[35]; and the third included evaluation studies[36] of international programmes, including international office activities, in their dealings with international student mobility. I would add two other items of relatively recent provenance to this list. One is the effect of globalisation on international student mobility, while the other – the fifth theme and less immediately obvious – emerges from a close reading of the literature. It is the increasing popularity of surveys and statistical analyses of student mobility in order to explore new trends in knowledge production and distribution. These studies emphasize the role played by developing countries[37] and highlight the fact that some developing countries are increasingly assuming the role of human resource development for other developing countries, a function that has previously been the province of developed countries.

It is clear from the reading that an overwhelming majority of studies have concentrated on the first two themes, namely, cross-cultural and adaptational issues and implications of

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[32] For example, the NCHE (1996) Report, the Education White Paper 3 (Department of Education 1997), the Higher Education Act of 1997, The Shape and Size (CHE 2000) report, the National Plan for Higher Education (Department of Education 2001) and so forth.

[6] For a detailed breakdown of these three aspects into 31 categories, the reader is referred to Altbach and Wang (1989).

[34] Allameh (1989), Burns (1991), Fouad (1991), Harvey & Stewart (1991), Heller & Geringer (1984), Moore (1987), Pedersen (1991), Siegel (1991), and Teichler & Steube (1991).

[35] Altbach (1985, 1989, 1991, 1998), Altbach & Kelly, (1984), Barber, Altbach & Myers (1984), Blaug (1981), Chandler (1985), Goodwin & Nacht (1991), Gucluol (1986), Haug (1996), Heller (1989), Jenkins *et al*.(1983), Lulat (1984a, 1984b), Maiworm & Teichler (1995a, 1995b), Mauch & Spaulding (1992), Nyborg (1996), Open Doors Reports, Rouhani & Paterson (1996), Schieffer (1991), Teichler et al. (1990, 1993), Teichler & Steube (1991), Throsby (1991), Weiler (1984), and Zikopulos (1989).

[36] Maiworm *et al*. (1992), Maiworm & Teichler (1995a, 1995b, 1996), Maiworm, Sosa & Teichler (1996), Teichler (1996b), Teichler *et al*. (1990, 1991), Teichler & Maiworm (1997), and Ville *et al*. (1996).

[37] Altbach, Kelly & Lulat (1985), Altbach & Wang (1989), Bown (1994), Council for Education in the Commonwealth (CEC) & UKCOSA (2000), Cummings (1988), Gopinathan & Shive (1988), and Maxey (2000).

international student mobility, and have failed to examine the actual education provided to international students in terms of the advantages and disadvantages it provides. This, in my view, is critical for understanding the impact that international education has had on sending countries, the majority of which are developing countries.

Issues pertaining to foreign students and study abroad in the Third World have not received much attention despite the fact that the issues have broad ramifications for higher education worldwide and reflect deep-seated inequalities between the Third World and industrialised nations (Altbach 1985, 1998; Selvaratnam 1988). Most literature on study abroad has been written by and from the perspective of the developed/host nations of the North, and only a small proportion reflects the perspectives of poor countries (Altbach 1991; Chandler 1989; Heller & Geringer 1984). Over half of the research on academic mobility and international education is published in the USA (Smith, Teichler & Van der Wende 1994), no doubt because US institutions were the first to establish large-scale, systematic programmes for international exchange. It is estimated that the USA, the UK, Canada and Australia, and more recently, Germany, France, Japan and the former Soviet Union, have produced about 75% of the literature about student mobility (Altbach & Wang 1989).

Under subtitles such as "The Overseas Student Question" (Williams 1981) or "The Foreign Student Dilemma" (Altbach 1985), much of this literature tends to focus either on student mobility between less developed countries and Europe or North America or within the European Union, or the experiences of foreign students from the Third World studying in developed countries (Teichler & Steube 1991). While far less material dealing with South-South mobility exists, signs of an emerging debate about student movement from the North to the South and among less developed countries are apparent (Altbach *et al*. 1985; Altbach & Wang 1989; Bown, 1994; Cummings 1988; Gopinathan & Shive 1988). The emergence of South Africa as a new destination for international study that attracts students from both the North as well as the South (developed in Chapter 3) is intended to contribute to this debate.

In the late 1980s, nearly 70% of all international students came from less developed countries, and 80% of these students studied in the OECD region (Wagner & Schnitzer 1991:277).This trend is ongoing. The United States of America (USA) is the undisputed leading host country, with just over 30% (481 280) of the total international student market (Bowles & Funk 1996). In the 2004/2005 academic year, the USA hosted 565 000 international students (Open Doors

2005, *s.a.*). In the early 1990s, there were about 180 000 African students engaged in study abroad (UNESCO 1994).

With respect to international students as a proportion of total higher education enrolment, it may be argued that in comparison to proportions of 10% for France and Belgium, 5% for Germany, 4.2% for the United Kingdom and 2.8% for the USA in the early 1990s (Altbach 1991), international student representation at South African universities was relatively small in the late 1990s at about 2%. However, South Africa's case is unique: having hitherto for obvious political reasons been a relatively unexplored territory for international students, the country has abruptly acquired immense potential as an emerging destination for international study. At the beginning of the New Millennium, South Africa emerged as the number one host country in Africa[38] and is among the top ten host nations in the world accommodating an estimated 52 000[39] international students.

Available data for the 1990s (Rouhani & Paterson 1996) indicated that eight out of every ten international students at South African universities were from the rest of the African continent, in other words, excluded SADC countries, and at least 50% were from Southern Africa (SADC countries[40]). These data indicate international student mobility between developing countries on the continent, with South Africa emerging as an academic metropole. Although existing debates have usefully described the global movement of students in other historical and geographical contexts, these debates fall short of explaining the current emergence of South Africa as a destination. With the emergence of a new world order, the desire to "broaden experience" (Lawrence Doorbar & Associates [LD&A] 1997) in order to obtain a "global imagination" (Rizvi 1998) or experience contexts of dynamic emergence or fluidity may supersede other factors such as the academic reputation of age-old institutions. Could these issues possibly shed some light on international students' reasons for studying in South Africa? Or is there more to the picture? A newly emerging globalised landscape is producing new trends in student mobility. This dimension will be addressed in Chapters 3 and 12.

[38] Refer to the IEASA website www.studysa.ac.za
[39] Institute of International Education, Atlas of Student Mobility. www.atlas.iienetwork.org accessed on 13 November 2006.
[40] For a list of SADC countries refer to Appendix A.

2.8 LITERATURE ABOUT THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Relevant South African literature on internationalisation in higher education, although limited in 2001, has increased[41]. Of particular significance is a report commissioned by the Department of Education and undertaken by the Education Policy Unit (EPU) of the University of the Western Cape in November 1999. Various aspects of this report are referred to throughout this study. Other literature delves into various issues. For example, Atkins (2002) investigated the experiences of international students in the Western Cape in general, while Kuili (2000) focused on Lesotho students' experiences in particular, and Shindondola (2002) identified xenophobia as a problem. In addition, the perspectives of students learning English as a second language in South Africa were researched by Duymun (2001). Major issues researched after 2000 pertain to international student mobility to South Africa[42], the internationalisation of South African higher education[43], internationalisation and globalisation[44], GATS[45] and quality assurance[46]. Aspects of these publications on international student mobility and internationalisation, in particular those by Rouhani, have contributed to developing the current study and are referred to in later chapters.

Further, literature has been emerging from international education practitioners and professionals working at international offices at South African universities. The bulk of this material has been presented at the annual conferences of the IEASA since its inauguration in 1997. However, most of the conference papers have had a (micro) institutional focus and have therefore had limited usefulness with respect to relevance to national policy and regional developments. In Chapter 3, the background and contemporary contexts for the internationalisation of the South African public higher education sector is provided.

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[41] This was the case when I embarked on this research in the late 1990s. Since then, other literature has begun to emerge, mostly published after 2000.
[42] See for example, "Foreign students at South African Universities" (Rouhani & Paterson 1996) "African student mobility to South African Universities" (Rouhani, 2002) and "South Africa: An Emerging Frontier for International Study" (Rouhani & Kishun 1999).
[43] See for example, "Internationalization in South Africa" (Kishun cited in Scott 1998), "Internationalisation of South African Higher Education" (Rouhani 1999) and "South Africa: Future Prospects" (Badsha 1999).
[44] See for example, "Internationalisation and Globalisation: a New Era for Higher Education" (ACE & CHET 2000).
[45] See for example, "Internationalisation, GATS and Higher Education" (CHET 2003).
[46] See for example, "Internationalisation and Quality in South African Universities" (Smout 2003).

As has been pointed out, since the birth of its new political dispensation, South Africa has become a popular destination for international students. In 1996, an estimated 5 589 international students were studying at South African universities, which was 1.5% of the total number (361 232) of university enrolments (Rouhani 1998b). The same figures are apparent for 1992: about 4 489 or 2% (Rouhani & Paterson 1996). These figures indicate that a 25% growth was apparent in international student numbers within a four-year period[47].

In the New Millennium, between 30 000 to 40 000 international students were enrolled at South African public higher education institutions, a more recent estimate being 52 000 in 2006[48]. Figures from the Department of Education indicate that in 2001 international students constituted just under 6% of the total higher education enrolment (CHET 2003:4), with 8% at universities and only 2% at technikons (Pillay *et al*. 2003). Clearly, this type of educational expansion invites closer examination, particularly in an era in which the forces of globalisation should be exploited to the advantage of developing economies.

In spite of increased opportunities to attract greater numbers of international students, many South African tertiary institutions have failed to respond, perhaps being preoccupied with issues of national redress and transformation. Viewed as a potential source of foreign exchange, international education could potentially alleviate the financial burdens of some cash-strapped departments in South African universities. However, financial gains aside, the major advantages to the higher education system would be non-quantifiable short- and long-term social gains: cultural exchange between international and South African students would serve to reduce South African's insularity and xenophobia and provide the necessary intellectual cross-fertilisation needed by institutions of higher learning.

[47] The above data refer to international students residing within South Africa and are limited to those universities using conventional study modes. Further, the institutions are confined to public universities and exclude private institutions. Within the same period, a larger proportion of international students were registered at UNISA, a distance education institution. This group (8 017) is not included here because UNISA is a nonresidential university. If UNISA students are included, the total is 13 606 (Personal communication, Department of Education, Education Management Information Systems, 3 September 1998).

[48] Institute of International Education, Atlas of Student Mobility. www.atlas.iienetwork.org accessed on 13 November 2006.

2.9 CONCLUSION

From this literature review, it may be concluded that although extensive material exists about the internationalisation of higher education, this is only so in the case of international literature; in other words, South African literature on internationalisation is still limited in range and scope. This limitation reflects a paucity of research in this field and supports a need for further research in South Africa. Furthermore, most of the South African material has a (micro) institutional focus and is therefore of limited usefulness and relevance to national and regional SADC policy.

In summary, most of the literature provides only incomplete pieces of the puzzle. The bigger national picture, however, is still emerging. For example, very few studies examine how South African universities, or others in Africa for that matter, are engaging with internationalisation in the sense of students coming to South Africa rather than going elsewhere. In this context, Lulat's (1984a, 1984b) and Altbach and Wang's (1989) research questions listed in Section 2 of this chapter are still useful.

The paucity of literature about the internationalisation of higher education is by no means unique to South African literature, as other researchers have reflected. Generally speaking, the current state of knowledge on international education and academic mobility, especially as it concerns the developeing world, appears to be inadequate. Although numerous studies have been produced from different perspectives in a variety of academic disciplines, and despite the seeming 'superabundance' of information on this subject, that the quality and scope of the literature leaves much to be desired has been pointed out (Lulat 1984a, 1984b).

As Teichler (1996a:338) has correctly indicated, "any effort to summarise the state of research on international education and academic mobility is hampered by the lack of comprehensive documentation in this area". Research in the field requires "a broader thematic range" in relation to its context, in addition to "improvements with respect to the theoretical basis and research methods", because it currently lacks "conceptual and methodological soundness" (Teichler 1996a:341).

Irrespective of the countries involved, most of the research available on academic mobility and international education appears to be "occasional, coincidental, sporadic, or episodic"

(Teichler 1996b:341). The research focuses mainly on surveys, conducted by means of questionnaire or interview, of students, staff or administrators (Teichler 1996a:342). The extent to which its findings can be generalised or provide meaningful knowledge is debatable. Moreover, the major shortcoming of research on foreign students is that "it is not in the mainstream of any field" although useful contributions to the literature have been made by comparative educators as well as those in guidance and counselling and educational psychology (Altbach & Wang 1989:3).

Finally, because the bulk of the research has been done in and by a few industrialised countries, the knowledge base, though substantial, is highly skewed. Any generalisations should be made with full cognisance that the "existing research base is very limited in terms of the countries analysed, the questions asked and the paradigms used" (Altbach 1991:307). In this context, the current study intends to expand the global knowledge base on internationalisation and international student mobility in South Africa in particular, as a specific example of a developing country in rapid transition. What is more, this thesis will be a contribution to the link between the South African research agenda and the larger international one. The next chapter provides the background and contemporary context for the internationalisation of the South African higher education sector.

CHAPTER 3
THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION: ITS BACKGROUND AND CONTEMPORARY CONTEXTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

While aspects of the growth of internationalisation in South African institutions of higher education have been documented, a comprehensive explanation of the phenomenon and exposing the background, the contexts and the practical motivations that have caused internationalisation to occur have not been examined in detail. This chapter aims to lay out this 'environment' or conceptual framework, with a view to explaining the emergence of internationalisation as a significant aspect of South African higher education after the country was reintegrated into the global community in the early 1990s. In addition, the chapter sets a framework against which to argue for the need for a coordinated and systematic approach for internationalising South African higher education institutions.

A complex phenomenon, internationalisation does not lend itself to a simple explanation. The concept will first be examined in the context of the process of globalisation of which it is a part. Certainly, globalisation, which may be viewed as a recent concept, provides at least part of a conceptual framework by which the internationalisation of higher education institutions may be understood. A more traditional contribution to understanding internationalisation is offered by classical migration theories. Just as internationalisation may be viewed as part of the broader concept of globalisation, so student mobility to South Africa may be approached as a part – albeit a fairly small part – of larger patterns of migration that are subject to many of the same pressures and patterns. Indeed, student mobility may be viewed as a form of short-term migration. Reference will then be made to two countries, namely, Germany and the United States, that have a very long record of receiving large numbers of international students because the development of international education in those countries may shed light on directions that South Africa may follow.

The chapter then turns from general theory and foreign examples to the specificity of the South African situation, describing the unique contexts and background that contribute to the framework within which the internationalisation of South African universities has been taking place. Six phases of internationalisation of higher education institutions in post-apartheid

South Africa are identified. In subsequent sections, the external and internal contexts of internationalisation of higher education in South Africa are analysed from a political economy perspective by assessing relations and developments at the level of the African continent, including sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Africa (SADC), and within the country itself.

3.2 INTERNATIONALISATION AND GLOBALISATION

Globalisation, "the new system emerging in the world" (Castells 2001:3) and the "pre-eminent social phenomenon of our time" (Muller *et al*. 2001:vi) may be characterised broadly by three phenomena: the rise of a new global economy, the rise of the network society, and the changing role of the nation-state. To these three phenomena, increased population mobility across national borders is added. Student movement, the central feature of internationalisation that is examined here, is one part of that larger pattern of trans-national mobility that is a defining characteristic of globalisation.

The new global economy is a combination of three inter-related and inter-dependent characteristics. It is informational, global and sustained by information technology (Muller *et al*. 2001). The network society is one which is made up of networks of production, power and experience: "Networks constitute the new social morphology of our societies, and the diffusion of networking logic substantially modifies the operation and outcomes in processes of production, experience, power and culture" (Castells 1996:469). With respect to the changing role of the nation-state and the economy, various opinions are held which range from the withering of nation-states to enhanced state power, as shall be explained in the next paragraph.

In general, debates about globalisation elicit commentaries that range from being strongly in favour to being militantly opposed. In this respect, Held and McGrew (*s.a.*) distinguished between the hyperglobal, the sceptical, and the transformational views. The hyperglobalists argue that a new global capitalism has emerged which is increasingly leading to the denationalisation of economic activities. International finance and corporate capital, rather than states, determine the organisation, location and distribution of wealth and economic power. These economic forces are "eroding and fragmenting nation-states", which are increasingly becoming 'decision-takers' as opposed to 'decision-makers' (Held *et al.* 1999:1). In effect, the hyperglobalists argue that "economic globalisation spells the end of the welfare

state" and has eclipsed the autonomy of nation-states (Held & McGrew *s.a.*:2). The sceptics believe that globalisation is largely confined to the OECD countries, and that the world is "breaking up into several political and economic blocs" through which the most powerful states have reaffirmed their global dominance (*ibid.*). In sum, for the sceptics, "intensification of international and social activity" has "enhanced state powers in many domains" (Held *et al*. 1999:1). Finally, the transformationalists argue that globalisation is creating new circumstances which are serving to transform state power and the context in which states operate. "Politics is no longer, and can no longer simply be, based on nation-states" (p2). Globalisation can be understood as a multidimensional process which is not reducible to economic logic, and which has differential impacts across the world and upon individual states. "Highly uneven in its embrace and impact, it divides as it integrates" (Held & McGrew *s.a.*:3).

The transformationalists have also observed that globalisation is not a new phenomenon, but has been an ongoing, evolving process. Because globalisation is a multifaceted process, understanding the concept requires an interdisciplinary approach, so the very act of defining it with great specificity is difficult. However, in general terms at least, and without engaging in polemics for or against, offering a working summary of the major characteristics of globalisation about which most critics would agree is possible. That internationalisation is, in fact, part of that larger movement called globalisation will become clear.

Regardless of whether the viewpoint expressed is that of Thomas Friedman (1999), who, in The Lexus and Olive Tree or his many columns for the New York Times, views globalisation as essentially beneficial for all parties, or that of Paul Q. Hirst and Graham Thompson (1996), whose Globalization in Question is profoundly sceptical, little disagreement exists about a few basic features of globalisation. These features are succinctly expressed by David Held and Anthony McGrew (*s.a.*:1), for whom globalisation is "a process (or set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organisation of social relations and transactions, expressed in transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction and power". In sum, globalisation involves the "widening, intensifying, speeding up, and growing impact of world-wide interconnectedness" (*ibid.*).

The internationalisation of universities in general and transnational student mobility issues in particular are not generally considered to be of central importance in discussions of

globalisation. For the most part, attention has been drawn to the political, economic, and social consequences of globalisation, rather than its educational effects. Insofar as the internationalisation of universities (and in particular student mobility) shares common ground with the conditions ascribed to globalisation, internationalisation may be viewed as part of the same process, or as a sub-category of globalisation. The movement of students from other countries to South Africa has social, political, and economic causes and consequences that are by definition transnational and intercontinental, as is, for example, the flow of capital investment from, say, Western Europe or the United States to less developed nations.

While the level of interconnectedness of South African tertiary education institutions to counterparts throughout the world does not match that of countries such as Germany or the United States, as will be described later in this chapter, in recent years, dramatic growth in contact with government agencies and higher education establishments from other countries has been apparent, a process made inevitable by the movement of students. In addition to the traditional social and economic forces – the push-pull factors – that generate widespread international movement, globalisation has brought new influences in the form of communication technology: access to the internet and to other forms of telecommunication, for example. This new access to telecommunications in both sending and receiving countries allows for the relatively easy creation of trans-national linkages and networks. The internationalisation of universities, insofar as it involves student movement from sending countries to South Africa, is very much part of the larger phenomenon of globalisation.

In the realm of higher education, then, internationalisation[49] is affected by globalisation; if managed effectively, internationalisation is one way in which nations can exert some influence over the forces of globalisation, which are made manifest, for example, through the flow of students, academics, and knowledge across borders. Along the same lines, Altbach (2004:3) is of the view that while "globalisation cannot be completely avoided", internationalisation is a voluntary and creative way of coping with it.

Whereas globalisation is a most controversial development, the introduction of an international emphasis in tertiary education – internationalisation in other words – is not so. In terms of the intellectual challenge it offers students as well as the broadening of their

[49] See, for example, de Wit (1999:1) who argues that internationalisation is a response to globalisation.

perspectives, their ability to work with people of widely disparate backgrounds, the exposure to different methodologies, and the honing of communication skills, not to mention the ability to be flexible and embrace change, there is virtually universal endorsement of internationalisation by university leaders, the business community, and politicians. In the United States, for example, as in Canada, Germany and the United Kingdom, it is rare to find a university that does not commit to internationalisation, and this commitment is generally written into the mission statement. To give just one example, it has been some fifteen years since the state of North Carolina mandated that every one of its sixteen constituent campuses must implement an internationalisation programme involving designated staff, providing opportunities for a two-way flow of students both American and international. This is a typical pattern throughout the United States.

Globalisation does not garner the same near-unanimous support. For its critics, the effects of globalisation are particularly nefarious for the developing world nations. One such critic predicts that weaker nations will perish:

> Globalisation takes the form of the dismantling of subaltern nationalism by developed nationalisms. Globality and globalisation are the Darwinian manifesto of the survival of the fittest: the strong nations will survive 'naturally', for it is in their destiny of dominance to survive as nameless and unmarked nations, whereas the weak nations will inevitably be weeded out for lack of strong performance as nation states (Radhakrishnan 2003:90).

There can be little doubt that the production and dissemination of knowledge have become new forms of wealth and that the technological advantages in the highly developed Western world have created a knowledge gap or 'digital divide' between it and the nations of the developing world. In effect, knowledge has become a commodity, allowing those who have it to impose a new form of colonialism[50] upon the 'have nots'. Lack of access to ICT and the Internet has widened the 'digital divide' and further contributed to global disparities.

Thus it is observed that the globalised world is an unequal landscape with a harsh terrain. With respect to mobility among the developing countries, and even within each of these countries, globalisation appears to favour the better endowed institutions over those with limited resources, creating centres of influence and excellence as well as less fortunate peripheral institutions. In this vein, Hoogvelt (1998) has argued that the geographic core-

[50] See for example Altbach (2004).

periphery has been replaced by the social core-periphery. Hence the significance of belonging to strategic alliances cannot be over-emphasised, as we shall see later in this section in the work of Castells (1996). Although South Africa has been in the geographic periphery, the country is fast asserting its role within a social core, in particular, in terms of knowledge generation and access to resources on the African continent. This point is elaborated upon towards the end of this chapter with reference to South Africa's role as a 'semi-peripheral metropole'.

Beerkens (2003) states that this exclusive and divisive aspect of globalisation is acknowledged in the literature, for example, by Castells (1996, 1997), Bauman (1998), and Hoogvelt (1998), who have referred to the exclusion of the unconnected as opposed to the connected, the exclusion of the locally tied as opposed to the globally mobile, and the exclusion of the social periphery as opposed to the social core. According to these authors, growing inequality does not only occur between and among the developed and developing countries but also within these countries. Growing inequality among historically advantaged and disadvantaged higher education institutions in South Africa, such as the University of Fort Hare, is an example of this rising trend.

As shall be demonstrated in the case study chapters, historically disadvantaged higher education institutions in South Africa could become even more disadvantaged as they become further disconnected and globally marginalised from major knowledge creation and dissemination centres and remain on the peripheries of knowledge, both socially and geographically. One wonders if the Darwinian manifesto will also apply to these marginalized institutions.

On the other hand, the new market-driven global economy offers the less developed nations new opportunities to tap into global networks and benefit from the global economy with its free movement of goods, knowledge and people. However, to do this, national institutions have to form global alliances, as has taken place, for example, in the formation of regional and international partnerships in the airline industry. In a similar manner many higher education institutions have formed strategic alliances with international partners. Although South African universities are late-comers to such linkages, the more enterprising and proactive have realised the power of the network and networking. For example, some institutions have been participating in international higher education exhibitions and

recruitment fairs while pursuing partnerships and agreements for student and staff exchange with counterparts in Europe and North America.

As Castells (1996) has argued, a significant relationship exists between access to networks and access to power:

> Networks constitute the new social morphology of our societies, and the diffusion of networking logic substantially modifies the operation and outcomes in processes of production, experience, power and culture… The power of flows takes precedence over the flows of power. Presence or absence in the network and the dynamics of each network vis-à-vis others are critical sources of domination and change in our society: a society that, therefore, we may properly call the network society, characterized by the pre-eminence of social morphology over social action" (Castells 1996:469).

In today's knowledge-driven society, belonging to networks facilitates tapping into the 'flows' of access to information, and this implies access to power. To be a national institution – no matter how excellent – is no longer sufficient because if an institution is not part of some international network, it is not part of any strategic alliance and could 'disappear' from the global map or become marginalised on the peripheries of knowledge. To put it another way, institutions of higher education cannot afford not to internationalise.

Tapping into 'academic flows' is a means of institutional survival. This is one reason why internationalisation has become such a widely accepted objective. Internationalisation may be viewed as the elixir which can transmute copper into gold, literally placing provincial institutions on the international map by transforming some hitherto unknown institutions into economically viable host institutions for a critical mass of international students[51]. For more established institutions[52], internationalisation has enhanced their international profiles and student diversity in addition to bringing economic, educational and cultural benefits.

It is therefore no surprise that internationalisation has been viewed as "one of the laws of motion propelling institutions of higher learning" (Kerr 1990:5), as "a major theme for the next decade" (Davies 1997:83), as "one of the most important trends of the last decade" (Teichler 1999:6), if not "of the past half century" (Altbach 2000:2, in De Wit 2001:1).

[51] As we shall see in the case studies, this scenario sums up UPE's internationalisation trajectory.
[52] For example the Universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch and Rhodes would fall into this category.

The international flow of students and scholars has been an ongoing process ever since medieval universities were founded, but it has never been as intense as it is today. Referring back to the earlier outcomes of globalisation, as the "widening, intensifying, speeding up, and growing impact of world-wide interconnectedness" (Held & McGrew *s.a.*:1), to understand why international student mobility has never been as intense a flow as it is at present is easy. The speeding up of modes of transport and telecommunications and the use of English in many leading host countries including South Africa are factors that contribute to increased student travel. The emergence of a global consciousness; an appreciation of the interconnectedness of the world, for example, through ecological disasters and anti-globalisation protests; and the demand on the part of employers for globally competent employees coupled with the imperative for students to obtain internationally portable qualifications have increased the desire on the part of students to seek a study-abroad experience or to complete a degree programme abroad. Further, the implementation of regional student mobility programmes, such as the ERASMUS programme in Europe, provides a legal and financial framework which facilitates and supports large-scale student mobility.

Held *et al*. (1999:3) have identified migration as one of the "key domains of activity and interaction in and through which globalisation has evolved". They have used a number of indicators to highlight population, labour force data, OECD migration, and refugees. While they have not identified international student mobility *per se* as an indicator of global interconnectedness, student mobility is at the heart of internationalisation and can be identified as a form of 'temporary migration'. Thus international student mobility is a dimension of globalisation.

The next section therefore examines the relevance of migration theories for understanding the internationalisation of South African higher education, and in particular, international student mobility, which may be viewed as a form of short-term migration, possibly leading to long-term migration through employment and relocation. While an understanding of globalisation sheds much light on the internationalisation of South African universities, an appeal to more traditional migration theories may also help explain the emergence and features of the phenomenon in recent years.

3.3 MIGRATION THEORIES[53]

Just as international student mobility and migration may be viewed as part of the larger trend known as globalisation, so the two phenomena may also be understood as fitting within the more specific phenomenon of international population migration. Although numerous theories of population migration have been proposed, three theories will be highlighted in this chapter, two economic approaches and migration systems theory approach. The two economic approaches are neo-classical economic equilibrium and the new economics of labour migration.

3.3.1 Neo-Classical Economic Equilibrium Perspective

The neo-classical economic equilibrium perspective is based on statistical laws of migration (Ravenstein 1885, 1889). Such 'general theories' emphasize the tendencies of people to move from densely to sparsely populated areas or from low- to high-income areas or link migrations to fluctuations in the economy. These approaches are often known as 'push-pull' theories, because they attribute the causes of migration to a combination of 'push factors', impelling people to leave the areas of origin, and 'pull factors' attracting them to host countries. Push factors include political repression and turmoil, economic stagnation, low living standards, demographic growth, and natural disasters including famine, while pull factors are political freedom, a vibrant economy, a good health and welfare system, demand for labour, availability of land and infrastructure (Castles & Miller 1998:20). To this list, I would add positive social change and higher education as two strong pull forces in the case of post-apartheid South Africa.

Among the criticisms of neo-classical economic equilibrium theories are that these theories are essentially individualistic and ahistorical. They emphasise the individual decision to migrate based on a cost-benefit analysis of remaining at home versus moving to 'greener pastures' and underemphasize the role of governments in the migration process (Castles & Miller 1998:421). An example of a push-pull model will be analysed in Chapter 12.

[53] For further references, journals and Internet sources on international migration refer to Castles & Miller (1998:303).

Such neo-classical theories are simplistic, incapable of explaining actual movements or predicting future ones (Boyd 1989; Portes & Rumbaut 1990; Sassen 1988), and explain only in part the movement across borders. In addition, they predict mobility from densely populated to less populated regions; yet, in fact, countries of immigration such as Holland and Germany are amongst the world's more densely populated areas. Finally, the push-pull model cannot explain why a certain group of migrants goes to one country rather than another (Castles & Miller 1998:21).

3.3.2 The New Economics of Labour Migration Theory

An alternative economic approach is provided by the 'new economics of labour migration' (Stark 1991), which suggests that migration cannot simply be explained by income differences between two countries, but must also include factors such as secure employment and long-term risk management. A host country's policy on immigration and refugees is also a major determinant of contemporary population movements. Thus the idea of individual migrants[54] who make free choices is far from historical reality (Castles & Miller 1998:22). Large-scale population mobility is more propelled by the dynamics of the transnational capitalist economy which simultaneously determines both the push and the pull (Zolberg 1989).Thus migrations should be examined as sub-systems of an increasingly global economic and political system.

This theory, namely, the new economics of labour migration, is again relevant to post-apartheid South Africa which has experienced large immigration, in particular, from African countries. South Africa has a stable democracy and economy. Even during the apartheid dispensation, its mining sector depended on a pool of migrant labourers from SADC. Despite the high level of crime in the country, these factors make South Africa a relative haven of peace and security both within the SADC and on the African continent, where many countries have unstable political economies. Further, with the integration of South Africa in regional and continental networks such as the SADC and the NEPAD, South Africa is part of a

[54] With respect to forces that propel globalisation, Aarte Scholte (2005:21) refers to the individualist versus structuralist or voluntarist versus determinist divide: whereas "individualist arguments regard globalization as an outcome of decisions made by social actors (such as businesspeople, citizens, officials and politicians)… structuralist perspectives treat globalization as a product of forces embedded in the social order (like capitalism, the states system, nationalism, and so on)". He adopts a 'structurationist' position, where structure and agency (or people's choices) are mutually causative.

regional and continental political economy or sub-system. This facilitates migration, in particular from the SADC, which was more difficult in the apartheid dispensation both due to strict immigration laws and the international boycotts imposed on South Africa.

Not only does South Africa have the most developed higher education system on the continent, it is also considered to be an economic power-house. By far the strongest pull-factor, however, has been the wave of social and political change which has swept the country since 1994.

3.3.3 Migration Systems Theory

Migration systems theory emphasises international relations, political economy, collective action and institutional factors. According to this view, a migration system is constituted by two or more countries that exchange migrants with each other. The migration systems approach means examining both ends of the flow and studying all the links between the places concerned (Castles & Miller 1998). These links can be categorised as "state-to-state relations and comparisons, mass cultural connections and family and social networks" (Fawcett & Arnold 1987:456-7).

Migrations systems theory suggests that migratory movements generally arise from the existence of prior links between sending and receiving countries such as those based on colonisation, political influence, trade, investment or cultural ties (Castles & Miller 1998). According to this approach, any migratory movement can be seen as the result of interacting macro- and micro-structures.

Macro-structures refer to "large-scale institutional factors", such as the political economy of the world market, interstate relationships and immigration policy, whereas micro-structures are the "informal social networks developed by migrants themselves" as a coping mechanism and embrace "the networks, practices and beliefs of the migrants themselves", such as family and friends (Castles & Miller 1998:24). Such links provide vital resources for individuals and groups, and may be referred to as "social capital" (Bourdieu & Wacquant 1992:119).

By analysing both macro- and micro-structures in tandem, one is able to obtain a better understanding of a migration system as a whole:

> Macro and micro-structures are linked at all levels with each other. Together they can be examined as facets of an overarching migratory process. This concept sums up the complex sets of factors and inter-actions which lead to international migration and influence its course. No single cause is ever sufficient to explain why people decide to leave their country and settle in another (Castles & Miller 1998:27).

To understand all aspects of the migratory process by considering issues such as the following is essential (*ibid.*): social, demographic, environmental and political factors in the home country; opportunities for migration in host country; the existence of social networks between the two countries; legal, political, economic and social structures and practices which regulate migration and settlement; possibilities of settlement in the host country after migration; the effect of settlement on the culture and national identity of host country; the effect of emigration on the home country; and new links which emerge between the two countries as a result of the settlement. The role of international relations and the states of both sending and receiving areas in organising or facilitating movements is also significant (Bohning 1984; Cohen 1987; Dohse 1981; Fawcett 1989; Manfrass 1992; Mitchell 1989).

In the light of migration systems theory, to understand why the majority (71%[55]) of the South African international student population are from the SADC is easier. Plausible explanations follow regarding macro- and micro-structures. Historically, Anglophone[56] SADC countries, such as Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Tanzania, have had colonial links with South Africa. Economically, South Africa has been the main supplier of goods and services to its neighbouring SADC countries, which supply a large pool of labour to South Africa. Politically, with the integration of South Africa into the SADC, the Commonwealth and the African Union, South Africa has opened access to education and employment to its neighbouring countries. In particular, in terms of the SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and Training, at least 5% of higher education enrolments are reserved for SADC students. Many

[55] SADC students comprised 53% of university and 18% of technikon enrolments in 2002, which is 71% of the total higher education enrolment (CHE 2004).

[56] In the case of the francophone and lusophone SADC countries – the Democratic Republic of Congo, Seychelles, Angola, Mozambique – the lack of language, cultural and colonial ties seem to be the main reasons for much smaller student populations from these countries. This lack of English-French cooperation appears to be common across the African continent as confirmed by Smallwood and Maliyamkono (in Blumenthal Craufurd, Smith, & Teichler 1996:329-332): "The legacy of Anglophone and Francophone cultures is a mixed blessing in that it simplifies the process of cooperation within each camp and with non-African Anglophone and Francophone countries, but it has inhibited cooperation and mobility across the language divide in neighbouring African countries … The extent of mobility across the French-English language barrier is very limited as is mobility between Anglophone Southern, Eastern and West Africa".

funders have modified their policies in favour of funding higher education within a region or South Africa, whereas in the past, SADC students went to study overseas, for example, in the UK. These 'macro-structures' have facilitated general immigration into South Africa.

Socially, the links with SADC[57] have been strengthened by language and cultural factors that are both colonial and indigenous. For example, English is used as an official language and British customs and conventions pervade daily life. Further, major African populations who live within Southern Africa comprise the Zulu, Ndebele, Sotho, Tswana and Swazi who speak these languages and practice these cultures across colonial borders. In fact, many extended families are scattered across these colonial boundaries. These informal social networks or 'micro-structures' further facilitate student mobility from Southern African countries to South Africa.

The role of international relations, in particular, South Africa's foreign policy and its relation to the SADC is examined in the last section of this chapter under the context of internationalisation.

3.3.4 Migration Theories: Conclusion

This section has highlighted some theoretical explanations of immigration to South Africa in general and student movement from the SADC, in particular. One central argument is that migration and settlement are closely related to other economic, political and cultural links being formed between countries in the process of globalisation. International migration – in all its different forms – must be viewed as an integral part of contemporary world developments including globalisation. A second argument is that the migratory process has certain dynamics based on social networks which are at its core (Castles & Miller 1998).

Using the above theoretical frameworks, it will be observed in Chapter 12 that while the neo-classical equilibrium perspective can provide some explanations, international student mobility to South Africa is more appropriately explained by the new economics of labour migration as well as by migration systems theory. Whereas the neo-classical economic equilibrium models view individual students and their families as the decision makers, the

[57] See Appendix B for a comparison of official languages and forms of government in the SADC countries.

new economics of labour migration takes into account the dynamics of the global capitalist economy. Further, migration systems theory is more holistic and takes into account the influence of both micro- and macro-structures in the decision to move to another country. These structures include, especially, the formation of familiar and familial networks across national borders that make international movement less of an alienating experience than ever before. In effect the new technologies that facilitate globalisation help to provide an informal support system for international students and, in the wider society, a migrant labour force. Internationalisation and globalisation run on parallel paths. More is said on the SADC as a sub-system or regional economic bloc in Section 5.2 later in this chapter.

Moving on from migration theories, the section below will briefly highlight the development of internationalisation in two Western countries, namely, Germany and the USA. Both these countries are the places of origin for the majority of occasional international students to South Africa and both have had a long history of hosting international students. This analysis is offered by way of illustration of phases of internationalisation in the hope that it may offer some insight into possible future directions for South Africa itself. Before addressing internationalisation in South Africa, the concept is briefly outlined for Africa and the SADC.

3.4 PHASES OF INTERNATIONALISATION IN SELECTED REGIONS

The following section provides a brief comparison of the phases of internationalisation in Germany, the United States of America, Africa and South Africa. This section is not intended to be a comprehensive, historical overview of internationalisation[58], but is intended to provide a comparison of differing rationales and strategies during the various phases of internationalisation in selected countries.

3.4.1 Internationalisation in Germany

After the World War II, four phases may be distinguished in the history of internationalisation in Germany (IEASA 1999; Jansen 1998; Kehm & Last 1997; Mampuru 2000): Phase One, from 1955 to 1975, was characterised by an ‘open door’ policy; Phase Two, from 1975 to

[58] For a historical perspective of internationalisation, refer to de Wit (2001). For a regional comparison of internationalisation strategies, refer to de Wit (1995).

1987, involved a more regulative and differential approach to student mobility, with more emphasis on sending German students to study abroad as opposed to opening up for foreign students; Phase Three, from 1987 to 1992, was characterised by the emergence of the European Union and launch of the ERASMUS Programme in 1987 and support for increased cooperation among European higher education institutions; Phase Four, after the Maastricht Treaty of 1992, was a more market-driven period where internationalisation was viewed more in investment terms. The four phases of internationalisation in Germany are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3. Phases of Internationalisation in Germany

Phase	Period	Thrust
1	1955 -1975	Open door
2	1975 -1987	More regulative, emphasis on study abroad
3	1987-1992	Inter-institutional cooperation within Europe
4	1992 onwards	Market driven

Higher education internationalisation from a German perspective has incorporated moving from serving humanitarian aims, to a policy of education advantage for the individual, to a concept of economically determined competitive advantage on the market (Kehm & Last 1997). In order for the system to evolve to its present point, the German government has had to implement certain measures to support internationalisation (Jansen 1998) in the context of a legal framework (*Hochschulrahmengesetz* or HRG). Such a framework is lacking in South Africa to date.

3.4.2 Internationalisation in the USA

To generalise about the internationalisation of American universities is difficult because so many higher education institutions exist, both public and private and both large and small, that display an extraordinary diversity and enjoy a very high degree of autonomy. The Federal government, with pressure from the very effective National Association of Foreign Student Advisors (NAFSA)[59], may make recommendations and provide funding to advance its

[59] For more information on NAFSA refer to www.nafsa.org

priorities, but no mandatory national policy on internationalisation is apparent. As Mestenhauser (1998 in de Wit 2001) notes, international education in the United States of America is unintegrated and fragmented. Nonetheless, identifying five major periods or phases in internationalisation in contemporary history is possible[60].

A first phase occurred after World War II, as a defensive response to the spread of communism and the hardening of positions into the Cold War. This first phase involved the creation of study-abroad programs and the effort to attract international students, especially gifted graduate students who were likely to emerge later as leaders in their home countries or further the cause of the American economy, including the military-industrial complex.

A second phase, closely related to the first, occurred through a sense of national emergency following the launching of Sputnik by the Soviet Union. The year 1958 saw the creation of the space agency NASA and the passing of the National Defence Education Act (NDEA), which provided a massive infusion of funds for education, especially for science and mathematics as well as modern foreign languages and area studies. NDEA grants provided universities with 90% of the funding for low-interest loans to qualified students. The end of the second phase in the 1980s was characterised by the increased marketisation of universities (de Wit 2001).

The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991 marked a new, third phase, with expanded contacts with countries throughout the world, but especially Eastern and Central Europe, and an exponential growth of interest in international business. This coincided with the development of computer technology and Internet connectivity that the United States embraced more than any country in the world. These technological advances, combined with the extraordinary diversity, versatility, and openness to change of American universities made the country the most globally connected in the world.

The destruction of the World Trade Centre twin towers on 11 September 2001 may well have opened a fourth phase in internationalisation. The attack set back public confidence in international education. Graduate programs and especially English as a Second Language

[60] De Wit (2001) provides an elaborate account about internationalisation in the USA from before the 19th century to the late 1990s.

programs found it difficult to bring in international students and many suffered a drop in numbers[61]. Although the USA remains the destination of choice for the largest number of international students, and record numbers of American students will continue to study abroad, tighter restrictions on entry to the USA are likely to direct prospective students to study elsewhere[62]. The above-mentioned phases of internationalisation in the United States of America are summarised in Table 4 overleaf.

Although the United States of America has been a major host country to international students, at the level of the Federal government, it has largely been silent on the national importance of internationalising higher education (Altbach & Mc Gill Peterson 1998). In this respect, its response to internationalisation is similar to South Africa. However, at the state and local levels, university administrations have embraced internationalisation as a major strategic goal.

Table 4. Phases of Internationalisation in the United States of America

	Period	Phase	Thrust
1	1946 - 1958	Post War	Study abroad programs
2	1958 – 1989	Cold War	Foreign languages, area studies & internationalisation of curriculum
	1980s		Marketisation of institutions
3	1989 – 2001	Post Cold War	EU-US cooperation, international business
4	2001 onwards	Post 9/11	Drop in number of incoming international students

With respect to the United States of America, the size, diversity and wealth of the higher education sector as well as the dominance of the United States of America as a world super-power make it possible for internationalisation to succeed without a national (federal)

[61] The number of international students enrolled in U.S. higher education institutions decreased by 2.4% in the 2003/2004 academic year to a total of 572 509, according to Open Doors 2004 (*s.a.*), the annual report on international academic mobility published by the Institute of International Education (IIE) with support from the State Department's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs. The 2.4% drop followed a minimal increase the prior year (0.6% in the 2002/2003 academic year), preceded by five years of steady growth. Open Doors 2004 (*s.a.*) reports that undergraduate enrolments decreased by almost 5%, with undergraduate enrolments decreasing from each of the top five sending countries (China 20%, India 9%, Japan 14%, Korea 1%, and Canada 3%).

[62] The overall decline in international students enrolled in U.S. colleges and universities has been attributed to a variety of reasons, including real and perceived difficulties in obtaining student visas (especially in scientific and technical fields), rising U.S. tuition costs, vigorous recruitment activities by other English-speaking nations, and perceptions abroad that international students may no longer be welcome in the U.S. (Open Doors 2004 (*s.a.*).

strategy. In contrast, South Africa cannot necessarily follow the model used by the United States. South Africa has a smaller, less diverse higher education sector with more limited resources that is undergoing fundamental systemic transformation. South Africa is a newcomer to the internationalisation arena, subsequent to its reintegration into the global political economy. In addition, its moral commitment to the upliftment of the continent in general and the SADC region in particular, places immense financial burdens on the already overstretched higher education budget. The success of the internationalisation policy in South Africa therefore would imply that higher education institutions should develop their own unique models and that neither the United States nor European models would necessarily provide ideal blueprints.

3.4.3 Internationalisation in Sub-Saharan Africa and the SADC

Before attempting to give an account of internationalisation in sub-Saharan Africa, that higher education in sub-Saharan Africa has been going through a crisis must be pointed out. The demise of higher education in Africa may be summarised, albeit from a rather pessimistic perspective, by Smallwood & Maliyamkono (in Blumenthal *et al*. 1996):

> Regional cooperation in sub-Saharan Africa has had a very chequered history … The dominant patchwork of unstable and often undemocratic regimes, uneven economic development, ideological difference, war, and territorial disagreement provide a very poor basis for regional integration…Yet no one can doubt that African educational planners must consider new ways to maximize the limited resources available to them. Regional cooperation and mobility must be among them (*ibid.*:320).
>
> Higher education provision in sub-Saharan Africa has been in crisis over the last 20 years, while under-funding, population growth, and the spectre of HIV & AIDS pose seemingly insurmountable challenges. This uncertainty and inadequacy must be acknowledged (*ibid.*:321).
>
> The higher education sector in sub-Saharan Africa has been in crisis, with three major areas of deficiency. First is the sheer pressure of demand for higher education that far exceeds the resources required to provide it; the second is the under-funding and deterioration of infrastructure; and the third is the erosion of teaching capacity (*ibid.*:328).

Sawyerr (2004:1) corroborates the challenges facing African universities. He states that since independence,

> Both the number of institutions and enrolment have expanded rapidly and continuously across the continent. With the relative decline of state support

> during the severe economic crisis of the 1980s, Africa's universities suffered substantial deterioration: overcrowding, infrastructure deficiencies, and inadequate access to international knowledge resources. These deficiencies led to problems of access, equity, quality, and relevance, and to an aging faculty.

He (*ibid.*) attributes these developments to transformations in the global economy and information and knowledge production, the main elements of which include globalisation, the commodification of knowledge, the increased openness of national borders to flows of goods, services and knowledge, the mobility of labour, and the ICT revolution.

At the Seventh Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States[63], held in Durban in 1998, South Africa committed to avail its higher education sector for human resource development of the continent. However, it should be noted that "No regional approach to human resource development will succeed unless the political will to pursue a regional solution is sufficiently well-developed to be accepted by all the key actors involved" (Smallwood & Maliyamkono in Blumenthal *et al*. 1996:321). This is one reason why it is crucial for the South African higher education sector to 'get its act together', and work in a coordinated, coherent and consolidated manner to formulate a unified, internationalisation strategy. Other reasons include non-quantifiable and long-term gains, for example, the benefits of cultural exchange which would reduce South African's insularity and xenophobia; the promotion of democracy, a human rights culture of peace, justice and good governance as well as developing civil society and respect for international law within Africa; and a realisation that South Africa's economic development depends upon regional and international cooperation.

Most national higher education systems in Africa are state funded with funding complemented by donor funding mainly from former Northern-hemisphere (colonial) powers. The motivations for internationalisation in Africa involve political, economic, cultural and social rationales. For example, "During the cold war, the USA, Europe and the USSR all used support for study abroad to Africa and the developing world as a means of seducing the governing elite and grooming the successor generation" (Smallwood & Maliyamkono in Blumenthal *et al*. 1996:328).

[63] Education has been identified as one of 12 priority sectors and as one of three human resource development initiatives (Ministers of Education of African Member States (MINEDAF) 1998:19).

A further key historical feature involves integrated links between donor aid, student and staff mobility and human resources development (EPU 1999). Smallwood and Maliyamkono (in Blumenthal *et al*. 1996:328) maintain the following:

> Donor support continues to play a key role in the development of higher education in Africa by funding overseas training for African students. However donors should think regionally and cooperate with African governments to achieve economies of scale not achievable on a national level in most African countries.

One way of achieving continent-wide economies of scale in higher education is to make use of what the South African higher education sector can offer in terms of capacity building. For example, in Southern Africa, the SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and Training aims at promoting human resource development and student mobility through stressing the possibility of credit transfers and academic and practical learning in member countries. As can be observed in the case study chapters, UCT has an established programme (USHEPiA) which targets academics from East and Southern Africa to come to UCT for staff development. However, with respect to student mobility within the SADC, the direction of student mobility is one way into South Africa, and the credit transfer system is not operational at a level comparable to the ERASMUS programme in Europe.

Differences exist between the thrust of internationalisation in Europe and Africa. Whereas institutional agreements between European countries focus on harmonisation, credit transfer and a common sharing of perspectives that involves learning local languages, the relevance of international study for African students is in its link to the labour market and the promotion of either English or French (EPU 1999).

At the turn of the century, very little student mobility was evident within Africa, more specifically, between Anglophone and Francophone countries that have stronger links with their former colonies than with fellow African (neighbouring) countries. "Student mobility within Africa certainly takes place but it is limited, unstructured and virtually never reciprocal, with little or no true exchanges as such" (Smallwood & Maliyamkono in Blumenthal *et al*. 1996:333). To predict whether the NEPAD or the Association of African Universities will develop an intra-continental mobility scheme within the African Union similar to the ERASMUS and SOCRATES programmes in Europe is premature.

Perhaps an intra-SADC student mobility scheme will be the precursor to a larger continental student mobility scheme. On 20 February 2005, SARUA, the Southern African Regional Universities Association, was launched in Cape Town by the SAUVCA:

> SARUA is envisaged to be the first association of its kind in Africa to simultaneously address the capacity and research needs of higher education institutions and the social, cultural and economic development priorities of Southern Africa and the continent. Its structures are in line with the objectives of NEPAD and the SADC Protocol on Education and Training", (Personal communication, IEASA President, 8 March 2005).

It remains to be seen whether the SARUA will promote a student mobility programme within the SADC or Africa. It is possible that South Africa will play a leading role in developing such a programme, judging by the fact that, first, the SAUVCA played a leading role in the launch of the SARUA, and second, many South African higher education institutions have a lead over others on the continent in terms of internationalisation.

3.4.4 Internationalisation in South Africa

As stated in the EPU (1999) report historically, international cooperation has been limited as a consequence of South Africa's longstanding isolation from international politics and the marginalisation of South Africa's higher education institutions. However, more recently, structured agreements between South African higher education institutions and their overseas counterparts have increased in line with South Africa's greater international acceptance. For example, the University of Missouri has been a formal academic partner of the University of the Western Cape and has facilitated close to 300 staff exchanges that are aimed at improving the overall quality and depth of teaching.

Further, unlike its neighbouring countries, South Africa has a well developed higher education system underpinned by strong regional consortia such as the Eastern Seaboard Association of Tertiary Institutions (esATI), the Confederation of Open Learning Institutions of South Africa (COLISA) and the Foundation of Tertiary Institutions in the Northern Metropolis (FOTIM). Moreover, IEASA links many public higher education institutions through a common association that aims to promote student and staff mobility and the sharing of intellectual knowledge and ideas.

> Of fundamental importance are questions around the approach South Africa should adopt toward regionalism and internationalisation. This is linked to a central contradiction: while policy is implicitly oriented towards playing a constructive role in Africa, practice mainly focuses on partnership building with non-African countries (EPU 1999:22).

Since the late 1990s, some institutions have made deliberate attempts to initiate links with African countries; however, the flow of traffic is mainly one way to South Africa, for example, UCT's USHEPiA programme. UPE has been recruiting students from Kenya, Uganda and Rwanda.

In the development of internationalisation of South African higher education institutions since the end of apartheid in 1994, six phases may be distinguished. Not all institutions experienced these phases at the same time, but that they will follow the same sequence should they adopt an internationalisation strategy is likely. In addition, different rationales predominated in each phase. However, because institutions are at different stages of internationalisation (as will be observed in Chapters 6 to 11), it would be wrong to assume that a uniform picture exists for all institutions. In addition, different rationales predominate at different institutions and at the state level, as will be observed later in the case study chapters. On the whole, the internationalisation arena has been unregulated and the activities of various stakeholders have been uncoordinated despite the growth of an international student 'industry'.

In the initial phase of 'post-apartheid euphoria' when South Africa was embraced by the international community, international students sought access to South African universities and technikons despite a lack of marketing by these institutions, and therefore, no need for recruitment at the time was apparent. The unanticipated rising tide of international student traffic soon led to the realisation that South African higher education institutions were unprepared to cope with their specific demands.

This second 'reactive' phase of internationalisation was characterised by working under unpredictable circumstances. What made this phase even more chaotic was that simultaneous to this period, during which international students were seeking access to South African higher education institutions, the system was undergoing radical national transformation, a key feature of which was a greater demand for access by local students. In addition, very few higher education institutions had international offices. Hence the institutions were in a 'double

trouble' or 'double demand' phase with respect to both local and international students. This demand from national versus international markets is as an example of what McLellan (2005) refers to as the dual development challenge.

In the third phase, some institutions realised that internationalisation was in South Africa to stay and saw the need for concerted action. Their responses were to initiate international offices and recruit and train personnel to administer and service international students. During this 'formative' phase, international offices began to emerge at some universities. Stellenbosch University as well as the University of Cape Town and the University of Natal were among the pioneers. In addition, the formation of IEASA in 1997 was instrumental in providing a national vision as well as a platform for cooperation and collaboration among hitherto divided South African higher education institutions.

Later, as international offices became consolidated, some degree of order began to emerge at those institutions that had established international offices, and the student inflow became more manageable. The formation of inter-institutional agreements was one way to maintain a continuous flow of 'study abroad' students from Europe and North America. During this fourth 'consolidative' phase, due to the slowing down of the student traffic, the reduction of state subsidies for higher education institutions, and the realisation that foreign student income was a potential income generator, international offices began to compete with each other for international students. This then led to a fifth 'competitive' phase.

This fifth phase has been characterised by active marketing and by the recruitment of and competition for international students. Potential student markets have been identified and targeted, with visits to the countries, advertising, and attendance at student fairs. With a view to improving their visibility, receiving universities have joined international organisations such as the NAFSA and the EAIE, and attended their conferences in Europe and the United States. This phase has involved a significant investment of resources, both human and material.

As the government recognises the importance of receiving international students, that it will become involved in the setting of minimum standards and other regulatory activities is likely. Institutions are also likely to pay attention to internationalisation as a quality assurance issue (CHE 2004). This sixth 'regulatory' phase, while it cannot be anticipated in detail, seems

inevitable given the current lack of any national policy regarding student mobility to South Africa. Greater state support is required if historically disadvantaged institutions are to become more involved in internationalisation. The above phases are summarised in the Table 5. The periods of these phases are an approximation.

Table 5. Phases of Internationalisation in Post-Apartheid South Africa

	Period	Phase	Trend
1	Early 1990s	Euphoric	Fairly open access
2	Mid – late 1990s	Reactive	Double demand from local and international students
3	Late 1990s onwards	Formative	Setting up institutional administrative structures
4	Late 1990s onwards	Consolidative	Inter-institutional links
5	2000 to date	Competitive	Marketisation
6	Unknown future	Regulatory	More state steering

3.4.5 Phases: Conclusion

Comparing the phases of internationalisation in Germany, the USA and South Africa, a number of conclusions may be drawn. First, South Africa is a late comer to international education, as compared to Germany and the USA. Second, all three countries have experienced a phase of institutional cooperation and partnership formation which may be attributed to globalisation. Third, while internationalisation of curricula preceded other phases of internationalisation in the USA, it is in its infancy in South Africa. Fourth, the regulative phase preceded marketisation in Germany, while in South Africa, this order is reversed, assuming that a regulative phase will be introduced by the government. Alternatively, if no government regulation is introduced, South Africa is likely to follow the United States model[64] where no national (federal), governmental policy guides campus action (El-Khawas 1994 in De Wit 2001:37). However, this is likely to be detrimental to historically disadvantaged institutions which require greater state regulation to survive. Fifth, because

[64] As stated earlier in this chapter at the end of the section on Internationalisation in the USA although the internationalisation of higher education institutions in the USA seems to have been successful despite the absence of federal government regulation, this scenario will be detrimental in South Africa. To compare two higher education systems as vastly different from each other as the USA and South Africa and expect similar outcomes would be unfair and illogical. Thus South Africa would have to work out its own model, giving priority to regional and African needs.

both Germany and the United States have experienced growth and decline in international student numbers in response to various socio-political events, South Africa is likely to experience the same, in particular if crime escalates in the country and the Rand gains strength in international currency markets.

An appropriate example that illustrates the 'unpredictable' forces of globalisation at work through the internationalisation of higher education, is the changing patterns of international student mobility in response to socio-political events. An indirect effect of the Sept 11th 'crackdown' by the United States government on Middle Eastern, North African and Muslim students, is that, given the extreme difficulty in obtaining a student visa, these students and their governments are seeking alternative host countries[65]. The Open Doors Report (2004) and other sources[66] chronicle the decline in the numbers of international students enrolled in US institutions of higher learning in the post 9/11 years[67].

In many ways, South Africa offers an ideal 'haven' to these students from two perspectives. As part of the larger multicultural and multi-religious South African society, local Muslim communities have embraced visiting Muslim students. The same applies to Indian, Chinese and Taiwanese students who are embraced by the local Indian and Chinese populations. Second, because English is the language of instruction at most South African higher education institutions, integration into the world economy for South African graduates is relatively easy due to the fact that English is widely used as an international language. Other factors are elaborated in Chapter 12. Turning from these general considerations to South African higher education in particular, examining the social, economic and political context which underlies South Africa's position on the continent and internationally is important.

[65] Further research is required to investigate student flows from Islamic countries to South Africa after 9/11 although I have met several Muslim students from Sudan, Somalia, Saudi Arabia, Iran and Emirates and heard anecdotal accounts of growing student numbers from these countries.
[66] See for example the online Journal of Turkish Weekly http://www.turkishweekly.net/comments.php?id=864; www.antiwar.com
[67] There was a 10% decrease in the number of Middle Eastern students enrolled in 2002/2003 and a decline of 9% in 2003/2004. Among the specific national figures are the following: 2003/4, the decline in Saudi Arabian students was 16%; Kuwait 17%; Jordan 15%. The years before 9/11 had seen 5 years of steady growth in numbers. The top sending countries, namely India, China and Japan saw decreased enrolments of 9%, 20%, and 14% respectively.

3.5 EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL CONTEXTS OF INTERNATIONALISATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

The context of internationalisation (*cf*. Scott 1998) is the sum of all framework conditions that have an impact on the internationalisation process and that do not originate from inside the (higher education) institution itself (Wachter 2000). The university is not able to influence these variables, and they may stimulate or curtail the university's degree of freedom. Emanating from inside or outside the country itself, the variables may be of a political, social, economic, or technological nature. Globalisation, for example, is driven to a large extent by the breakthroughs in computer technology, telecommunications, and the growth of the Internet, while international population migration is a social or anthropological phenomenon. Both are framework activities that take place outside the control of the university. Similarly government policy may affect the fate and fortune of universities as part of an external framework.

I shall examine the impact of these social, political, economic, and other forces on internationalisation at three geographic levels, first, that of the African continent; second, the region including sub-Saharan Africa and the SADC countries; and third, the national, in other words, the South African governmental context (*cf*. Wachter, 2000). As globalisation de-territorialises and re-territorialises political and economic power (Held *et al*. 1999), the distinction between local, national, regional and continental is not always clearly demarcated. Hence, international student mobility should be viewed within a broader context of developments in sub-Saharan Africa and in the SADC, which form regional blocs or subsystems.

I will start by analysing the new pan-African vision, advocated and articulated most clearly by President Mbeki, which has given birth to the idea of the African Renaissance and which reflects the demands by Africa and Africans for a change in global power relations and Africa's position in a globalised world.

3.5.1 Africa

At the continental level, President Mbeki's (2001) declaration below sets the tone for the African Renaissance:

> We have entered the 21st century having resolved and declared to ourselves, as Africans, and to the rest of the world that primarily none but ourselves can extricate us and our continent from the curse of poverty, underdevelopment and marginalisation.
>
> We march into the new era of the African Century as Africans who have made the determination that in this century we shall cease to be victims of our circumstances, but rather victors.

His vision is at the heart of the New African Initiative (NAI) which later gave rise to the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). In order to map out this new vision for the reconstruction of Africa, various excerpts from the NAI document (Department of Foreign Affairs [DFA] 2001) have been selected below.

It is important to gain an understanding of the challenges confronting the African continent because this context is very different to Europe and North America. Therefore, any planning or policy on (the internationalisation of) higher education in South Africa needs to operate within this framework.

The NAI is a pledge by African leaders to place their countries, both singly and with their neighbours, on a path of sustainable growth and development, and to participate in the world economy. "The programme is anchored in the determination of Africans to extricate themselves and the continent from the malaise of underdevelopment and exclusion in a globalising world" (DFA 2001:3).

The poverty and underdevelopment of Africa are contrasted with the prosperity of the developed world. "The continued marginalisation of Africa from the globalisation process and the social exclusion of the vast majority of its peoples" are considered to be a serious threat to global stability (*ibid.*). The dilemma of Africa is summed up in these statistics:

> In Africa, 340 million people, or half the population, live on less than US$ 1 per day. The mortality rate of children under 5 years of age is 140 per 1000, and life expectancy at birth is only 54 years. Only 58 per cent of the population has access to safe water. The rate of illiteracy for people over 15 is 41 per cent. There are only 18 mainline telephones per 1000 people in Africa, compared with 146 for the world as a whole and 567 for high-income countries (*ibid.*).

The initiative calls for the reversal of this abnormal situation by changing the relationship that underpins it in order to end the marginalisation of the African continent. Globalisation is most

marked in terms of the lack of distribution of benefits. On the one hand, globalisation offers opportunities to improve wealth and quality of life, but on the other hand, it has lead to further marginalisation of the weak. "In the absence of fair and just global rules, globalisation has increased the ability of the strong to advance their interests to the detriment of the weak… A fissure between inclusion and exclusion[68] has emerged within and among nations" (DFA 2001:7).

The last point above could apply equally to historically disadvantaged (HDI) and advantaged institutions (HAI) in South Africa. Using international student statistics as an indicator, as shall be observed in Chapter 12, the HDI-HAI divide has become wider since 1994 with respect to internationalisation. Although in the past these disparities were attributable to apartheid policy, over and above historical inequalities, inequalities due to globalisation and internationalisation in the form of international student mobility to South African Universities is now also apparent. One manifestation of this is larger international student flows to HAIs. This trend reflects existing inequalities whist simultaneously deepening and widening the HDI-HAI fissure. "The case for the role of national authorities and private institutions in guiding the globalisation agenda along a sustainable path and therefore one in which its benefits are more equally spread, remains strong" (DFA 2001:7). If this statement holds equally true for universities in South Africa, the government has a responsibility to guide and empower smaller HBUs so that they, too, may benefit from internationalisation, which is a more 'controllable' aspect of globalisation.

The argument in this thesis is along the same lines: if the South African government does not propose a coordinated policy framework for internationalisation, it will have failed to 'guide the globalisation agenda along a sustainable path'. Left to their own devices and market imperatives, the HAIs will emerge as doubly advantaged and HDIs may, in all probability, remain provincial, peripheral institutions or wither away. Arguably, this can be avoided. If HDIs can be more proactive and seek financial support that is specifically geared at capacity building in internationalisation, they may be able to channel international student flows to their advantage and to the advantage of local students.

[68] In the early part of this chapter, reference was made to the divisive and exclusive dimensions of globalisation and the 'survival of the fittest' syndrome. In effect, the face of globalisation is causing a "war between the haves and the have nots" (Kopke 2001). This is what is being confirmed in the last paragraph above. Hoogvelt (1997) also holds that the simultaneous inclusion and exclusion of peoples and countries are two intertwined aspects of the multidimensional processes of globalisation and fragmentation.

However, HDIs need professional assistance and expertise regarding internationalisation that is best sourced from the IEASA. Over and above this, "What is needed is a commitment on the part of governments, the private sector and other institutions of civil society, to the genuine integration of all nations into the global economy and body politic (DFA 2001:8). For the South African higher education sector, this point implies that international student access is not only for the financial survival of HDIs, but will help the country integrate the African continent with the rest of the world.

3.5.2 Sub-Saharan Africa, the SADC and South Africa

The section below provides information regarding South Africa in comparison to other SADC countries and the SADC region as a whole. In short, within Africa, sub-Saharan Africa is a major economic sub-system within which the SADC forms a powerful bloc. Within the SADC, South Africa is by far the dominant regional 'super-power'. Therefore, South Africa plays a pivotal role in the 'well-being' of sub-Saharan Africa. As some may argue, South Africa is viewed to be Africa's saviour from the 'untameable' and marginalising forces of globalisation. The opposite could also be argued however, namely, that South Africa could become a stepping-stone for the globalisation of Africa.

In 2000, South Africa had a population of approximately 43.68 million people. Blacks made up the majority (78%) of the population, with the balance being Whites (10%), Coloureds (9%) and Indians (3%). About 54% of the population resided in urban areas. Approximately 52% of the population were female and 35% of the population were under the age of 15. The population growth rate (1.9%) has decreased over the last decade, with 6 million South Africans being HIV positive by the end of 2000 (SAIRR 1999, 2001).
A number of factors external and internal to South Africa, its position within the SADC and Africa, may explain internationalisation of the higher education sector. These relate to social, political, moral and economic dimensions and do not emanate directly from the higher education system per se.

3.5.2.1 Social sphere

South Africa is faced by many *social* challenges typical of societies in transition. These include the need for mass housing, education, affordable healthcare, a near 50% unemployment rate, high levels of crime, and one of the highest incidences of HIV & AIDS and child and woman abuse in the world. McGowan (2002a) confirms that the multiple legacies of the apartheid era make South Africa, along with Brazil and Mexico, one of the most unequal societies on earth, while the HIV and AIDS pandemic affects one out of every nine South African adults.

3.5.2.2 Political environment

In the *political* realm, on a global or international level, the new South Africa was welcomed back into the global community of nations[69] after many years of isolation and boycotts of the apartheid regime. In April 1994, it was readmitted to full membership of major international organisations and networks such as the United Nations Organisation, the Commonwealth, the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), and the SADC. For differing periods, South Africa assumed a leadership role as chair of the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), of the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) and of the SADC (Le Pere & Van Nieuwkerk 2002). In addition, on the African continent, South Africa is one of five[70] African nations to spearhead the African Renaissance and the NEPAD. Since the assumption of the new democratic government, South Africa has been characterised by political stability, peace and economic prosperity relative to other African countries.

3.5.2.3 Moral imperatives

Having dismantled apartheid – viewed by some as a remnant of colonialism as well as a crime against humanity – South Africa earned an international *moral* high ground. In recent years, three South African leaders became Nobel Prize Laureates, namely, former Presidents Mandela and de Klerk and Archbishop Tutu. Further, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission process made international headlines with respect to South Africans' openness to

[69] Rouhani and Kishun (1999) refer to this global integration.
[70] The other four countries are Nigeria, Algeria, Senegal and Libya.

confronting the past and embracing a culture of human rights. South Africans' willingness to be transparent in tackling major moral issues endeared them to the international community as a possible mediator in addressing other countries' moral dilemmas.

With respect to a commitment to human rights and democracy, former President Mandela had asserted as early as 1993 that human rights would be the light that would guide South Africa's foreign affairs (Mandela 1993 in Le Pere & van Nieuwkerk 2002). Further, the ANC's foreign policy in March 1994 defined seven principles that would guide South Africa's foreign relations. These were, one, the promotion of democracy and human rights; two, accepting peace, justice and international law in guiding relations between nations; three, a commitment to the development of the African continent and the Southern African region in particular; four, a belief that South Africa's growing economic development depends on regional and international cooperation in an interdependent world; and five, a belief that international relations must mirror a democratic South Africa (DFA 1996 in Le Pere & Van Nieuwkerk 2002:250).

South Africa is also obliged to pay its moral debt to many African countries that supported the struggle against apartheid:

> The orientation of the South African government's post-1994 foreign policy can be described as vacillating between 'realist' and 'moral' internationalism. There was a palpable tension between prioritising its perceived commercial, trade and political interests *and* its role as a moral crusader in the promotion of global human rights and democracy [original emphasis] (Le Pere & Van Nieuwkerk 2002:253).

This moral obligation is explained more simply by a Director from the Department of Education:

> In the new era of globalisation and internationalisation, you have strategic relations with countries because of a number of reasons. Solidarity in our case plays an important and crucial role because of what countries and their people have done for South Africa's liberation (Interview, G Jeppe, 14 September 2001).

How this moral debt is to be repaid is not clear, but because of it, South Africa cannot turn its back on many neighbouring countries that are less well off. Mc Gowan (2002b) maintains that South Africa needs to figure out how to use its relative power within sub-Saharan Africa to

promote the African Renaissance, while at the same time meeting the many so-far unmet needs of most of its people.

With respect to South Africa and its moral position within the SADC and globally, that South Africa is in an anomalous situation is important. Although it is a regional and continental 'superpower' and wields some international influence, internally it has its own problems and weaknesses (as explained above under Section 3.5.2.1 on 'Social Sphere'). While it enjoys a great deal of goodwill and feels under a moral obligation to repay it debts to African countries that supported it during the struggle against apartheid, internal conditions demand that 'charity begins at home'.

3.5.2.4 Economic advantages

This section further explains South Africa's status as a regional and continental 'superpower' within the SADC (Butts & Thomas 1986) from an economic perspective. In Table 6 overleaf, the column representing the economic size of each of the SADC states as measured by total GNP in millions of PPP US$ in 1999, is significant and indicates the following:

> South Africa is the economic giant of the region, with an economy about three times bigger than the rest of the region combined, and twelve times bigger than the region's second-largest economy, Zimbabwe[71]. South Africa is the major trading state in SADC, accounting for 63% of the group's total exports and 59% of its imports. This provides South Africa with a structural power base to operate from (McGowan 2002a:276).

In addition, South Africa has been wielding its economic influence further afield in East and Central Africa. For example, South African mobile phone companies are major stakeholders in countries such as Kenya and Tanzania, and South African food franchises, such as Nandos and Steers, have a visible presence in many African countries. "Because we now live in a global, informational economy, South Africa's great lead in telecommunications infrastructure is particularly significant" (McGowan 2002a:278) for increased research, communication and business:

> South Africa has a near monopoly of both telephones and computers in Southern Africa[72] … In 2000 it was ranked 25th in the world in terms of the number of its host computers (between Poland and Argentina), and it

[71] See Table 6 (from McGowan 2002a:275)
[72] See Table 7 (from McGowan 2002b:309).

resembled countries like Chile and Mexico in its per capita number of hosts[73] (McGowan 2002a:278).

South Africa's position in terms of the number of host computers within the SADC and globally is indicated respectively in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 6. Basic Indictors for Southern African Countries

Country	Area in km^2	Estimated population in millions	Total GNP in PPP US$ millions	Real GNP per capita in PPP US$	HDI[74] value	HDI rank*
		1999	1999	1999	1999	1999
Angola	1 246 700	12	7 800	632	0.422	146
Botswana	581 730	2	9 600	6 032	0.577	114
DRC	2 344 858	50	5 400**	822***	0.429	142
Lesotho	30 355	2	4 300	2 058	0.541	120
Malawi	118 484	11	6 300	581	0.397	151
Mauritius	2 040	1	10 123	8 652	0.765	63
Mozambique	801 590	17	13 800	797	0.323	157
Namibia	824 268	2	9 100	5 369	0.601	111
Seychelles	455	0.1	826	10 381	0.795	x
South Africa	1 219 090	42	350 200	8 318	0.702	94
Swaziland	17 365	1	4 274	4 200	0.583	113
Tanzania	945 087	33	15 700	478	0.436	140
Zambia	752 618	10	6 800	686	0.427	143
Zimbabwe	390 759	12	29 400	2 470	0.554	117
SADC total	9 275 398	195.1	473 623	3 677 +	0.539 +	N/A
South Africa as % of SADC	13.1	21.5	73.9	N/A	N/A	N/A

Notes: * out of 162 countries; ** 1998 estimate, not in PPP US$; *** 1998 estimate; x = the Seychelles was not ranked in the main Table 1, but its HDI score would place it between 49th and 50th; + = average; N/A = not applicable.

Sources: World Bank (2001:274-275, 316); United Nations Development Programme (2001 Tables 1& A);

Source: McGowan 2002a:275.

[73] This information is indicated in Table 8.

[74] The Human Development Index, comprising measures of average life expectancy, educational achievement and per capita income, can range from 1.000 to 0.000. Three categories exist: high human development (1.000 – 0.800), medium (0.799 – 0.500) and low (0.499 – 0.000) (McGowan 2002a:275).

Table 7. The SADC Transportation and Communications Infrastructure

Country	Railway track in kilometres	Paved roads in kilometres	Number of major ports	Telephones* (estimated) in thousands	Number of host computers
	1999	1999	1999	1999	July 2000
Angola	2 952 **	19 156**	3	61	9
Botswana	971	4 343	LL	78	2343
DRC	5 138 **	280**	1	46	15
Lesotho	3	887	LL	18	85
Malawi	789	5 254	LL	34	1
Mauritius	0	1 834	1	160	3 286
Mozambique	3 131	5 685	3	60	179
Namibia	2 382	5 250	2	121	3 439
Seychelles	0	176	1	20	4
South Africa	21 431	63 027	7	7 075	184 547
Swaziland	226	510	LL	20	739
Tanzania	3 569	3 704	2	157	536
Zambia	2 164	6 500	LL	84	867
Zimbabwe	2 759	8 692	LL	282	3 162
SADC total	45 515	127 818	20	8 216	199 212
South Africa as % of SADC	47.1	49.3	N/A	86.1	92.6
Notes: * fixed line and cellular; ** because of war, many of these railroads and roads are not useable; LL = landlocked country with no sea ports; N/A = not applicable.					
Sources: CIA (2000); Internet Software Consortium (2001).					

Source: Mc Gowan (2002a:279).

South Africa's dominance of the SADC and sub-Saharan Africa is further explained below in Table 8 (overleaf) with reference to regional infrastructure and mineral wealth. Southern Africa is a vast region of 9.3 million square kilometres, about the same size as the USA and somewhat smaller than China. Its area represents 39% of sub-Saharan Africa. Because South Africa is in the region, the SADC's gross national product (GNP) in 1999 was USD 473.6 billion, representing 51% of sub-Saharan Africa's GNP of USD 929.3bn. From this, that the SADC is Africa's economic powerhouse is clear. The SADC is "historically, infrastructurally, economically and politically Africa's most coherent and integrated region. Indeed, it represents a regional subsystem centred on South Africa, which is of considerable importance within the international system of states and the global political economy" (McGowan 2002a:269).

Table 8. Rich, Online Countries Versus Poor, Off-Line Countries

Country	Per capita income in PPP US$ 1999	Population in millions 1999	Host computers July 2000	People per host
United States	30 600	273	33 876 053	8.0
Denmark	24 280	5	1 916 512	2.6
Japan	24 041	127	3 413 281	37.2
Finland	21 209	5	703 958	7.1
United Kingdom	20 883	59	2 080 906	28.4
Argentina	11 324	37	175 303	211.1
Chile	8 370	15	51 380	291.9
South Africa	8 318	42	184 547	227.6
Poland	7 894	39	259 511	150.3
Mexico	7 719	97	495 747	195.7
Lesotho	2 058	2	85	23 259.4
Nigeria	744	124	81	1 530 864.2
Angola	632	12	9	1 333 333.3
Malawi	581	11	1	11 000 000.0
Tanzania	478	33	536	61 567.2

Sources: Per capita income and population (World Bank 2001:274-275); Internet host computers (Internet Software Consortium 2001); people per host computer (author's calculations).

Source: McGowan 2002b:309.

The rail transport system extends from Cape Town to Zaire. The core area of the rail network is in South Africa, with three quarters of the railway mileage, from where the threads of railway extend northward to bind Namibia, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Zambia and Zaire.

> With only 13% of SADC's area and about 21.5% of its population, South Africa has nearly one-half of SADC's paved roads and railways, and the seven largest and efficient ports among the region's nineteen…" (McGowan 2002a:278).

This is mainly because South Africa's "sophisticated transport infrastructure provides the most dependable avenue for the imports and exports of many landlocked Southern African states" such as Lesotho and Swaziland (Butts & Thomas 1986:55). In addition many of their economies are dependent on South African imports for survival[75].

[75] In the mid 1980s, South Africa produced 77% of the region's GNP, three-quarters of all electrical power, rail transport, coal, maize and wheat (Butts & Thomas 1986).

South Africa has long contained the most industrialised part of Africa (Winai-Strom 1978:18). "Due to its vast mineral wealth and industries, which have developed rapidly since the 1920s, South Africa became a semi-peripheral power of considerable importance to the rest of the world and the regional *hegemon*" (Ahwiring-Obeng & McGowan 1998; McGowan & Ahwiring-Obeng 1998 in McGowan 2002a:272 [emphasis in original]), not only in Southern Africa but also in sub-Saharan Africa (McGowan 2002a). The relationship between countries of Southern Africa is therefore, characterised by "asymmetrical interdependence"[76] or dependence (*ibid.* :282).

Further, South Africa has a strategic position because not only is it a continental 'superpower', but it continues to wield considerable influence in the international arena, as outlined below:

> Because South Africa's relationships with other states in Southern Africa are asymmetrical in nature, the country has substantial economic and political leverage in the region… Asymmetry also characterizes relationships at the global level. Because the West depends upon South Africa for access to the region's strategic minerals[77], for the security of the Cape oil route… South Africa exercises considerable influence over the African foreign policies of the superpowers (Butts & Thomas 1986:iii).

3.5.2.5 Higher education

South Africa's position as regional 'superpower' or semi-peripheral metropolis is by no means restricted to the region's economy, politics, or strategic advantage alone. Its dominance additionally extends to the realm of higher education. The South African higher education system, likewise, dwarfs that of other countries in the region and that of many other countries further afield on the continent. According to a SAUVCA statement (2004:1):

> The regional and continental setting demands that, just as South Africa is playing a key part in the African renaissance and associated initiatives such as the African Union, the Pan-African Parliament and the NEPAD, so the South African higher education sector should be taking a lead role in developing higher education in the Southern African region.

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[76] For a more detailed discussion of models and concepts of interdependence and their contribution to state behaviour, refer to Keohane and Nye (1977).

[77] Of all non-fuel minerals, the four considered strategically most important to the West are chromium, cobalt, platinum and manganese. South Africa largely controls the supply of these four minerals: it produces most of the West's manganese, chromium and platinum and serves as the export route for approximately one-half of the minerals produced in the Zaire/Zambia copper-cobalt belt (Butts & Thomas 1986:8).

Indeed, the higher education system contributes to human resources development in a major way. To imagine South Africa's rise to regional leadership without a sound higher education system would be difficult.

Among the key factors which make any country productive and develop its human resource capacity is its education system in general and the higher education system in particular. South Africa is no exception to this rule, and it is to its highly developed and diverse higher education system that its competitive advantage over other African countries may be attributed. The universities and technikons have, in the past[78], catered for more theoretical degree and postgraduate programmes, as well as more practical, vocational-oriented diploma programmes respectively.

As will be described in Chapter 5, the system is at present undergoing transformation in the shape of institutional mergers out of which some comprehensive institutions have emerged, while others have kept their separate identities as universities or universities of technology. At this stage, to what extent these mergers will affect the long-term shape and size of the South African higher education landscape is unclear.

Compared to higher education in many other African countries, the South African system offers internationally recognised programmes, provides a fairly wide curriculum choice, and has been relatively cheaper than programmes on offer in the United Kingdom, Europe, North America or Australia. In professional fields such as medicine, dentistry, nursing, engineering and accountancy, most university programmes are accredited by international professional councils and institutions. Further, South African higher education institutions have been functional and, on the whole, free of the long-term disruptions and lack of resources which beset other African higher education institutions due to socio-political turmoil and financial crises. Furthermore, the curriculum choice available is of greater relevance to conditions in other African countries, as opposed to those in highly industrialised countries. Proximity to home country in terms of geographic distance and the prevalence of African culture at some institutions, marked by African Humanism or *ubuntu*, also renders South Africa higher

[78] While some universities and technikons have merged into comprehensive institutions, providing university and technikon-type programmes, other universities and technikons have not merged and have preserved their separate identities and curriculum offerings.

education qualifications as more desirable and within reach of African students. These appealing features of the South African higher education system will be explored in Chapter 12.

With reincorporation into the international community and realisations about the imperatives of globalisation, the need for applied knowledge production ('mode 2')[79], and the growth of ICT, trends in international knowledge production had to be accommodated in South African higher education. As will be noted in Chapter 5, it was to these ends that a number of policy documents emerged, starting with the report of the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE 1996), the Green Paper (DoE 1996), the White Paper (DoE 1997), The Higher Education Act (1997). In order to accommodate international trends, a number of 'international experts and advisors' were appointed to serve on bodies preparing these policy documents. Although a great deal of sound policy emanated from these discussions, sadly, policy on internationalisation was conspicuous by its absence in all the above documents.

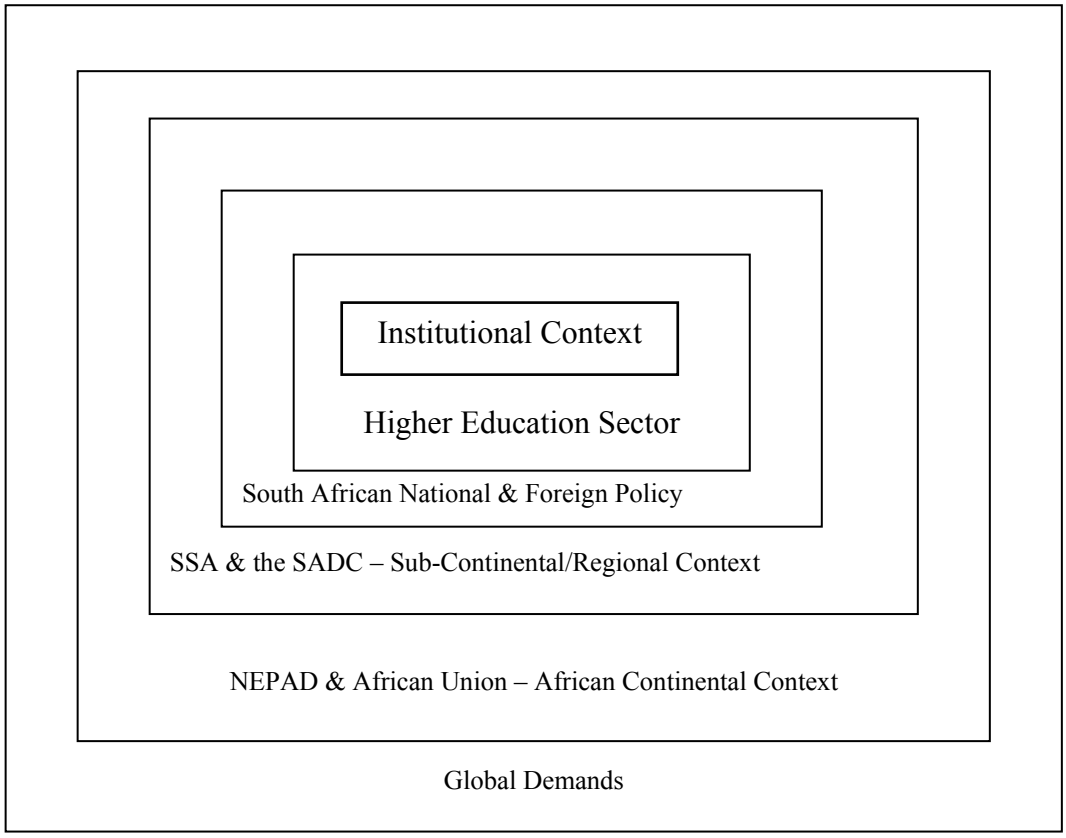
3.5.3 Contexts: Conclusion

To sum up, the external and internal contexts[80] which may account for the internationalisation of South African higher education institutions are reflected in social, political, moral, and economic developments and operate at global, continental, regional, national, and sector levels[81]. These developments may be summarised as South Africa's moral high ground, its role as regional and continental 'superpower' or African metropolis, the wave of social and economic transformation sweeping a country in transition, and the existence of a well-established and recognised higher education system. These developments should be viewed against the background of new modes of knowledge production in a globally networked Third Millennium. In order to balance these internal and external demands in the realm of higher education, the government has adopted a selective approach to internationalisation by engaging with its immediate neighbours. For example, the SADC students are charged the

[79] Whereas 'Mode 1' knowledge refers to 'pure' knowledge that is discipline-based and emanates from research universities and higher education institutions, 'Mode 2' knowledge is applied, trans-disciplinary, context-based and is generated in a range or organisations. See Kraak (2000), Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott and Trow (1994) and Scott (1995).
[80] The context is external to the higher education institution but external and internal with respect to South Africa.
[81] The institutional level policies will be examined in the case study chapters (Chapters 6 to 10).

same tuition fees as local students by South African higher education institutions. The dynamic interaction between the external and internal contexts of internationalisation in South African higher education is illustrated in Figure 4.

Figure 4. The external and internal contexts of internationalisation of higher education in South Africa.



Former President Mandela's words appropriately summarise South Africa's 'turn-around' position in the international arena: "For a country that not so many years ago was the polecat of the world, South Africa has truly undergone a revolution in its relations with the international community" (Mandela 1993 in Le Pere & Van Nieuwkerk 2002:250). It is crucial that historically disadvantaged institutions, the higher education sector, the Department of Education, and other role players use the opportunities for internationalisation presented by this revolution which has created a unique confluence of global forces – a relatively well-developed higher education system, the marketisation of higher education institutions, and South Africa's regional 'superpower' status within a regional sub-system – an opportunity that will not soon be repeated.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The primary aim of this chapter was to provide the background and contemporary context – in effect, the conceptual framework – that accounts for the emergence of internationalisation as a significant aspect of South African higher education after the country was reintegrated into the global community. Internationalisation does not lend itself to easy explanation, but is shaped and conditioned by a variety of influences. The first to be examined in this chapter was the connection between internationalisation and the larger phenomenon of globalisation. Similar to other countries, South Africa does not escape the pressures of globalisation. However, globalisation offers only a partial explanation of the 'environment' out of which internationalisation has emerged. More traditional migration theories also serve to enhance understanding, and these theories were examined in the second section of the chapter.

By way of transition from the general to the particular, two countries that have experienced internationalisation of higher education for a much longer period than South Africa, namely, Germany and the United States, were briefly discussed. This discussion added to the understanding not only of where internationalisation stands currently, but where it may be headed in South Africa. Finally, the uniquely South African environment was analysed in its social, political, moral and economic dimensions. Developments in South Africa respond to internal, national pressures, but also, to external influences from the African continent, sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Africa (SADC), and within the country itself.

A number of conclusions may be drawn from the discussions in this chapter. It was observed that while globalisation has both positive and negative outcomes, it is a process that can neither "be held completely at bay" (Altbach 2004:3), nor is it reversible. In effect, the face of globalisation has caused a "war between the haves and the have nots" (Kopke 2001), and has further increased the marginalisation of the African continent. Although local actors are frequently unable to control its direction or speed (Beerkens 2003), coordinated action through regional responses is one way of harnessing globalisation and combating its worst effects.

It is therefore advisable for the African continent to put up a united front against the undesirable influences of globalisation. The NEPAD appears to be one such continental initiative, while the formation of regional blocs, such as the SADC, is another response.

Through effectively pooling their resources, countries in the SADC region and on the continent would be able to put up a stronger front against the destructive effects of globalisation. However, what is important is that to be effective, these responses need to be coordinated and managed.

As elaborated in this chapter, South Africa is the economic and military powerhouse of sub-Saharan Africa, the regional 'superpower' in the SADC, and by implication, a major power on the African continent. In addition, it wields considerable influence in international politics. Therefore, South Africa may be viewed as Africa's best hope against the marginalising forces of globalisation, a proverbial 'David' against the 'Goliath' of globalisation represented by the wealthy nations of the North and the West and more recently known as the 'G8'. On the other hand, there are concerns that South Africa is becoming a conduit for the globalisation of Africa[82].

In order to engage with globalisation and the informational global economy, high-level education, human resources development, good governance, a human rights culture, and sound international relations are crucial. Given that the higher education systems of most sub-Saharan countries have been in crisis over the last 20 years and that many of these countries have been undergoing social, economic, and political turmoil and upheavals, such as undemocratic regimes, 'ethnic cleansing', and genocide leading to small- and large-scale population migrations, the need for an internationalisation framework for South African higher education institutions takes on a new significance. The South African higher education sector may be more effectively used to benefit the continent if it is viewed to be a continental asset rather than an exclusively national resource. This view is echoed by Mthembu (2004:285-286) who states that with respect to the implications of internationalisation for the continent, a strong argument can be made that for universities in Africa, internationalisation constitutes at once an agent of internal change, development and improvement, as well as an opportunity for offering a uniquely African contribution to world knowledge (Mthembu 2004:285-6). More importantly, SAUVCA (2004:1) also supports the link between internationalisation and the prosperity of the region:

[82] South Africa has to play a very delicate balancing act so as not to abuse its regional super-power status and become a mere 'bridgehead', facilitating access to the African continent for the very undesirable forces of (economic) globalisation it is trying to resist. For example, subsidiaries of South African cellular telephone and fast food companies have already established satellite sites in other African countries.

> Critically, internationalisation and regionalisation are interlinked processes. Growth and sustainability of excellent university education, research and development in South and Southern Africa will be a leading indicator of the future growth of the economies of the region and the quality of life of its people. It is therefore of the essence the South African higher education sector conceptualise its approach to internationalisation clearly and in targeted ways.

A regional approach to the development of a culture of human rights and democracy for the SADC would be far more effective if the South African higher education sector would embrace internationalisation through adopting a coordinated, coherent, and consolidated long-term strategy for internationalisation. Although a SAUVCA (2004) position paper has acknowledged the important need for such a strategy concrete action remains to be seen. While IEASA's immense contribution to internationalisation cannot be ignored, it has evidently been sidelined. The SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and Training, South Africa's commitment to human resource development and the formation of the SARUA are but the embryonic germs of a continent-wide vision.

CHAPTER 4
AN EXPLORATORY, MIXED-METHODS RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an account of the research design, methods and strategies used for this study. The chapter begins with a rationale for the adoption of a mixed-method, qualitative-quantitative research design and considers some of the difficulties that this approach presents. Inevitably, a researcher's personal preferences influence his or her choice of research design. I express these preferences as part of the rationale and in the procedures for ensuring validity and reliability. Institutional case studies form the core of the research. The chapter includes justification for the selection of five South African universities that were at different stages on their paths to internationalisation. This complex multi-method research design is intended to be a contribution to the body of research in international higher education and internationalisation.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.2.1 Adopting a Mixed-Method Research Design

As stated in Chapter 1, this research is an exploratory study, using a combined research design which may be referred to as a "two-phase" or "mixed-method" design (Creswell 1994:177). The structure of this chapter in particular and the format of this thesis in general are thus adopted from Creswell (1994).Adoption of a mixed-method design is based on the view that a study of this nature is best suited to multi-pronged research strategies and that the use of diverse methods will enrich the research. However, although this study is a mixed-method design, it leans preponderantly towards qualitative methods in so far as it uses a multi-site case study approach.

Mixed-method design combines qualitative and quantitative methods in several stages. It enables the pragmatic researcher to cut across the false dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative approaches and make the most efficient use of both paradigms for understanding social phenomena (Creswell 1994). In a mixed-method design, the researcher collects both qualitative and quantitative data. Both themes and statistical analysis ("words and numbers")

are presented in an integrated manner (Rossman & Wilson 1985 in Creswell 1994:185). In addition, the mixed-methods design may fulfil several purposes: triangulating or converging findings, elaborating on results, using one method to inform another, discovering paradoxes or contradictions, and extending the breadth of the inquiry (Creswell 1994:185).

A study on internationalisation would not have been suited to quantitative or qualitative designs alone, as is evident from the inadequacies of the designs adopted by others in previous studies internationally. Teichler (1996a) has identified some of these methodological shortcomings. He is of the opinion that "research on academic mobility, is currently still unfolding" and is in its "embryonic stage of development" (339). Further, most of the research is "occasional, coincidental, sporadic or episodic" (341). Currently, the research methods are inadequate and rely mainly on "surveys of students, staff or administrators by questionnaire or interview" (342). Most studies have used the "typical content and methods of psychological and sociological research on student attitudes and adjustment to a foreign context (339). A need thus exists to "ensure differing methods of research are used in combination to tackle the complexity of issues involved" (342).

In addition to Teichler's observations regarding the research methodologies used internationally, my own observation is that research on internationalisation of higher education (institutions) and the professionalisation of personnel promoting it in South Africa is at an embryonic stage. Thus, no pre-established or preferred research designs exist to draw upon.

In this study, the following factors motivated the selection of a mixed-method research design. First, a rich understanding of internationalisation requires various levels of investigation, in other words, micro, meso, and macro: individual/personal for the students and staff, as well as departmental, institutional, provincial, national, and regional (SADC). Second, it requires the perspectives of various actors[83]: students; academic and administrative staff; directors and managers of units; government personnel in the Department of Education; and mediating agencies such as the IEASA and others, for example, the SAUVCA. Understanding not one, but multiple realities is important. Third, the phenomenon being presented, namely, internationalisation, and in particular, student mobility, had several

[83] To the extent possible, I tried to obtain the views of as many of these stakeholders as possible.

manifestations and facets: people experience internationalisation as individuals and as members of groups. For those affected by internationalisation, the phenomenon was personal and subjective, not just impersonal and objective because when students move to another country, they experience many issues first-hand; further, when students move around, they do so in groups; therefore, the phenomenon was observable statistically. Moreover, students study at universities, each of which has its own character, vision and mission.

In addition to operating within a national system of higher education, internationalisation has an institutional dimension. These universities are located in a specific country with a very specific history, geography, and socio-political identity. Hence, this international education experience is shaped by a specific national context. South Africa is part of the SADC and the African continent at large; therefore, regional policies and continental initiatives would inevitably influence the phenomenon. South Africa was the 'flavour of the month'[84] in the international arena at the turn of the century, but did not remain so for long.

The data I sought were not merely factual, objective data to be discovered in university documents, policy statements and government statistics. To hear different voices, alternative viewpoints, dissenting opinions, and experience first-hand how the various stakeholders perceive internationalisation was considered important. Moreover, to get a feel for the process and the personalities involved, find out how each university views this process and why or how universities have responded to the international student influx in different ways, for example, why some institutions have attracted greater numbers of international students than others, was also considered important.

The answers to these questions could not be obtained through either quantitative or qualitative methods alone. For example, while quantitative methods were used to gather, analyse and investigate trends and flows in international student enrolments, qualitative methods had to be employed to explain why these trends were occurring. As Meloy (1994:43) confirms, "We could not follow a cut and dried formula and do justice to the knowledge generated through our research and the richness of our data". Therefore, a mixed-method research design with a preponderance of qualitative work was decided upon for a number of reasons (Morse 1991:120).

[84] 'Flavour of the month' is an expression meaning 'newly found popularity'.

Various unique characteristics distinguish qualitative research from quantitative research. Qualitative research occurs in natural settings and focuses on the process that is taking place as well as the product or outcome. Researchers are interested in understanding how things occur (Fraenkel & Wallen 1990; Merriam 1988). Theories or hypotheses are not established *a priori.* Rather the design is emergent and the outcomes are negotiated (Creswell 1994). Moreover, the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection rather than some other mechanism (Eisner 1991; Fraenkel & Wallen 1990; Lincoln & Guba 1985; Merriam 1988). Further, the data which emerge from a qualitative study are descriptive; in other words, they are reported in words or pictures rather than in numbers (Fraenkel & Wallen 1990; Marshall & Rossman 1989; Merriam 1988).

In the section below, some of the above features are elaborated. First, no hard and fast rule exists regarding the structure/format of the study because the design is emergent. In a qualitative dissertation, the observable structure or format – the number of chapters, headings, inclusion and type of data, appendices and so on – provide the reader with an explicit clue to the researcher's processes of analysis and interpretation, "*which are a part of the meaning of the study* [original emphasis]" (Meloy 1994:4).

One reason for the predominance of qualitative methods is that both the knowledge field and the methodology for undertaking research in the field of the internationalisation of higher education are still evolving. As Creswell (1994:21 & 146) confirms:

> One of the chief reasons for conducting a qualitative study is that the study is *exploratory*, not much has been written about the topic or population being studied, and the researcher seeks to listen to informants and to build a picture based on their ideas.
>
> Qualitative research is exploratory and researchers may use it to explore a topic when the variables and theory base are *unknown* [emphasis added].

Morse (1991:120) corroborates this view by stating that a qualitative design is suitable when "a need exists to explore and describe the phenomenon and to develop theory". As new knowledge emerges, so the researcher is able to build concepts, hypotheses, theories and abstractions from the details. In this respect, the process of qualitative research is *inductive* (Creswell 1994; Merriam 1988); in contrast, quantitative research is deductive.

As is widely recognized in the social sciences, the case study method is especially well-suited to the in-depth study of an institution. Having visited the five selected universities and interviewed a number of students and staff, I was able to intuitively understand each campus. This was rather like tasting different dishes and trying to analyse the ingredients based on the taste.

In addition to the scholarly reasons for a mixed-method approach, the research was driven by my own preference for methods in which the role of personal experience and interpretation for unearthing various levels of reality is emphasized over and above objective knowledge which is 'out there' to be discovered. Further, due to a lack of theory in this field of study, a need for 'grounded theory' existed.

4.2.2 Difficulties in Conducting Mixed-Method Research

On the downside, great difficulty was experienced with respect to selecting mixed-method research. Many layers of reality are apparent and many different versions of the reality of the internationalisation of South African universities exist. As a qualitative researcher, I was trying to "open up the possibilities for different meanings rather than converge on 'the' point" (Meloy 1994:69). The experiences and perceptions of both international students and International Office personnel were of interest to me as were the different 'meanings' they gave to internationalisation (Merriam 1988).

Another difficulty in undertaking qualitative research is the fact that the researcher is the research instrument. This causes a number of complications, such as bias, multiple actions and roles, and living with ambiguity, as outlined below by Meloy (1994:68):

> The processes of qualitative research are multiple; they are linked and interactive, to each other and to the human being who is the research instrument.

For the qualitative researcher, conducting research is synonymous with multiple, simultaneous actions. The researcher as human instrument is methodologist, analyst, writer, thinker, interpreter, enquirer – an individual human being who is capable of and responsible for some kind of final, organised presentation of the interaction in context (Meloy 1994).

> The qualitative researcher has to live with the complexity and ambiguity surrounding the multiple, simultaneous processes of doing qualitative research and being the research instrument (Meloy 1994:86).

Despite the above complexities, I enjoyed the intuitive aspect of this research:

> Aspects of the qualitative research process are inexorably intuitive and implicit – internal and integral to the human being as researcher – rather than rationally and explicitly standardized to be consistent across human beings (Meloy 1994:7)[85].

4.3 DATA

4.3.1 Data Collected

In keeping with a multi-method research design, different types of data were gathered in order to find the answers to the research questions. For example, statistical data were sought in order to identify trends in the enrolment of international students at the five selected universities as well as the national enrolment trends. Qualitative data in the form of institutional and national policy documents, minutes of meetings, strategic plans, institutional calendars, and interview data were sought in order to provide answers to questions such as the pull factors influencing international student mobility to South Africa; strategies on the part of selected institutions of higher education to internationalise their campuses; and current policies of higher education institutions, the South African government, and other organisations such as the IEASA and the SAUVCA with respect to internationalisation. Data types, sources and collection strategies are summarised in Table 9 later in this chapter.

4.3.2 Data Sources

Qualitative data gathered from university personnel, International Offices, and marketing offices were related to strategic planning, the establishment of International Office structures in each institution, and broader national developments. In addition quantitative data on international students were sought from International Offices.

The principal qualitative data sought from international students were their reasons for coming to and their experiences of study in South Africa. In addition, more specific questions

[85] See Wolcott (1990) and Richardson (1990) for their perspectives on this topic.

were asked about their perceptions of the International Offices at their universities. Local student opinions regarding the internationalisation of their institutions were also sought.

Additional data were gathered from other sources. Quantitative data on international students were obtained from the Department of Education with respect to institutional and national enrolment trends. Documents were gathered from personnel in the department, as well as from university personnel. These same people were also interviewed.

4.3.3 Data Collection Strategies and Methods

Data collection strategies included an extensive literature review, documentary analysis, interviews, site visits and informal observation. A student questionnaire was also developed and used mainly as an interview schedule (see Appendix C). Quantitative (statistical) data regarding student numbers were sourced directly from existing data bases of higher education institutions as well as from the Department of Education.

An extensive *literature survey* was undertaken which was directed at identifying emerging issues and trends in the field of international education, international student mobility, and the internationalisation of higher education. The literature survey also served to refine the conceptual framework for the study.

A documentary analysis of South African issues and concerns, as reflected in selected policy documents, was undertaken. These documents included annual reports, policy documents, strategic plans, the minutes of meetings, occasional publications, marketing materials, Web sites and the like. In addition to literature on South African higher education institutions, other materials were sourced from the Department of Education, the International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA), the South African University Vice Chancellors Association (SAUVCA), the Committee of Technikon Principals (CTP), the Council for Higher Education (CHE), and the Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET). Use was also made of informal documentation such as papers or articles written by staff members.

Interviews were also conducted with relevant stakeholders[86]. Semi-structured interview schedules/protocols were used as a guide to navigate the interview. However, this was merely a guide and other important issues not on the interview schedule/protocol that emerged during the interview were also pursued because each interviewee and interview was unique. Copies of the interview protocols appear in Appendix C.

At universities, interviews were conducted in 1998 and again between June and October 2001. Two groups of informants were interviewed: university personnel – both academics and administrators – as well as students. The personnel comprised senior university administrators such as registrars, deans of students, faculty deans or their deputies, directors of International Offices, International Office personnel and other academics who taught sizable groups of international students. Students included student leaders such as executive members of the Student Representative Councils (SRC), executive members of international student societies, groups of international students, and senior international students. Both groups of informants were purposefully selected on the basis of contact with international students and knowledge of or involvement in the internationalisation processes on campuses.

Elite interviews were conducted with three directors in the Department of Education, directors of International Offices at selected South African universities, university planners and other high-level personnel such as the IEASA president. The table below summarises the types of data collected and the sources and the strategies used. Two main units of analysis for the study were chosen: higher education institutions and international students.

This study investigated the phenomenon of internationalisation at various levels such as the institutional level, the national level, and the regional (SADC) level. As such, a need to collect data to explore and understand this phenomenon from various sources, including international students, universities, and national and regional developments pertaining to international students, was apparent. In this respect, to distinguish between units of observation and units of analysis was considered appropriate (Brewer & Hunter, 1989).

[86] Selection of interviewees is elaborated upon under Section 4 on "Research Participants" in this chapter.

Table 9. Data Collection Strategies and Sources

Data	Source	Strategy	Primary (P) or Secondary (S) source
Pull factors experiences	Students	Questionnaire Interview – individual & focus group	P P
	Literature	Content analysis	S
International student statistics	5 Institutions	Request	P
	DoE	Request	S
Institutional strategies & policy	Students	Interviews – individual & focus group	P
	Staff – admin & academic	Interviews - individual	P
	Documents	Content analysis	S
Emerging national policy	DoE staff	Interviews – individual	P
	DoE documents	Content analysis	S
	IEASA President	Interview	P
	IEASA conference papers & documents	Content analysis	S
	SAUVCA documents	Content analysis	S
	CTP documents	Content analysis	S
	CHE documents	Content analysis	S

4.3.4 Units of Analysis

The *units of observation* – those units *from* which data are collected – included international students as collectivities, for the most part the personnel involved in international student activities at selected universities; government personnel involved in internationalisation activities; associations such as the SAUVCA and the IEASA; and a few other role-players. In this study, the *units of analysis* – entities *about* which data were collected – were international students as a collective and selected universities as case studies. Because the main intention of this research was to investigate the responses of the South African public higher education sector to international student influx, five universities were selected for the in-depth case study. Emerging themes from the cases provided categories for data analysis and presentation. Additionally national data on international students enrolment trends were gathered from most higher education institutions or the Department of Education.

4.3.5 Data Analysis

In a mixed approach, the process of data analysis is eclectic (Creswell 1994:153): No 'right way' (Tesch 1990) exists. Ideally, data collection and the initial data analysis occur in parallel. Unfortunately, I was not in a position to analyse the data simultaneously with data collection due to the fact that while in the field, the process of data collection had to be very rapid and prior to the onset of exams for students and the closure of institutions before the end of year vacation. In addition, due to the location of two of the institutions in the Western Cape, data collection involved travel to both sites and had to be consecutive. Further, the assistance of a professional audio-typist was sought to transcribe the interviews. As such, I was able to engage in data analysis, data interpretation, and narrative reporting only after I had completed the initial phase of data gathering. Limited simultaneous data analysis, however, was carried out, mainly on the quantitative data.

Meloy (1994:35) states, "when it comes to qualitative research, it is not always possible to know when one has collected enough data", and the fieldwork yielded "sheer massive volumes of information…pages of interviews and whole files" of documents which were truly overwhelming (Patton 1980:297). The process of qualitative data analysis was therefore based on data reduction and interpretation (Marshall & Rossman 1989), or de-contextualisation and re-contextualisation (Tesch 1990). In this process, voluminous amounts of information were reduced to patterns, categories or themes and then interpreted by using "schema" (Creswell 1994:154).

I studied interview transcripts for coding purposes. In response to the semi-structured questions in the interview schedule/ protocol, I grouped the responses into several emerging themes or patterns. The information was then segmented (Tesch 1990) into these themes or categories (Bogdan & Biklen 1992). This process of transcript analysis was conducted manually, in other words, without the use of computer software. Two postgraduate students assisted with analysis of the data, thus increasing the internal validity of the data.

The data obtained have been analysed and presented in narrative, descriptive and tabulated formats. This is in line with mixed method research in which various formats are used to present the data. In analysing the data, several strategies were used. These included analysis of qualitative data – interview and documentary – as well as quantitative (statistical) data.

Statistical data on international student enrolments, for example, country of origin, field and level of study, number of international students at selected South African universities, were obtained directly from the five individual institutions. These quantitative data were analysed using a calculator to highlight existing and emerging trends and patterns with respect to the selected universities. In addition, national data about international student enrolments at South African universities were sought from the Department of Education. Both the institutional as well as the national statistics were sourced from existing databases.

Besides direct observation and questionnaires, data collection for the case studies was conducted through the use of semi-structured and informal interviews. An interview schedule was developed over the period 1998 to 2000 and used in 2001, mainly as a guide for the semi-structured interviews. In this way, qualitative information was collected from relevant staff and students. Additional qualitative data were sought from relevant personnel at higher education institutions (for example, International Office directors), relevant government departments, and international organisations.

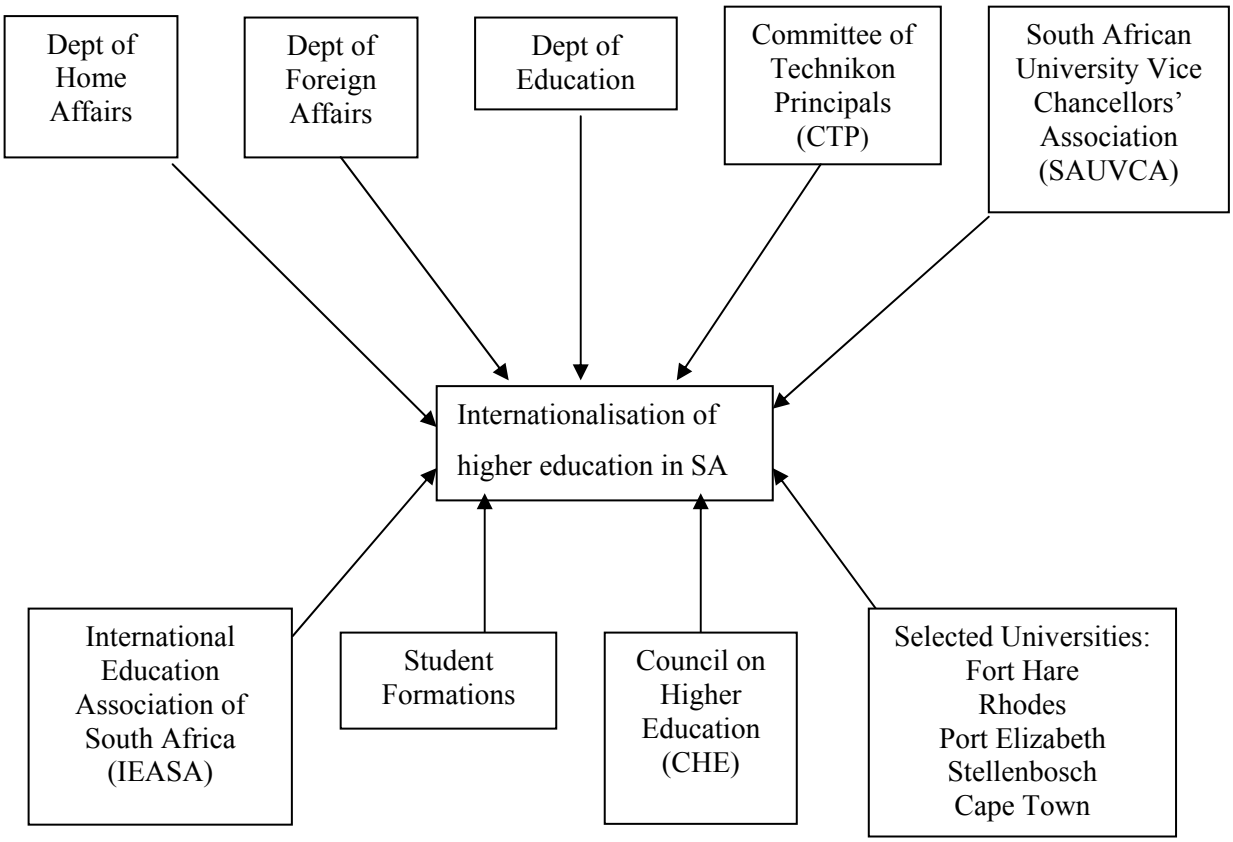
A simple method of analysing interview data, developed by Tesch (1990), was used. Interview transcripts were studied and relevant responses were grouped into themes. These became the 'emerging themes' and subsequently, after triangulation with other data, became the research findings.

4.4 RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

4.4.1 Various Target Groups

Based on the work of Knight (2006) reviewed in Chapter 2 (Section 2.5), a number of actors or stakeholders are involved in internationalisation of higher education. A diverse group of respondents and interviewees from different target groups constituted the sample for this research. These comprised International Office and other relevant personnel at higher education institutions, international students and their leaders, key personnel in the (national) Department of Education (the Ministry of Education), and the IEASA. The contributions of the SAUVCA, the CTP, the CHE and the Departments of Foreign and Home Affairs were sought by documentary analysis. The key role players sampled are illustrated in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5. Internationalisation of South African public higher education: Key role players sampled.



4.4.2 Sampling of Participants

The research participants were selected on a non-random basis using purposive and snow-ball sampling respectively. Purposive sampling attempts to include particular categories or subgroups of the population that represent theoretically meaningful variations. As such, the sample selected is theoretically significant and not necessarily statistically representative (Brewer & Hunter 1989:114).

Students were selected on the basis of purposive samples, in consultation with the International Office directors, the SRCs, academics and chairpersons of international student organisations on campuses. Students had to be involved in the student governance structure or be senior students. Thus, most of the students in the sample fell into the following categories:

i. South African students who were members of the SRC or SRC executive.
ii. Senior international students in positions of leadership within international student formations or the SRC. Thus, students had not only experienced the universities'

responses to them first-hand, but they had also spent at least three years at their respective institutions. Further, as leaders of international student formations, they were also in contact with other international students and therefore cognisant of the problems experienced by other international students at their respective institutions.

iii. International students who were members of international student formations, for example, the Zimbabwe Students Society. These students were interviewed by means of focus groups.

iv. Other international and local students.

Staff members at each university were identified in consultation with the director of the International Office or a senior member of the respective university's administration. This sample was purposefully selected to include personnel involved with policy formulation or practice in internationalisation. The following categories of staff were considered:

i. Administrative or academic staff members who had some dealing with international students.

ii. International Offices: the directors and other staff.

iii. At least one senior university administrator at each site, for example, the deputy vice chancellors for International Relations, university planner, or registrars.

iv. Academics, for example, deans of faculties, heads of departments, or lecturers teaching large numbers of international students.

v. Deans of students or directors of Student Services.

The final list comprised:

i. Registrars

ii. Universities' strategic planners

iii. Directors of the International Offices or emerging structures

iv. Other staff members in the International Office

v. Deans and deputy deans of faculties with high numbers of international students

vi. Deans of students or directors of Student Services

vii. Directors of marketing or public relations

viii. Student Accommodation Officers

ix. Residence wardens.

Participants outside universities were purposefully selected on the basis of their rank and were approached to provide information for this research. These were executive members of other stakeholder associations, for example, the SAUVCA and the IEASA. Because the CTP had an internationalisation policy document, this was used in lieu of a personal interview with the chief executive officer. Likewise, in the case of the Departments of Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs and the Council for Higher Education, existing policies or guidelines or other documents were analysed in lieu of personal interviews. In the case of the IEASA, the president and vice president were interviewed and informal conversations were held with other executive members.

Unfortunately, the chief executive officer of the SAUVCA neither granted an interview, nor availed me of any information on internationalisation. Further, she did not return a one page questionnaire, a summary of the interview schedule, despite two attempts on my part, two years apart, to obtain a response from her. My conclusion is that either the chief executive officer of the SAUVCA was overwhelmed by the ongoing demands of systemic transformation or did not want to be probed by a curious researcher on a major issue in higher education in which the SAUVCA's contribution was conspicuous by its absence.

Appropriate heads of divisions within the Department of Education were selected on the basis of their portfolios and knowledge of relevant policy documents. These were from the Divisions for Policy and Planning, as well as International Relations. A list of interviewees is attached in Appendix D.

4.4.3 Case Studies

A case study (Yin 1981:23) is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and multiple sources of evidence are used. A case study might focus on a particular decision and how it was made. It might investigate the adoption of a policy or the introduction of a new programme or procedure.

In conducting case studies, one typically uses six sources of evidence: documentation, file data, interviews, site visits, direct observation, and physical artefacts, if relevant (Anderson 1990). The use of multiple data sources in case studies helps one to recognise converging

lines of enquiry. Triangulation may be used to interpret converging evidence, pointing to a clear conclusion. This ensures greater reliability of the findings. The case studies identified for this research investigated five public, South African universities: the Universities of Fort Hare (UFH), Port Elizabeth (UPE), and Cape Town (UCT), as well as Rhodes (RU) and Stellenbosch Universities (SU).

These institutional case studies were purposefully[87] selected on the basis of the following criteria: they are examples of a typical cases within the Davies (1995) model of institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation; they are considered to be world-class institutions with an international reputation; they demonstrate student diversity on campus as indicated by the number of international students enrolled as a proportion of the total student enrolment; they respond innovatively to global changes in knowledge production whilst addressing the national agenda of transformation; and they show diversity in their institutional identities, to the extent possible.

4.4.4 Sampling Institutional Case Studies

Selecting the university case studies was complicated and involved many questions, for example, on what basis does one select the institutional case studies? How does one decide if some universities are 'more or less internationalised' than others? What criteria would be used to answer the above question? Bearing in mind the financial and time implications, could one select a nationally representative sample? How would one best select the sample so that the results could be representative of the general trends in internationalisation at other South African universities?

The sample was finally selected by a process of purposive sampling (selective elimination) after three or four rounds. A number of criteria influenced the selection of institutional case studies using both judgment and convenience methods. More specifically, the research focused on universities only; in other words, technikons were not part of the sample. This decision included 21 possible universities. Further, only those universities offering face-to-face tuition were part of the sample. This decision excluded UNISA and VISTA. A minimum of 50 international students should be present at the institution, preferably from different

[87] See the next section for an explanation of purposive sampling.

countries of origin. The institution should have some form of 'international office' structure no matter how insignificant in order to provide services to international students. The International Office should have been in existence for between one and five years. Above all, the institutions were purposefully selected on the basis of the Davies (1995) model (discussed in Section 2.6) in order to reflect at least one institution in each quadrant of the diagram below, spanning from an *ad hoc* to a more systematic approach, while giving a lower or higher priority to internationalisation.

The intention was not to select a national sample from various provinces, but to highlight the developmental path taken by selected South African universities which represent various stages of the Davies model (1995) illustrated in Figure 3 (Section 2.6).

4.4.4.1 Sampling of institutional case studies based on the Davies model

These institutions were purposefully selected for the case study on the basis of the following criteria:

i. Location with respect to the Davies model (1995) in terms of historical grouping, in other words, HBU or HWU.
ii. Representation in terms of language grouping, in other words, English or Afrikaans.
iii. Size of international student population.
iv. Diversity of the international student population.
v. Unique nature of the institution – size, location, curricular diversity, international reputation and so forth.
vi. Unique features of the internationalisation process; for example, UCT had the second largest number of international students (2 260 in 2001) when compared to all public higher education institutions in South Africa (using contact tuition). SU had the oldest International Office in the country among historically Afrikaans institutions. RU had the highest proportion of international students (18% in 2001), and was the first university in the country to have conducted an international quality review process in 2001. UPE had just set up its International Office and, having adopted an aggressive market-driven approach, was on a rapid growth curve in terms of student numbers. UFH had the highest number of

international students (418) for any HBU despite its rural location. Both UCT and SU are comprehensive research institutions. Both have a diverse international student population, judging by the fact that their international students represented 74 and 72 countries respectively in 2001 (Table 10).

After applying the above criteria, the following possible choice of institutions emerged as mapped out in Figure 6. On the basis of Figure 6, a preliminary sample could have included the following five universities: any two from UCT, SU, or the University of Natal (UN); any one of the smaller HWUs, for example, RU, UPE, Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education (Potch), the University of the Orange Free State (UOFS); either of the University of the Western Cape (UWC) or the University of Durban-Westville (UDW) as examples of HBUs for the 'coloured population', which were medium-sized institutions; and at least one HBU.

In order to more accurately reflect the diversity of the South African higher education institutional landscape, the institutions would, in addition to reflecting the Davies model, meet the following criteria: be examples of both historically advantaged/White and disadvantaged/Black universities; be one example each from at least three major language/cultural groupings, for example, English, Afrikaans, and one other grouping; be examples of small, medium and large universities in terms of student enrolment; be examples of younger and older established institutions with a research culture and mainly teaching institutions; be examples of rural and urban institutions.

Table 10. Number of Countries Represented by International Students at Five South African Universities, 2001

	UFH	RU	SU	UCT
Region	Number of countries			
SADC	7	10	13	12
Other African countries	+/-5	5	15	18
Outside Africa	4	+/-19	44	44
Total	+/-16	+/-34	72	74

Source: Institutions
No data were available for UPE

On the basis of the above selection criteria, a second sample would have reinforced the preliminary sample:

i. Both UCT and SU were selected as the two South African universities with the longest established and most well-staffed International Offices. That UCT is an English medium HWU, while SU is an Afrikaans-medium HWU should be noted. The International Office at UN was not as extensive as the two universities selected. Thus UN was dropped on this basis.
ii. Because no considerable differences were apparent between UPE, Potchefstroom and UOFS, one of these was selected.
iii. Either UDW or UWC.
iv. Fort Hare would be selected as an example of an HBU. This was mainly because it was not a homeland university and had a history of Black leadership as its alumni. Therefore, it was considered to have a good reputation.

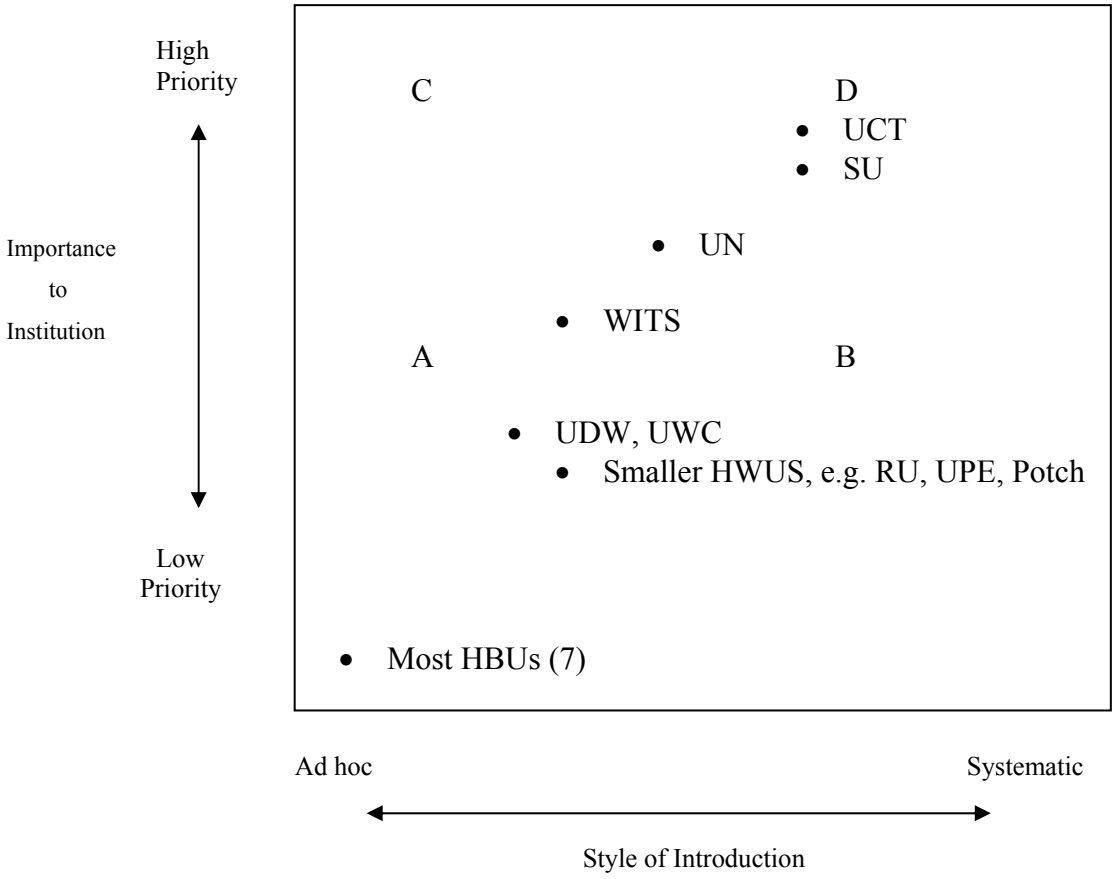
On the basis of the above, the following institutions were selected for the third sample: UCT; SU; UPE, Potchefstroom or UOFS; either UDW or UWC; UFH.

Before finalising the sample, it was discovered that RU had the highest proportion of international students (+/- 22%). In addition, I heard the news that RU was about to conduct an internationalisation quality review process. This placed RU in the unique position of being the first African university to conduct such a review. RU was therefore included in the sample.

In order to save both time and money, both UDW and UWC were dropped from the sample. The rationale for this was that little difference would be apparent with respect to the International Office set up and the internationalisation trajectories between these two universities and small to medium-sized HWUs such as Potchefstroom, UOFS or UPE because all of these were more or less at the same point with respect to their development.

In addition, UPE was selected as a small HWU which, although a late comer to the international arena, was rapidly internationalising in terms of student numbers. Further to the above criteria, at this point, convenience became an added consideration. I was living in Port Elizabeth at the time and could easily gain access to UPE. For convenience purposes then, UPE was also selected.

Figure 6. The modified Davies model for institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation, applied to South African universities in 2001 by Rouhani.[88]



Thus, the following five South African Universities were finally chosen as the university sample units: UCT, SU, RU, UPE, and UFH. The section below explains in detail how each of these universities further conformed to the sampling criteria. That the above five universities were purposefully chosen as the sample units to show the diverse responses to internationalisation by South African universities should be noted. These institutions have had diverse histories and therefore different trajectories to internationalisation. These differences are at the crux of this research and could not be ignored.

[88] Note: No lines exist to demarcate clearly between various types of institutions as falling within one or other of Davies' cells (A, B, C or D). The only point one can make is that some institutional approaches have been more systematic than others, and internationalisation has been more of a priority to some institutions than others. Institutions may be located somewhere along the two 'scales' but are in a continual process of shifting. One cannot fit institutions neatly into 'boxes' as proposed in the original Davies model. However, at the time of this research, my subjective impression had been 'mapped' as indicated above. Needless to say, the present state of affairs may be somewhat different from the above picture.

UCT and SU are among the first South African universities to have established an International Office and today are among those universities offering more comprehensive services to international students. They are also among the larger, more established research universities. Both of them are the products of historical advantage. Whereas UCT is an English-speaking university located in the large city of Cape Town, SU is Afrikaans speaking and is in the agricultural wine centre of Stellenbosch, a university town.

UPE and Fort Hare are both smaller, teaching universities. UPE is situated in the thriving coastal city of Port Elizabeth, whereas UFH is situated in remote, rural Alice. Although Fort Hare has been associated with a long and rich history of African leadership, UPE was set up in the 1960s as an apartheid institution to serve the needs of the White community. At the time of the research, UPE had a small International Office, but Fort Hare had no such dedicated office.

With a student population of about 6 000 in 2001, RU was an anomaly. Although no fully-fledged International Office exists at RU, it has had one of the highest proportions of international students among universities both in South Africa and abroad. RU is located in Grahamstown, which is an 1820 Settler historic site and now a university town, similar to Stellenbosch. RU was selected to show that if the language of instruction is the same, other institutional and location factors are important considerations for choice of university, for example, RU is in remote Grahamstown, while UCT is in a major tourist destination.

Fort Hare was selected because of its long history and because it was not one of the Homeland universities which were established in the 1970s and 1980s. The university has been in existence almost as long as UCT and SU.

4.5 GAINING ENTRY TO RESEARCH SITES AND ACCESS TO DOCUMENTS AND PARTICIPANTS

Access to the five selected universities was gained easily through the International Office director or Office of the Vice Chancellor in the case of Fort Hare. Prior to on-site arrival, I had a list of the documents I required. In addition to requesting these, a number of documents were obtained from the various people interviewed. Thus gaining access to most documents was not difficult.

Locating international students in leadership positions was difficult and had to be undertaken with mediation from the International Office. Only those students who were willing to participate in the research were included. Thus, no student was forced to participate against his or her will.

As a member of the IEASA, I had known many of the International Office directors and staff as colleagues, and was known to them long before embarking on this research project. As such, gaining access to institutions was not as much of a problem as was gaining access to senior members of management and academia.

Making appointments and conducting 'elite' interviews with senior personnel proved to be a challenge. Frequently such senior people were not available for interviews by a researcher, and I was often referred to see the International Office director. Most of the personnel comprised senior administrators and academics who are extremely busy people. Great discretion and tact had to be used to conduct these interviews. However, the information thus gained, although obtained in a short time span, was very valuable and worth all the obstacles that had to be surmounted.

At three of the universities, the International Office directors were very helpful in so much as they not only recommended whom I could interview, but they also made appointments on my behalf which greatly facilitated gaining access to 'high flyers' and 'gate keepers'. The other two universities[89] left me to my own devices with respect to selecting my interview subjects as well as making appointments. This was rather difficult considering that I was an outsider and not living in the same city. To facilitate this task, I used the university Web sites and made appointments by email and telephone. Most members of the university management and academics were sent an email letter that briefly outlined the purpose of the research. When requested, the interview schedule/protocol was also forwarded prior to the interview.

Responses of senior members of government departments, the IEASA and the SAUVCA were also sought. As expected, gaining access to the government departments was more difficult than gaining access to the universities. Access to the IEASA executive members was fairly easy given my involvement with the IEASA.

[89] UPE and UCT.

4.6 METHODS OF VERIFICATION

In order to verify the data, reliability and validity have to be maintained. Two types of validity are distinguished, internal and external. To maintain *internal validity* is important so that the information gathered is accurate and matches reality (Merriam 1988; Miles & Huberman 1984). To ensure internal validity, feedback was requested from informants such as International Office directors. Case study drafts were forwarded to all five institutions for feedback. The comments were noted and amendments were effected; however, where the informants disagreed with the information gathered, this disagreement was noted, but the findings were not altered.

External validity refers to limitations with respect to the generalisability of findings from the study. The intent of qualitative research is not to generalise findings, but to form a unique interpretation of events (Merriam 1988).

Further, *reliability* must also be maintained while remaining cognizant of the limitations for replicating a study. The uniqueness of a study within a specific context mediates against replicating it exactly in another context. In multi-site case studies, one can examine whether the same patterns or events or thematic constructs are replicated in different settings. Yin (1981) suggests that detailed protocols for data collection be reported so that the procedure of a qualitative case study might be replicated in another setting. To this end, interview schedules/protocols appear in Appendix C.

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Student respondents were assured of confidentiality in the oral introduction to each interview, and all information obtained was treated as such. Prior to any interviews, the research aims were explained clearly. A tape recorder was used to record the interviews, with the permission of the respondent. No one declined to be recorded and respondents were free to withdraw from the interviews at any stage. Confidentiality could not be maintained in the case of International Office Directors and certain other high profile interviewees, as they were selected purposefully. However, as stated above, case study drafts were forwarded to International Office Directors or other senior university personnel for their comments. Any factual inaccuracies were amended in the light of these comments. Detailed feedback was

sought and obtained from senior personnel at all universities with the exception of UPE where the International Office Director provided inadequate feedback. In this case another staff member's comments were sought.

No sensitive or classified information was required at any time which could have put the interviewees at risk. On one or two occasions, when information of a sensitive nature was being conveyed, the tape recorder was switched off at the request of the interviewees so that the conversation could continue 'off the record'. Further, if the information provided was of a sensitive nature, the identity of the informant/interviewee was withheld from publication. However, this happened only in one case.

4.8 DISCLOSURE OF PERSONAL BIASES

On an individual level, I am of the opinion that the education and the life experiences gained through living and being schooled in different countries are beneficial because they help to nurture world citizens who may be inclined to think globally and act locally. On an institutional level, I am of the opinion that those institutions that can go the internationalisation route should do so, within limits. By definition, a university is intended to be a seat of knowledge and skills that are of universal importance. How can a university in this day and age claim to be universal if the relevance-value of its curricula is only local or national?

The world after 2000 requires competent knowledge workers and is very different from what was apparent in the previous millennia. The world of the New Millennium is characterised by transition, mobility, the certainty of change, uncertainty about the forms change will bring, the constant threat of retrenchment, and the requirement for versatile, multi-skilled knowledge workers.

Therefore, from both an individual as well as an institutional perspective, my biases are in favour of internationalisation[90]. In this respect I concur with Meloy (1994:57) that "a research is biased because each researcher brings his or her experiences, expectations, and judgments

[90] However, internationalisation at the institutional level may differ in degree and in kind, and each institution may chart its own trajectory, bearing in mind its history, resources and strategic plans.

to the 'laboratory' or 'field'". To the best of my ability, however, I tried not to let my biases influence the outcome of the research by adhering to the interview schedule. I tried to confine myself to the interview schedule and to find out about the institution objectively while being aware that I was also acting as the research instrument.

In relation to this point, I agree with both Meloy (1994) and Creswell (1994) that the case researcher must be willing to be "transformed into the filter through which experience is shaped and given meaning" (*op. cit.*:56). Further, the qualitative researcher is the human instrument through which data are mediated, rather than through inventories or questionnaires (Creswell 1994:145). Thus, I adopted a position of 'attached objectivity' rather than 'detached subjectivity'.

I have first-hand experience of South African universities, first as a foreign student, later as an academic at a former HBU for 12 years, and currently as an International Office administrator at a HWU. As a result of these experiences, I have become familiar with the shape and size of most South African universities. In addition, through the preliminary research on internationalisation that I conducted, I became aware of the issues around international student mobility and access to South African higher education institutions.

Further, as a member of the IEASA, I became more informed about issues of institutional relevance with respect to international students and the need for policies on internationalisation. Furthermore, as an active member of the IEASA, I had good rapport with most International Office personnel at South African universities. This familiarity greatly facilitated my gaining access to key personnel at International Offices and through them, access to the university 'elite'. I was aware that I was accorded access to 'privileged' information due to my unique relationship with these IEASA colleagues.

As a result, my past experience enabled me to become familiar with the broad area of higher education research, the more specific area of internationalisation of higher education, the institutional and national setting, and the informants. This familiarity or 'attachment' of the researcher to the topic in qualitative research is acknowledged by Meloy (1994:57): "In doing qualitative research, there appears to be a strong sense of direct, personal connection with the processes and product".

It is with this background that I have engaged in this research. These experiences are therefore likely to influence my interpretation of the research findings, as Meloy (1994:68) confirms:

> Because qualitative research requires personal rather than detached engagement in the context, it requires multiple, simultaneous actions and reactions from the human being who is the research instrument.

When I embarked upon the research, I had not worked in an International Office or been in a position to influence the process of internationalisation at a university. In this respect, my lack of experience was a blessing because I was, indeed, searching for answers to many questions from a position of ignorance. However, during the last two years, I have been employed at the International Office at UPE. This immersion into the complex administration of an International Office has given me new insights.

CHAPTER 5
THE SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION SECTOR: A BRIEF HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter offers a background to the unique features of the South African higher education system and those conditions, policies and values that have shaped its efforts to try to come to terms with internationalisation. Section 5.2 consists of three parts and gives an overview of the general higher education system within which internationalisation came to prominence. Section 5.2.1 first examines the apartheid-era structures and the exclusionary values they represented and next summarises the transformation of these structures to an ideal of inclusiveness from 1994 onwards. Then, Section 5.2.2 offers a brief history of specific South African universities up to the end of the apartheid era, drawing special attention to those institutions that will be examined in the case histories. Lastly, Section 5.2.3 outlines the current institutional landscape, again paying special attention to the universities that are the principal focus of this thesis.

Section 5.3 identifies the many challenges facing the higher education sector, given the radical changes that have taken place, and thereby sets the scene for Section 5.4, which addresses the relatively improvised and *ad hoc* developments in South Africa's response to internationalisation at the sectoral, national and regional (SADC) levels. Reflecting on the absence of a coherent national policy, Section 5.5 highlights the emergence of internationalisation within the university and technikon sectors. Against this background, Section 5.6 points out the need for a national policy framework on internationalisation, and Section 5.7 provides a brief conclusion.

5.2 THE SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION SECTOR

5.2.1 Past and Present

During the apartheid era, the South African higher education sector was characterised by racial and ethnic segregation and the distinction that was made between academic and vocational education as represented by universities and technikons respectively. A period of

dramatic change, policy formulation and restructuring after the birth of democracy aimed at nothing less than a complete transformation of the sector. While the legislation[91] and transformation were focused on national issues of redress, access, equity, quality, effectiveness and efficiency, the sector also had to respond to international demands never before encountered. So urgent were the national issues of fundamental human rights, justice, and institutional integrity, that the question of internationalisation may have seemed, by comparison, less pressing. Certainly internationalisation received little or no attention in the official government advocacy of transformation: "Neither the NCHE nor the White Paper detailed a specific vision, or specific principles, goals or strategies for the internationalisation of higher education" (CHE 2004:213).

Like just about every other educational system throughout the world, South African higher education is subject to the changes wrought by globalisation and internationalisation. Since the birth of the new democratic dispensation in 1994, internationalisation has become a significant feature of the South African higher education landscape. It is manifest in an influx of international students, in particular, from SADC and other African countries; some faculty exchange across borders; the emergence of structures to facilitate and support student mobility and other international activities; an increase in the number of cooperation and exchange agreements with foreign institutions of higher education, initiated mainly at the request of the latter; the mushrooming of private tertiary education institutions; the impact of foreign discourses on South African (higher) education policy; the corporatisation of higher education institutions and the imposition of business models with budget cuts; a shift towards 'mode 2' knowledge production; and the need for globally competent knowledge workers with ICT skills.

This pattern of change, movement and openness, which required new thinking, new structures, new initiatives, flexibility, and versatility, must be viewed against the antithetically related apartheid-era system, as well as against the transformation of the apartheid system. Under apartheid, no unified national system existed (NCHE 1996; Rhodes University [RU] 2001a). With the coming of democracy, changed circumstances underlined the need for a

[91] In the form of new policy, for example, the NCHE Report (1996), the White Paper 3 (DoE 1997), the Higher Education Act of 1997, the Shape and Size (CHE 2000) report, the National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE) (DoE 2001), and so forth.

unified new national higher education system[92] (NCHE 1996). Such a system, centrally cooordinated, was advocated by a National Plan for Higher Education (DoE 2001) as were three-year rolling institutional plans, along with a shift to greater openness and the fostering of 'mode 2' knowledge production.

If internationalisation inevitably implies openness, exchange and integration, the apartheid-era structures demanded its polar opposites, namely closure, exclusion and segregation and a chronic mismatch between the needs of a modernising economy and the actual output (or the level of preparedness of the graduates) of higher education institutions. This system, in which institutions were established to segregate students in terms of race, language and ethnicity was dissolved to form a new system which was more responsive to the needs of a new democratic order. The hallmarks of the new system were equity, redress, and access, in other words, a more just and open model.

Until the late 1990s, the South African higher education system comprised 21 universities and 15 technikons, an arrangement that went back to the apartheid era. Since then, this system has been going through extensive restructuring in order to position institutions to meet the national requirements for skills development and intellectual growth in the context of globalisation. The 21 universities and 15 technikons have been incorporated and/or merged into 23 institutions of higher education.

During the apartheid era, higher education's sphere of competence was limited to preparing learners for a profession or vocation and instilling in them values pertinent to their cultural backgrounds. Given that, prior to 1994, universities were divided along the lines of race, ethnicity and language, diversity, which is of necessity at the heart of any university aspiring to excellence, was essentially excluded. The government specified that some institutions were to admit White students only, while others were to admit only African, coloured or Indian students. An inevitable consequence of this pattern of exclusion was a high degree of fragmentation, a feature rendered more acute by the fact that higher education institutions were "creatures of the state" (CHET 2001:20) with no rights or powers other than those prescribed by the laws of the land. Nonetheless, they actually enjoyed a high level of

[92] For an analysis of the new system, refer to Kraak (2004).

autonomy from central authority in Pretoria, a level of autonomy which exceeded that of many other higher education systems worldwide.

Inevitably, restructuring such a diverse, fragmented 'system' is a daunting task. The government has been extremely ambitious in seeking to transform the higher education sector into a single, national, coordinated system in such a short space of time. Aspects of the radical, ongoing transformation that has been undertaken since 1990 are summarised in a CHE (2004:230) report:

> Definition of the purposes and goals of higher education; policy research; policy formulation and adoption in the areas of institutional structure and provision, governance, funding, academic structure and programmes, and quality assurance; the enactment of new laws and regulations and regular amendments of these; policy implementation on numerous fronts; and occasional policy review.

The same CHE report presents these changes as taking place in three phases. The first phase, from 1990 to 1994, was merely that of 'symbolic policy-making', in other words, a blueprint for action. This was followed by a second phase of framework development spanning from 1994 to 1998. The third phase of implementation began in 1999 and is ongoing. This latest phase, the most important by far, insofar as it involves major action, is fraught with consequences for all institutions of higher learning. The first consequence is a shift in the mode of governance in favour of stronger state steering, for example, regarding the accreditation of new degree programmes by the Department of Education. The second consequence is a new emphasis upon efficiency rather than equity and redress (CHE 2004), for example, with respect to a funding or subsidy framework. This implies that there is greater pressure for public accountability and fiscal discipline[93]. Under these conditions, higher education institutions will need to generate 'third stream' income from sources other than the public treasury and become more business-minded and entrepreneurial. This has obvious consequences for internationalisation because the presence of international students may be – and is – viewed as a possible source of new revenue. In Chapters 8 and 10 it will be noted that UPE and UCT are case studies which illustrate this point.

[93] SAUVCA (2005).

5.2.2 The Weight of the Past: From Access Denied to Openness[94]

A brief history of the South African universities featured in this thesis will reveal just how difficult the passage from a closed, exclusionary model to more open, inclusive access, including the acceptance of international exchange, has been and, in some cases, continues to be. The first South African university was established in 1873 as the University of the Cape of Good Hope. This followed the establishment of two colleges, the South African College in Cape Town in 1829 and Victoria College in Stellenbosch in 1865. Rhodes University followed in 1904, and in 1918, the South African College and Victoria College changed their names to the Universities of Stellenbosch and Cape Town respectively, and the University of the Cape of Good Hope became known as the University of South Africa. Missionaries established the South African Native College in 1916 and became known as the University of Fort Hare in 1951, and the School of Mines, started in Johannesburg in 1895, became the University of the Witwatersrand in 1922.

The University of South Africa was a federal university with a number of university colleges. Over the 30 years following 1930, many of these colleges became fully-fledged universities (including the Universities of Pretoria, Potchefstroom, Natal and the Free State). The Extension of University Education Act, which was passed in 1959, was designed to bar the entry of Black students into historically White institutions and establish racially segregated universities instead. The Universities of Durban-Westville, the Western Cape, Zululand and the North came into existence shortly thereafter.

Other universities established during the period from the mid-60s to the mid-80s included the University of Port Elizabeth (UPE), Rand Afrikaans University, the Medical University of Southern Africa and Vista University. In particular, UPE was set up as a conservative Afrikaans institution to counteract the undesirable influence of Rhodes University in nearby Grahamstown, which was considered to be a liberal, English-speaking university.

By the early 1960s, South Africa's universities were catering to about 62,000 students, only 5 000 of whom were not White. The racial bias began to even out when, in the heyday of separate development, universities were constructed in the so-called ‘self-governing

[94] This section has used information from SAUVCA (*s.a.*).

territories' of Transkei, Venda and Bophuthatswana. These so called 'bush colleges' were seriously disadvantaged by their remote locations. They were positioned in areas far from modern amenities and services, which made it difficult to recruit well-qualified and experienced staff (RU 2001a).

This period was followed by the gradual racial opening up of many of the historically White universities, so that by the late 1980s, student statistics revealed that in addition to the 150 000 White students at the country's universities, there were 120 000 Black, Coloured and Indian students. Reflecting some progress in building non-racial higher education, in 1999 the majority (207 000) of students in the public sector's universities were Black as opposed to 122 000 White students.

During the transformation of the sector, questions were being asked about the higher education sector as a whole. With the growing focus on technical and vocational education to address skills shortages, did too many universities exist as a result of apartheid's tendency to duplicate? Thus began the 'size and shape' debate, based on the premise that the sector was in need of rightsizing and rationalisation. There was talk of closures and mergers, which the historically disadvantaged universities (HDUs) immediately saw as a threat to their continued existence. After all the disadvantages they had suffered under the old order, the HDUs asked whether they were now simply to be swallowed up by the historically advantaged universities (HAUs) which had so manifestly benefited under apartheid?

5.2.3 A New Institutional Landscape for Higher Education in South Africa[95]

The South African government's proposals for transformation of the higher education sector after 1990 resulted in 23 higher education institutions and two National Institutes for Higher Education.[96] These figures included the proposals for institutional mergers announced in the National Plan. In the past, a marked binary divide between the technikons and the universities was apparent. In addition, institutions served different needs and ranged widely in terms of academic offerings and quality. Inevitably, perhaps, each institution reflected its particular

[95] Except where indicated otherwise, the main source for this section is the CHE (*s.a.*).
[96] As of 1 January 2005, there will be 23 higher education institutions: 6 technikons, 11 'traditional' universities and 6 comprehensive institutions offering both university and technikon qualifications (SAUVCA *s.a.*).

history, location, and the socio-economic and political forces that had influenced its evolution (RU 2001a).

The government believed that the consolidation of the number of institutions from 36 to 23 would not lead to a decrease in the provision of services however. In addition, all the existing sites of delivery would continue to operate, although in new institutional and organisational forms. The initial justification for the restructuring included the creation of a more rational system, cost saving, and the final dissolution of apartheid structures. While these objectives are laudable, it is evident that the mergers entailed considerable disadvantages, at least in the short term. The mergers are likely to introduce into the higher education sector many of those elements of turbulence that globalisation and free-market competition have brought to the world of business and industry, including actual dismissal and retrenchment of staff; a sense of the precariousness of future employment, with a concomitant loss of morale; the need to accomplish more with less; and a new demand for bottom-line accountability. Further, it appears likely that access to higher education will be reduced for students in rural areas with the closure or downsizing of smaller higher education institutions. In addition, the merging of some of the HWUs and HBUs will further restrict access for financially needy students who have been paying lower fees at HBUs.

The effect of these mergers on international student flows is difficult to predict. It is likely that some institutions may attract greater numbers of international students whilst others may lose their identity or market niche. For example, the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (former UPE), mainly due to its name, has had an increase in international student enrolments, whereas the University of Johannesburg, the outcome of a merger between Technikon Witwatersrand and Rand Afrikaans University, is likely to fall into the latter category.

The following mergers[97] in the Eastern and Western Cape are of particular relevance to the case studies in this research. In the Eastern Cape, Port Elizabeth Technikon merged with the University of Port Elizabeth, which had incorporated the Port Elizabeth campus of Vista University. The new Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) will be a comprehensive institution offering both university and technikon-type programmes.

[97] Although at the time of conducting this research these mergers were still pending, by 2005 they had been implemented.

The University of Fort Hare has been retained as a separate institution, incorporating the East London campus of Rhodes University and the Medical School of the University of the Transkei which will remain in Umtata. It will focus on expanding access to higher education in the East London area. This proposal is in line with the recent decision of the provincial government to designate East London as an industrial development zone. Rhodes University will also be retained as a separate institution.

In the Western Cape, the Universities of the Western Cape, Cape Town and Stellenbosch have been retained as three separate institutions. The Universities of Cape Town and Stellenbosch will discontinue offering undergraduate programmes in nursing education. These programmes will be offered by the University of the Western Cape in collaboration with the merged Cape and Peninsula Technikons.

5.3 CHALLENGES TO THE POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

In the post-apartheid era, the South African higher education sector is required to meet the challenges posed by the implementation of a national agenda, namely, the development of a single, national, coordinated higher education system. The Education White Paper 3 (DoE 1997, Section 1.1) recognises the need to "redress past inequalities and to transform the higher education system to serve a new social order, to meet pressing national needs, and to respond to new realities and opportunities". Additionally, the higher education sector must respond to the new demands of the omnipresent global economy and an environment in which the ability to acquire, marshal and transfer knowledge has acquired vital importance. Accordingly, the White Paper (DoE 1997) acknowledges that the role of higher education in a knowledge society is three-fold: human resources development in a rapidly changing society; high-level skills training, which requires the development of knowledge workers with globally equivalent skills; the production, acquisition and application of new knowledge driven by a well-organised, vibrant research system.

The need to address the national agenda of transformation whilst simultaneously responding to international demands was acknowledged by both the CHE and SAUVCA. Whereas the CHE (2004) identified the apartheid legacy and globalisation as twin challenges to be addressed by higher education, SAUVCA (2004:1) notes that "The challenges of social justice

in South Africa must be broached by higher education in tandem with challenges posed by global developments". McLellan (2005) refers to this national-international development dichotomy as the "dual development challenge".

In their attempts to respond to these dual demands, higher education institutions have had varying degrees of success. As shall be observed in the case studies, it appears that those institutions such as UPE, UCT and SU that were able to cope with both demands rapidly, simultaneously and in response to market needs, may have emerged as the more adaptive or entrepreneurial institutions. Internationalisation, more specifically, international student recruitment, has been targeted as one of the ways in which higher education institutions worldwide have tried to cope with some of the challenges brought about by shifts in the global economy. International student recruitment is also a common strategy for some South African institutions.[98]

A number of developments, which are significant to an understanding of the internationalisation of South African higher education institutions, need to be noted here. These developments illustrate many of the broader contexts that were analysed in Chapter 3. First is the recognition by higher education institutions that belonging to some international network, no matter how insignificant, is better than belonging to no international network at all. Second is the increasing influx of international students that points to the need for Third World perspectives in the curriculum. Third is a realisation that many foreign institutions are looking for linkages and partnerships with post-apartheid South Africa. Fourth is South Africa's commitment to human resource development on the continent as a whole and more specifically, within the SADC as stipulated by the SADC Protocol. Fifth, is South Africa's foreign policy with an outreach into the SADC and the African continent. Sixth is South

[98] In line with the international trend towards the so-called commodification of knowledge and the marketisation or corporatisation of universities due to fiscal pressures and reduced public spending by governments, South African universities were likewise faced with reduced government subsidies. Whereas during the apartheid era institutions received up to about 60% of their budget as government subsidies, in 2003, this was cut to 51% for HDIs and 40% for HAIs (SAUVCA 2005). Therefore institutions were forced to seek alternate means of income generation. In the wake of reduced numbers of national students, some universities were creative and targeted international students for a second stream of income. Moreover, between 1998 and 1999, student enrolments fell dramatically from a high of 605 000 to a low of 564 000. Reasons provided for this decline include the high cost of tuition fees, the dramatic drop in the number of matriculants with university exemption certificates, the perceived decline in the quality of public higher education, and the consequent growth in private higher education in South. Further, enrolments increased by 36 000 during 1995-1999 at the historically white Afrikaans-speaking universities, whilst dropping in the same period by 22 000 at the historically black universities (Cloete & Bunting 2000).

Africa's emergence as a continental powerhouse through its role as peacemaker, peacekeeper and peace builder in Rwanda, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Libya. Finally, the seventh is becoming a global role player as an advocate of human rights and challenging age-old practices such as slavery, racism, and colonialism. The latter is evident by South Africa's role in hosting major international conferences and events such as the Parliament of World Religions in Cape Town in 1999; the World conference on AIDS in Durban in 2000; the World Conference against racism and xenophobia in Durban in September 2001; the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in August 2002, and the Pan African Parliament and a number of other continental initiatives.

The above contextual factors clearly indicate that any developments in the South African higher education system, including internationalisation, must take cognisance of South Africa's broader responsibility to her SADC and African neighbours. This critical contribution is all the more weighty in the light of the realisation that South Africa has the most developed and well-resourced system of education and training in Africa (NCHE 1996). In this vein, SAUVCA[99] (2004:2) notes:

> South African higher education's approach to internationalisation must reinforce its social and public value for the nation; and must also be synchronised with, and supportive of, its regional and continental relationships and their particular purposes. Critically, internationalisation and regionalisation are interlinked processes.

South Africa's influence as *the* regional metropole, as well as its moral obligations to the continent, were discussed at length in Chapter 3. Within the broader context of the Millennium Africa Recovery Plan (MARP) and New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), South Africa has a responsibility to developing the continent. More specifically, within the SADC region, this responsibility is critical if SADC is to become a major social and economic development bloc.

[99] This statement is from the third draft of an important SAUVCA position paper on "Internationalisation and the South African Higher Education Sector", released on 13 December 2004.

5.4 NATIONAL AND REGIONAL INITIATIVES TOWARDS INTERNATIONALISATION

South Africa's position as regional super-power or semi-peripheral metropole is by no means restricted to the region's economy, politics, or strategic advantage alone. Its dominance also extends to the realm of higher education. The South African higher education system dwarfs that of other countries in the region and, indeed, that of many other countries further afield on the continent. These competitive advantages were analysed at length in Chapter 3 (Section 3.5) and will not be repeated here.

With the reincorporation into the international community and the realisation of the imperatives of globalisation, 'mode 2' knowledge production, and the growth of ICT, trends in international knowledge production had to be accommodated in South African higher education. It was to these ends that a number of policy documents emerged, starting with the report of the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE 1996), the Green Paper (DoE 1996), the Education White Paper 3(DoE 1997), and the Higher Education Act (101 of 1997). In order to accommodate international trends, a number of 'international experts and advisors' were appointed to serve on bodies preparing these policy documents. Although a great deal of sound policy emanated from these discussions, sadly, policy on internationalisation was conspicuous by its absence in all the above.

Ample literature exists regarding the structure and merits of the old and new higher education systems, and these debates will not be further explored in this thesis. However, major pieces of legislation that have a bearing on internationalisation do need to be noted here. The report of the NCHE (1996), the Green Paper (DoE 1996)[100] and a subsequent Education White Paper 3 (1997)[101] culminated in the Higher Education Act of 1997[102] which aimed at complete transformation of the higher education sector. These were followed in 2001 by the National Plan for Higher Education (DoE 2001) which outlined the framework and mechanisms for implementing and realising the policy goals of the Education White Paper 3 (DoE 1997).

[100] The Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (DoE 1996).
[101] Education White Paper 3 – A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (DoE 1997).
[102] The Higher Education Act, Act 101, 19 December 1997.

Currently, no official policy[103] exists with respect to the internationalisation of the higher education sector, although a few guidelines are in operation. It has been noted that "official attitudes to the registration of foreign students at South African higher education institutions have long been ambivalent" (RU 2001a:4). Although the National Plan for Higher Education (DoE 2001) includes a section on the recruitment of students within the SADC, no mention is made of students from other African countries, or from beyond the continent.

In the absence of national policy, 'matters international' have had to be dealt with by individual institutions in an uncoordinated manner. This was confirmed in a SAUVCA (2004:12) position paper: "Higher education institutions are pursuing their own internationalisation activities on an increasing scale, although up to now in largely *ad hoc* ways driven by profit, competition and even poitical expedience, rather than in ways that support a sectoral contribution". In this context of a policy void, larger higher education institutions, such as UCT, have inevitably fared better than smaller ones, such as UFH. The question which arises is: Who is supposed to protect these smaller institutions from the indirect effects of globalisation? If the state does not step in, then who will?

Apart from "issues of funding, the presence of foreign students has long been a politically sensitive one especially with South African student organisations", on the grounds that "every foreign student at a university of technikon means one fewer South African student (RU 2001a:4). The opposition of these organisations to admission of non-South African students stems from concern about access and funding, based on the grounds that meager national resources should not be allocated to international students while so many South African nationals are denied higher education. These hostile sentiments have been aggravated by xenophobia (*c.f.* Shindondola 2002) especially towards fellow Africans from beyond the SADC who are also erroneously perceived as taking away jobs from locals.

Foreign students require a special visa to enter South Africa for study purposes and residence. Although in the 1990s, such visas became increasingly more difficult to obtain, in the new millennium, legislation has changed and visas are much easier to obtain. Currently study

[103] As stated earlier in this chapter, this is confirmed in a recent report by the CHE (2004:213): "Neither the NCHE nor the White Paper detailed a specific vision, or specific principles, goals or strategies for the internationalisation of higher education".

permits are issued for the duration of a degree, whereas in the past, the permit had to be renewed annually. The change in attitude on the part of the government came about as a result of much debate regarding the Immigration Act. In this regard, the IEASA strongly lobbied the Department of Home Affairs and the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Immigration for more fexible and open legislation with respect to international students and staff.

Another issue of concern is student subsidies. State funding of South African higher education institutions accounted for some 60%[104] of universities' incomes, and the bulk of it was based on student enrolments and graduation throughput numbers (RU 2001a:5). Up until 2001, the State had subsidised all students on the same basis irrespective of nationality, although most universites charge higher fees to non-SADC students. Several years ago, a differential subsidy that would distinguish between local students, SADC nationals and those from further afield was mooted. However, this proposal was not supported. From 2002, policy was introduced in terms of which SADC students were treated as local students with respect to the subsidy (DoE 2001), although they are charged an additional foreign student administrative levy by some institutions.

A number of reasons exist for considering SADC students as local students with respect to the subsidy. First, South Africa is a signatory to the SADC Protocol (1997) which introduced the following measures to facilitate student flows within the SADC region:

i. Ensuring a minimum quota of 5% of admissions in all tertiary institutions is to be reserved for SADC students (up to a maximum of 10%).
ii. Agreeing about harmonisation, equivalence and the eventual standardisation of entrance requirements.
iii. Facilitating credit transfer from one institution to another in the region.
iv. Harmonising the academic years of universities in order to facilitate staff and student mobility.
v. Ensuring that within ten years from the signing of the protocol that all SADC students are treated as home students for purposes of fees and accommodation.
vi. Facilitating movement of students and staff from the region for purposes of study, research, teaching and any other pursuits related to education and training.

[104] For HDIs, subsidies decreased from 66% in 1986 to 51% in 2003, whereas for HAIs the subsidy decreased from 51% to 40% in the same period (SAUVCA, 18 March 2005).

Secondly, the NPHE (DoE 2001) states that there is "untapped potential to recruit students" from the region, especially at the post-graduate level, and that:

> The recruitment of students from the SADC region would be consistent with the SADC Protocol, which commits member states to targeting a maximum of 10% of their student places for students from other SADC countries. This is unlikely to impact adversely on access for South African students given the declining enrolments in the higher education system (DoE 2001:29).

The NPHE (DoE 2001) asserts that recruitment of students from the SADC region is conducive to broader human resource development in the region which is critical if the SADC is to become a major social and economic development bloc. The document further notes that this interchange will also enrich the educational experiences of South African students and broaden their understanding of the social, cultural, economic, and political ties that unite the SADC countries. Currently, no large-scale student mobility schemes exist within the continent such as SOCRATES, ERASMUS, or LINGUA, which are operational in Europe. However, the idea of creating an intra-regional mobility programme in the SADC region has been mooted (for example, by Grobelaar & Bracke 2001). The launch in February 2005 of the Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA)[105], may pave the way towards greater inter-institutional and intra-regional mobility.

In addition, a moral issue is apparent, as mentioned in Chapter 3. During the armed struggle against apartheid, many SADC countries supported the African National Congress at their cost. In the aftermath of the dissolution of apartheid, the SADC countries believe that 'pay back' time has come (RU 2001a). Likewise, the government cannot overlook its moral obligation to reciprocate to the region, because South Africa is considered to be a regional super-power. Therefore, the issue about the SADC student subsidy is unlikely to be changed in the near future.

5.5 INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE UNIVERSITY AND TECHNIKON SECTORS

As was mentioned in Chapter 3, a good part of the 1990s was characterised by the reactive phase of internationalisation, a period of crisis-management which was aggravated by the dual

[105] www.sauvca.org.za/sarua.

demands imposed by the national agenda of transformation as well as changing global imperatives. During this period, most of the activities relating to internationalisation at South African higher education institutions were dealt with haphazardly and without a long-term vision by both the university and technikon sectors. Evidence for this was found in several documents from the university and the technikon sectors from as early as 2001, as well as the CHE and SAUVCA later in 2004, as verified below. Although the purpose of this research was not to investigate the situation at the technikons, in 2001 the Committee of Technikon Principals (CTP) was more supportive of and proactive towards internationalisation than was its university counterpart, SAUVCA[106], even if the technikons' commitments also tended to be temporary and improvised. This is rather an anomalous situation considering that in South Africa, the university sector has always considered itself to be ahead of the technikon sector in research and development and in the international arena.

Representing the university sector SAUVCA (2003:10) has stated: "For the most part, international activities and linkages are *ad hoc*, and reactionary. They are not planned or coordinated in any way and not viewed as part of an internationalisation process". For the technikon sector, an example is Peninsula Technikon where the activities were "unstructured… and driven by external funding rather than internal coherent plan or programming" (Peninsula Technikon *s.a.*:2). Later, the CHE (2004:214) confirmed: "There is continued scope for *ad hoc* decisions by different higher education role players, with sometimes conflicting results".

However, internationalisation of higher education in South Africa has been occurring at an increasing pace and is here to stay[107]. As part of the broader process of globalisation, internationalisation cannot be wished away, as was discussed in Chapter 3. Therefore it has to be embraced and effectively managed. Again, this sentiment is echoed by both sectors. For the university sector:

> Like it or not, internationalisation of higher education is a process which requires to be managed. A strong case can be made for institutions to define

[106] The CTP was the collective body representing the leadership of the former technikon sector, while SAUVCA represented that for the university sector.
[107] According to an estimate by the CHE, the number of international students enrolled at South African tertiary education institutions increased from 34 770 to 47 000 between 1999 and 2003. Further, it is estimated that international students generate R1.4m for higher education and R1.2 billion for tourism and recreation per annum (Sunday Times Business Times, 29 August 2004, p.7).

> their positions with respect to internationalisation and to devise appropriate strategies and policy to guide the evolution of the process.
>
> We live in a world where we cannot not internationalise – ignore it at your peril – if you do so, you will ultimately lose students and staff. … Internationalisation should be viewed as a strategically important area of higher education management (SAUVCA 2003:10).

For the technikon sector, "the impact of internationalisation cannot be underestimated. It is for this reason that a proper strategy has to be developed to guide the process and direction" (Peninsula Technikon *s.a.*:2).

Despite having noted the significance of internationalisation, the leadership of both the university and technikon sectors, as embodied in SAUVCA and the CTP, remained ambivalent in their collective responses in the early 2000s. It was only later in 2004 that SAUVCA identified internationalisation as "a key pillar of its leadership initiative" (SAUVCA 2004:2). Perhaps with the formation of Higher Education South Africa (HESA)[108] in 2005, the leadership of the merged higher education sector will develop a more holistic vision for internationalisation. In the post-merger phase, it is likely that the sector will have more time to strategise about internationalisation issues, assuming that the national agenda of transformation is now on course.

Since the late 1980s and with the coming to power of the post-apartheid government, many higher education institutions in South Africa have seen a massive influx of international scholars and institutions seeking to establish links or collaboration agreements of one sort or another. They have also experienced accelerated growth in international student numbers. The CHE (2004) has estimated that this number grew from about 14 000 in 1995 to 47 000 in 2002. Another estimate by the IEASA indicates a growth from approximately 13 000 students to 51 000 between 1994 and 2004; these figures place South Africa as the number one host country in Africa and among the top ten host nations in the world.[109] The above developments are part of the broader process of globalisation and need to be managed and

[108] SAUVCA, which represented the leadership of universities, and CTP, which represented technikons, merged to form HESA, or Higher Education South Africa, which represents the leadership of the merged higher education sector. HESA was formally constituted on 9 May 2005 (SAUVCA (*s.a.*).
[109] See http://www.studysa.ac.za accessed on 16 May 2006.

coordinated in order to maximize benefits to individual institutions as well as to the higher education sector in South Africa at large.

In a report by SAUVCA's National Quality Assurance Forum, higher education institutions are cautioned to "not uncritically accept processes which contain elements of globalisation" (SAUVCA 2003:12). With respect to internationalisation, institutions ought to be clear about what they are trying to do and why they are doing it. They should selectively engage with those aspects of internationalisation that benefit the institutions, staff and students, while being wary of negative influences. The developments and issues relating to the pressure and need to internationalise were captured with particular clarity and thoughtfulness as early as 2001 in Internationalisation at Peninsula Technikon – A Discussion Document (Peninsula Technikon *s.a.*). The document highlights the need to think globally and respond to global imperatives and may serve as a key document in understanding the relatively new issues that those institutions of higher learning need to address:

> International educational interchange, viewed traditionally as encouraging international scholarly development and fostering international communication, is increasingly linked to new global imperatives, such as economic, environmental, and human rights issues, poverty, famine, unemployment, etc. There is a growing realisation that exchange of international knowledge is needed to solve some of these threatening problems. All of these will inevitably affect how institutions want to respond to internationalisation.

It then emphasizes South Africa's own needs for human resource development:

> South Africa as a developing country is currently grappling with the issues of globalisation dictated to her by economic demands. Central to this is the level of human resource development as indicated by the educational level of the majority of the people of South Africa (Peninsula Technikon *s.a.*:1)

Further, the document identifies issues to consider when planning for internationalisation, such as the following: rationales for internationalisation; developing a strategy; international programmes/project management; institutional linkages; memoranda of understanding; proposal content; student exchange; reciprocal exchange for short-term visits; exchange students registering for full-time study; and fellowships for visiting research scholars (Peninsula Technikon *s.a.*:1). This document has been highlighted here because many of the issues pertain equally to other South African higher education institutions, for which it could serve as a guide (certainly in 2001, when most higher education institutions were not that far advanced with respect to internationalisation).

Not all South African universities or technikons were/are at the same stage of development regarding internationalisation. In fact, many institutions have had neither the resources nor the expertise to deal with internationalisation[110], except in an *ad hoc* or haphazard manner. This *ad hoc* response has to be viewed in the context of the huge volume of work created by restructuring and institutional mergers and an overload of new policy documents and restructuring proposals that have been mandated for the higher education sector since the changes to democracy. For the sector as a whole, this period may best be described as one of crisis management rather than the consideration of new, long-term strategies (SAUVCA 2003:11). Peninsula Technikon, on the other hand, had shown itself to be rather advanced in having taken a lead among technikons in order to identify internationalisation as a priority, and also in having consciously made the decision to engage with the phenomenon and plan for it in a structured and orderly manner.

In responding to the need to engage with overseas institutions and individual students, many South African higher education institutions, including Peninsula Technikon, have had to examine the question of internationalisation with respect to a wide range of areas in a manner that would match institutional needs, such as programmes and projects, student admissions, staff and student exchanges, visiting professors, study abroad or staff development. However, very few institutions formulated medium to long-term strategic plans on internationalisation. Five diverse institutional case studies will be presented in Chapters 6 to 10.

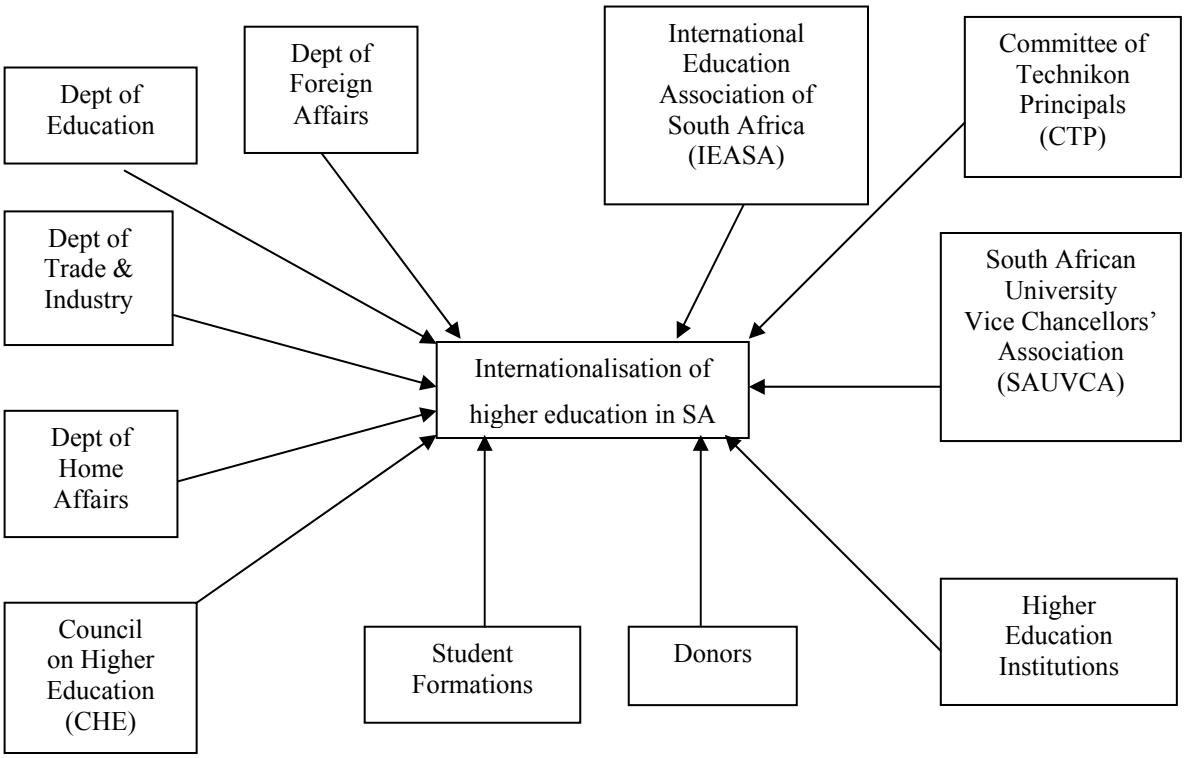
5.6 THE NEED FOR A NATIONAL POLICY ON THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

It was noted earlier in this chapter that to date, no sectoral or national policy on issues pertaining to international education/internationalisation has been released. A number of stakeholders and key players may be distinguished in the internationalisation of higher education (as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.5). These include international agencies, national governments, higher education institutions, staff, students, and the private sector. The aims of the different actors differ, although they may overlap or complement each other. In

[110] In this regard, SAUVCA (2004:12) notes "Historical divides continue to influence internationalisation, given that historically-advantaged institutions have found it easier to influence internationalisation, given that historically-advantaged institutions have found it easier to marshal resources fro international activities than historically-disadvantaged ones".

South Africa, the key role players are the government (various departments); and the higher education sector, including institutions, statutory bodies such as SAUVCA and CTP (or more recently HESA), professional associations such as the IEASA, student formations, and donors.[111] These role players are illustrated in Figure 7 below.

Figure 7. Key role players in the internationalisation of South African public higher education.



According to a CHE (2004:214) document, "*An overarching national policy on internationalisation for South African higher education remains a significant gap*" [emphasis added]. In fact, this report has identified internationalisation as one of 12 focus areas or 'critical issues and key challenges' facing the higher education sector. Likewise, the SAUVCA (2004:13) identified the need for national policy on internationalisation as a priority: "A national policy framework will support coordinated action across government structures, statutory bodies, the sector and other national stakeholders".

[111] Foreign governments have not been included in this diagram because they are not 'in' South Africa. Undoubtedly, they do have a role to play, for example, through sponsoring their students and staff.

Although at present no explicit government policy on internationalisation per se exists, a number of initiatives, mainly in relation to the SADC, are noteworthy: Streamlining procedures for obtaining work and study permits with the DHA, and finalising policy on the subsidisation of the SADC students and all foreign post-graduate students.[112] Currently, all universities receive the state subsidy for these students; however, some institutions charge differential fees. The new policy on student subsidies came into effect in 2002, raising the possibility of a uniform additional levy for SADC students[113]. In addition, the recruitment of more masters and doctoral students, as well as academic staff from Africa who would provide role models for local students requires attention.

A policy acceptable to all parties needs to be formulated by the universities, government and other stakeholders as a matter of urgency in order to avoid a 'tug-of-war' situation among the stakeholders cited above, and to ensure more effective and equitable use of resources. In the absence of a national policy framework, almost no coordination of the internationalisation initiative is apparent, with the exception of attempts by the IEASA to bring about some measure of collaboration and professionalisation of international education practitioners and the promotion of South African higher education abroad. The policies and activities of different higher education institutions, agencies and government departments, which affect international student entry and enrolment, are and remain uncoordinated (Rouhani & Paterson 1996). Both the CHE and SAUVCA confirm this:

> There is continued scope for *ad hoc* decisions by different higher education role players, with sometimes conflicting results (CHE 2004:214);
> Effective internationalisation of South African higher education will require the input of a multiplicity of role players and these role players may need, in some case, to be involved in complex interactions. A national policy framework would support co-ordinated action across government structures, statutory bodies, the sector and other national stakeholders (SAUVCA 2004:13).

The goals of individual universities in internationalisation are many and varied, with a wide range of responses. For some, the national agenda of transforming higher education remains a priority. Others have not identified internationalisation as a goal but are involved at different levels. Yet other universities have identified internationalisation as a priority or a focus area. For some of these institutions, as in the case of UCT, internationalisation is viewed not only

[112] NPHE (DoE 2001); Sunday Times 11 March 2001.
[113] At present, each university charges its own levy to international students.

as a means of income generation, but also as a way to increase student diversity on campus. Whatever the institutional framework for internationalisation, there is a need to "build the case for an explicit internationalisation strategy and policy which will guide the process according to each institution's mission" (SAUVCA 2003:12).

In the long term, the success of higher education institutions as global role players will also require more coordinated efforts shaped by a common vision of internationalisation at the national level. There is, therefore, a need to establish a clear policy on international student access to the South African higher education sector and more broadly, on internationalisation. In this respect, statutory bodies such as the CTP and SAUVCA[114], the IEASA, the advisory Council on Higher Education and the Department of Education have a prominent role to play. This is a responsibility which some role players have been avoiding for too long.

Apart from preoccupation with the national agenda of transformation and all the restructuring that this involves, another reason for the lack of a national policy framework on internationalisation is the lack of synergy or the tension in rationales among key national stakeholders. Whereas the economic rationale dominates for some institutions, the political and moral rationales dominate the government agenda. Further, within the higher education sector, different rationales[115] dominate for different institutions. My prediction is that until such time as the stakeholders have had legitimate ground upon which to debate the internationalisation battle, no adequate national framework can emerge. Above all, cooperation and communication among the key stakeholders is essential. There is little precedent for such dialogue, but it has become a vital necessity. In this respect, I concurr with Sawyerr (2004:26) who states that "in every country there needs to be negotited and established a systems-level policy framework for guiding the strategic choices that have to be made by all players in the education sector".

"The long-term future of individual public institutions and their restructuring must be determined by national policy and needs and not by the vagaries of the market and competitive pressures" (DoE 2001:9). Ideally, this should be the state of affairs, but in the absence of a national policy on internationalisation, each institution has been going it alone.

[114] The CTP and SAUVCA now operate as HESA.
[115] More is said on the mismatch in rationales among key national stakeholders in Chapter 13.

Inevitably, this has resulted in exactly what was supposed to be avoided, according to the CHE (2004:17) report, the "destructive competition in which historically advantaged institutions could reinforce their inherited privileges". Indeed, one of the underlying theses in this study is that the forces of globalisation, if not selectively harnessed by government regulation and capacity building in higher education institutions, will further marginalise the HBUs. More importantly, however, government intervention or regulation towards a holistic, coordinated, systematic and sectoral response is crucial if South Africa is to effectively reinforce her position as the semi-peripheral metropole and manoeuvre the African continent out of the 'undesirable' forces of globalisation that push Africa ever deeper into economic powerlessness and despair. Evidence for Africa's exclusion from global processes was sadly at the forefront of the agenda of the World Economic Forum, held in New York in September 2005.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to provide a background to the South African higher education sector; its historic position of pre-eminence on the continent; its accommodation to change, including the ending of apartheid; and its efforts to adapt to the new realities of internationalisation, which include a connection with the region and continent that is unprecedented and ongoing.

Prior to 1994, South Africa was an outcast from the international community and therefore very much a peripheral power in so far as shaping world events was concerned. Since joining the international community, South Africa has emerged not only as a leader on the African continent, but also, increasingly, as a significant, respected partner in international relations. On the continent, the country's regional metropole status is reinforced by its being an economic and technological powerhouse within the SADC and sub-Saharan Africa. South Africa is well placed to offer a range of opportunities in international education that is adapted to the particular circumstances of the African continent and tailored to meet its development needs. Further, South Africa is able to attract significant numbers of occasional students from Europe and North America.

Within this context, individual institutions should explore possible trajectories to internationalisation within the parameters of their mission and vision while taking full

cognisance of their social identity. The success of South African institutions of higher education in internationalising may not necessarily depend on their duplicating Western models, but rather on their finding their own (possibly unique) way through the process. In the long term, this success will also require a coordinated effort shaped by a common vision of internationalisation at the sectoral and national levels and beyond. In the absence of a sectoral or national policy on internationalisation, the responses of South African agencies and higher education institutions have often been improvised and *ad hoc*. It is crucial that these haphazard approaches end and that an era of communication and thoughtful cooperation begin.

PART B: INSTITUTIONAL CASE STUDIES

CHAPTER 6
THE UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE:
"THE CRUCIBLE OF AFRICAN LEADERSHIP"[116]?

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In 2001, the University of Fort Hare (UFH) was emerging from a crisis period of student strikes, financial and administrative mismanagement and bankruptcy, a sharp decline in student numbers, an identity crisis, and lack of a vision for the future. Under the leadership of the Vice Chancellor, Prof Derrick Swart, and within the framework of the Strategic Plan 2000 (UFH 2000a), UFH began functioning again, and demonstrated extraordinary potential with respect to attracting international students. At the time of my interviews in 2001, UFH was busy 'reinventing' itself in the post-crisis period by implementing the Strategic Plan 2000 (UFH 2000a).

Despite the many problems which beset the university, UFH has many other advantages, which emanated mainly from its legacy as "the crucible of African leadership". Once Fort Hare masters its post-crisis phase and is well into implementing its strategic plan (UFH 2000a), attracting international students in greater numbers should be entirely possible provided internationalisation is also viewed as a strategic focus. The relocation of the main campus from Alice to East London[117] will further make UFH more accessible and attractive to students, both local and international.

The account below has been written in the context of 2001. Since then, the changes pertinent to this study have been noted in footnotes (117 and 122) and in the conclusion to the chapter.

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[116] University of Fort Hare logo

[117] As a consequence of the changing South African higher education landscape, the East London campus of Rhodes University was incorporated in Fort Hare on 1 January 2004. As explained by the Fort Hare university planner: "The emphasis is on keeping the Alice campus and its facilities fully utilised. Besides keeping Agriculture and supporting sciences in Alice, we will also keep the Humanities and archive-related studies, and aspects of the social sciences active as well. The high demand for residential accommodation, also means that even programmes that are due to move to East London will only do so gradually since we have plenty of residences in Alice, and only three in East London The final reality check is, of course, availability of funding for the expansion of the East London campus" (Dr Rod Bally, personal communication, 1 March 2005)

6.2 HISTORY

UFH is located in Alice, an agricultural town about 65 kilometres from Bhisho, the legislative capital of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. Alice is about 270 km from Port Elizabeth and 120 km from East London, the two nearest cities. Thus, the university is not easily accessible. In addition to its main campus in Alice, UFH has also been operating from a modern satellite campus in Bhisho since 1982, and a smaller campus in All Saints, just outside Bhisho. In the near future, the main campus may be relocated to East London[118]. The total student enrolment in 2001 was 5 282 with 8% being international students (UFH 2001b). UFH had 239 full-time staff members.

UFH considers itself to be focused on the future and is building on its rich history as one of the most important academic sites in the struggle against apartheid and the development of African leadership. The university has emerged from a period of ongoing crisis characterised by lack of identity and vision, and at the time of the interviews was aiming to become a world-class (African) university. In my view, what it lacks in resources, it compensates for in vision and commitment. The new UFH survival strategy is outlined in detail in the UFH (2000a) Strategic Plan 2000. This document is analysed in Section 3 of this chapter.

UFH's development is best characterised in terms of periods of peaceful growth interspersed with crises of one kind or another, mainly, but not entirely, the result of social and political changes in South Africa. These events have naturally influenced student enrolments, including the enrolments of international students. In the words of Oliver Tambo[119], a famous UFH alumnus and former African National Congress (ANC) president, at his inauguration as the chancellor in 1991:

> The history of Fort Hare cannot be retold as if it were one event. It was, and is, the culmination of a drama of interpenetrating and at times, contradictory forces. It was moulded by the peculiarities of the history of this region of Southern Africa, and the struggles authored by the history (UFH 2000b).

Although Eurocentric at its inception, today, UFH has a very definite African character, albeit reminiscent of its colonial inheritance. This combination of traditional and modern, academic

[118] Refer to footnote 117 earlier in this chapter.
[119] Oliver Tambo was, in fact, president of the ANC at the time in 1991 and remained president until his death in 1993.

and community-focused education and the provision of modern education in rural Africa makes it attractive to many an international student, in particular from nearby African countries such as Zimbabwe. What follows is a brief account of the historical development of UFH, based on the UFH (2001c) Prospectus.

6.2.1 Inception and Early Years

The South African Native College, later the University of Fort Hare, was founded in 1916 by a group of eminent African scholars (UFH 2000a). UFH's founding Christian tradition stood for "plain living and high thinking" (UFH 2001c:21). The education was Eurocentric and differed from Bantu Education prevalent in South Africa from the 1950's in that it "did not assume that black Africans deserve a different and inferior education" (UFH 2001c:21), as was the case with the Bantu Education policy of the apartheid government.

As one of the oldest universities in South Africa and on the African continent, UFH was a training ground for intellectuals from many Southern and East African countries as far as Kenya, Tanzania and Eritrea (UFH 2000a). A number of its students, such as Oliver Tambo, Nelson Mandela, Govan Mbeki and Robert Mugabe became political activists and later statesmen. For this reason, it is referred to as the "crucible of African leadership" (UFH 2000b). Fort Hare presents itself as the "greatest centre of black higher education in Southern and Eastern Africa" (UFH 2001c:22), or "the most historically significant institution of higher education in sub-tropical Africa" (UFH 2000a).

6.2.2 From the Apartheid Era into the New Millennium

During the apartheid era, various student formations such as the ANC and PAC-aligned organisations became active at UFH, and many universities became seats of the struggle against apartheid. UFH became a stronghold of the Black Consciousness-oriented South African Students' Organisation (SASO). Student protests continued in the 1970's and later in the 1980's, especially with the creation of the homeland of Ciskei in 1980, when UFH was reduced to the level of a 'bush college', accompanied by a marked decline in its previous status (UFH 2000a).

UFH's period of storm and stress continued well into the post-apartheid era. In the late-1990s, as part of the larger social change in the new democracy, the South African higher education landscape went through a wave of transition and transformation that was to change its shape and size. In addition to national demands for change, international challenges to the survival of universities were also apparent, brought about because of the knowledge revolution. UFH was no exception and underwent a period of crisis. One indicator of this state of institutional collapse was the massive drop in student enrolment (the principal basis for determining state subsidies). In 1995, this figure stood at 5 208. Over the three-year period 1997, 1998, and 1999, this figure dropped to 4 988, 3 993 and 2 869 respectively (UFH 2000a).

At this point, UFH was in a financial crisis. In total, 80% of its running costs and thus its principal source of revenue was from the state subsidy. A drop in student numbers implied not only a decrease in the state subsidy, but also a cut in the income from student fees. It was thus imperative "to realign the budget to the size and shape of the institution" (UFH 2000a:11).

UFH's vision for the new millennium has been shaped according to the UFH (2000a) document:

> Today, the University of Fort Hare stands at a major crossroads. Facing a powerful combination of structural pressures and strategic shifts in the educational sector within and beyond South Africa, UFH has to make major decisions regarding its future. The new South Africa is making new demands on tertiary institutions to redefine their role …
>
> To respond to these challenges, Fort Hare needs to redefine its mission and role, and 're-invent' itself. What is clear is that it cannot do 'business as usual'. Major changes are required if the university is to survive the rapidly changing domestic and global environment of education… (UFH 2000a:2).

These changes implied *fundamental* reconstruction and development of an institution that had been underdeveloped through systematic government intervention for decades. A strategic plan was formulated towards this reconstruction.

6.3 STRATEGIC PLAN 2000

In 1999, a "comprehensive review" and reform of the institution was undertaken which resulted in the publication of the UFH (1999) Review Report at the end of 1999 and later, the UFH (2000a) Strategic Plan 2000. The document denotes "a process of comprehensive

structural planning" [emphasis in original] (UFH 2000a:2) intended to reinvent and revive UFH. This plan was based on the extensive findings contained in the review report, together with numerous official policy and related source documents on higher education, as well as commentaries from the university community of academics, administrators, students and Council. It "calls for a complete re-shaping" and repositioning of Fort Hare in relation to current educational and social realities if Fort Hare is to "stay on the South African tertiary education scene to any significant degree" (UFH 2000b).

The document sets out in broad strategic terms a new vision, mission, corporate goals and institutional activities aimed at laying a foundation for the comprehensive reconstruction and development of the university into the 21st century (UFH 2000a).

6.3.1 Global and Local Challenges to Fort Hare

At the same time, UFH has taken cognizance of the challenges which confront it, provincially, nationally and internationally. Some of these issues are highlighted in the Strategic Plan 2000, for example the context for policy and structural change:

> UFH SP 2000 takes place in a context of tremendous policy and structural changes in South Africa's higher education environment… major adjustments are required if tertiary institutions are to successfully navigate the new rules of educational development in future (UFH 2000a:6).

In addition, the UFH (2000a) recognises and identifies a number of global challenges to higher education. These are the emergence of the so-called 'knowledge economy', driven by new technologies, for example, ICT, an aggressive expansion in global trade, and the growing "internationalization"[120] of economic competition. "The knowledge revolution has begun to challenge the traditional *knowledge hegemony* of universities" (UFH 2000a:7, emphasis in original).

Among the effects of these wider changes in South Africa are three elements that appear to make UFH especially vulnerable. These are the following: the coming of the 'Internet age', the spectre of the 'virtual university' and distance modes of learning; proliferation of South

[120] American spelling was used in the UFH (2000a) document.

African and international private higher education institutions competing for the same student and research markets; and the blurring of boundaries between technikons and universities[121].

Globally, issues of relevance, responsiveness, flexibility, adaptation and innovation are becoming critical for the survival of all universities. The challenge to survive is even greater for the historically black universities in South Africa, such as UFH which finds itself at a double disadvantage: emerging from the legacies of institutional underdevelopment and competing with private and higher education providers, both local and international. To this I would add two other disadvantages, namely, UFH's lack of resources and geographic remoteness.

As mentioned in Chapter 5 and the introduction to this chapter, UFH will maintain its identity and is not to be merged with any other higher education institutions in the Eastern Cape, although it has incorporated the East London campus of Rhodes University. This development is likely to have a positive influence on UFH's image, both nationally and internationally.

6.3.2 New Vision: African University

UFH's new vision[122] idealises the African University:

> UFH aspires to become a vibrant, equitable and sustainable African university committed to teaching and research excellence that builds on its unique historical leadership role and rural location to provide an attractive and enriching educational service to its graduates and scholars to become meaningful and critical participants in the social, economic and political development of society (UFH 2001c:2).

The emphasis here is on three elements. First is a "celebration of *African* identity – a multicultural, continental as opposed to an ethnocentric identity"; second is a "unique historical leadership role – an affirmation of its historical role as *the* training ground for *Leaders;* and third is the "rural location" – as a strategic advantage to focus on local and regional development needs (UFH 2000a:14).

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[121] More recently, some technikons and universities have merged as part of the national agenda to transform higher education, for example, UPE and PE Technikon.

[122] Since this account was written in 2001, UFH has a new vision statement: "The University of Fort Hare is a vibrant, equitable and sustainable African university, committed to teaching and research excellence at the service of its students, scholars and the wider community" (Personal communication, Dr Rod Bally, UFH Planner, 1 March 2005).

Despite a celebration of its African roots and rural location, UFH aspires to uphold international standards for the benefit of the nation and the world at large:

> The mission of UFH is to provide high quality education of international standards contributing to the advancement of knowledge that is socially and ethically relevant, and applying that knowledge to the scientific, technological and socioeconomic development of our nation and the wider world, (UFH 2000a:14).

To achieve this vision and mission, UFH realigned its academic programmes into five focus areas: African and Democracy Studies, Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Commerce and Industry, Development and Management Studies, and Science and Technology.

6.3.3 The Need to Increase Income

A UFH (2000a) document outlines a series of measures that can help to increase UFH's income, a critical issue that underlies all planning for the future. Of relevance to this thesis are seven measures: ensuring growth in student numbers; generating income through research; using under-used facilities for income generation; offering additional competitive high-quality programmes; improving the quality of student life; increasing the efficiency of support systems; increasing the post-graduate component; and introducing summer and winter schools (UFH 2000a:19 & 22).

Ensuring growth in student numbers does not have to be restricted to local students. On the contrary, the recruitment of international students can be a major source of income for UFH. In fact, this strategy was acknowledged in the (UFH 2000a) document,, although at the time, no such international student recruitment had taken place: "Attract overseas students: by overseas advertising, website, attractive accommodation, [and] offer of 'African experience'"(UFH 2000a:20). Recruiting international students will be particularly useful if aimed at increasing the post-graduate component and generating research, especially in under-used faculties. However, prerequisites or co-requisites for that are an improvement in the quality of student life and services and the support systems and a change in the campus climate so that international students are not made to feel like outsiders.

Further, the UFH (2000a) document outlines five broad corporate goals which are indicators of success. Among these is "becoming a world-class university". At the time of conducting

this study, my impression was that UFH, far from being an excellent university, was, in fact, a provincial, rural university, tucked away far into the hills of the Eastern Cape, unknown even to South African student clientele. In recent years, its main student base drew from a relatively narrow geographical corridor, including Queenstown, Fort Beaufort, Alice, Middledrift, King Williamstown and the East London areas. Most students came from economically disadvantaged communities (UFH 2000a). "The University recruits almost exclusively black African students from an area largely restricted to the East London to Queenstown axis" (UFH 2000a:18).

One of the elements which would assist UFH in becoming a world-class university would be to internationalise student numbers in a very carefully managed way, for example by having small groups of short-stay students. In line with the UFH (2000a) Strategic Plan 2000 recommendations, UFH plans to increase its international student numbers, especially those from SADC. This is part of the broader initiative towards the consolidation of student intake and the broadening of the student catchment areas (UFH 2001a), "to more accurately reflect the demographic realities of a non-racial society" (UFH 2000a:6).

6.4 INTERNATIONAL LINKAGES OFFICE

6.4.1 Inception and Structure

At the time of the study in 2001, no independent International Office at UFH existed, but international activities and linkages were managed by the Tertiary Education Linkages Project (TELP)[123] coordinator. The need for an International Office is recognised marginally in the UFH (2000a) document:

> Resuscitate and reform such existing initiatives as the *ad hoc* arrangements for VSOs and Fulbright Scholars, and the barely functional International Linkage Office (UFH 2000a:44).

From the above, what is clear is that in 2001, no permanent measures for internationalisation were in place and existing initiatives were handled on an "*ad hoc*" basis. Further, the International Linkages Office had been "barely functional" (UFH 2000a).

[123] TELP was a US-funded project to develop capacity at HDIs.

Mrs Sobahle was appointed as coordinator to the TELP office on 1 October 2000. At the time of the interview, she had been there for about a year. The office was therefore primarily a TELP office, but it was also responsible for international matters as a second option: "the international is put back on the table" (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001). Before this arrangement, no International Office existed. International activities were carried out by the Public Relations Office, which was responsible for both staff and student activities.

Prior to the formulation of the UFH (2000a), UFH appears to have suffered from a lack of focus with respect to international linkages; however, this situation was likely to change. In terms of the UFH (2000a), UFH envisaged a carefully chosen portfolio of partnerships. Most of these linkages were with regional institutions in the Eastern Cape Province or with national institutions. "Internationally, a limited number of carefully chosen linkages will be developed and consolidated that have the potential to address the needs of Fort Hare and the communities it serves" (UFH 2000a: 42). In addition, a lack of coordination of international activities in the past was apparent:

> That [past plans for student recruitment] is something that is not clear, because I did not want to say this, but what I sensed why INTERSTUDY[124] pulled out, is that the programme was not coordinated. There have been people, there have been many changes, and as a result there was lack of coordination.
>
> Now I come into such a situation where you want information about ABC so there is lack of coordination, so you tell yourself 'OK fine! What does the policy say now? How am I going to go about it? Forget about what happened but what does the policy say, where does the policy want to go and what can I do?' So I have really sort of stopped trying to find out from people what happened in the past (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

As a result of lack of coordination with respect to internationalisation efforts and the handover to a new director, much information was missing:

> And the information I have is this, that is why INTERSTUDY pulled out so now it means one has to put together whatever one gets. Yes, I am now sort of creating bits and pieces of information, and I am trying to put it together, but of course, I will be informed by what Mr Letseka says about what the policy is (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

[124] INTERSTUDY is an international agency which recruits students from the USA and Europe and sends them to South African universities, among other destinations.

Mrs Sobahle was not aware about whether a written policy on the internationalisation of UFH existed, and she expressed her ignorance: "I don't know, I don't want to say that, I don't want to say there isn't a policy, Mr Letseka will know. Yes, Mr Letseka will know the policy". Despite a lack of experience and information regarding matters international, the coordinator was very enthusiastic and setting up an International Office was highly important to her:

> After the Strategic Plan 2000 informed the university that there needs to be an International Office, it was decided to assign the responsibilities of this to the TELP office, with the aim of having a fully-fledged Office by 2004, at which time the TELP is due to end (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

The organogram and staffing structure for the TELP/International Linkages Office are illustrated in Figures 8 and 9 below.

Figure 8. University of Fort Hare TELP/International Linkages Office organogram in 2001.

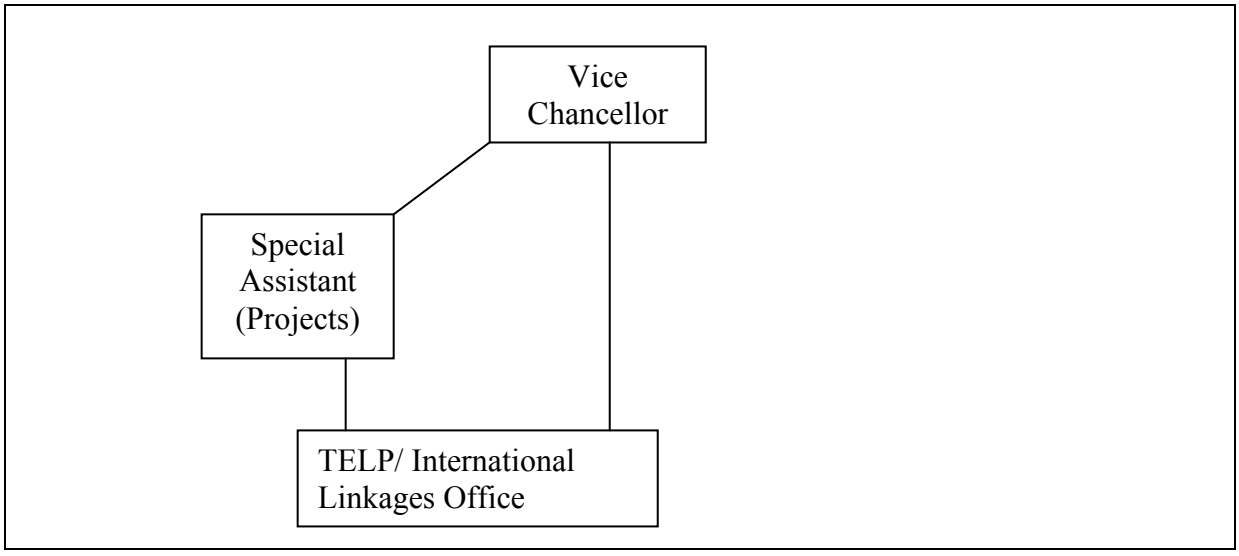
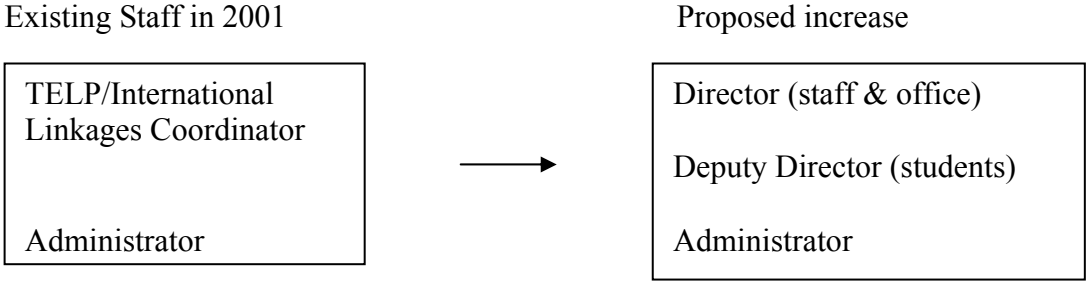


Figure 9. Staff complement of the University of Fort Hare TELP/International Linkages Office in 2001.



These illustrations indicate that UFH had a very small, under-resourced International Linkage Office, and was not planning to expand this office in a major way. The office had taken over the following four responsibilities: the Fulbright, the Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO), staff exchange, and international student programmes. Given this very full load with only two staff, it was evident that the office was not able to cope and work in a sustainable and systematic manner.

6.4.2 Future Needs and Growth

The future needs of the TELP/International Linkages Office emanated mainly from Mrs Sobahle's need for capacity development as well as the need to strengthen and audit existing links. She needed further training[125] in her position as a specialist professional to enable her to deal with international student and staff issues:

> … I am still learning at how else we can get international students and my going to this conference (IEASA) will help me understand better…
>
> Still formulating (plans to attract international students), yes. At the moment we rely on what we have, on what I found and that it is still formulating. As I was saying to you, I want to go to the IEASA conference because I want to know what is happening [with respect to international education issues] (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

With respect to international partnerships, the aim of the UFH Strategic Plan 2000 is to "focus international linkages on core development areas" (UFH 2000a: 43, Section 6.8.3). This is to be achieved through four strategies: develop limited number of institutional flagship linkages; support project partnerships and other goal-specific linkages; expand UFH links with international bodies funding research and development, for example, the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD or the German Academic Exchange Service), Kellogg, South Africa Netherlands Research Programme on Alternatives in Development (SANPAD); and build an efficient means for initiating and providing ongoing services to link arrangements, especially with overseas participants.

In addition, UFH had a partnership with the University of Connecticut in the USA and other institutions, of which Mrs Sobahle was not aware. However, the office was undertaking an

[125] At the end of this chapter, it is noted that lack of capacity, expertise and institutional support also plague Mrs Sobahle's successor later in 2005.

audit of former agreements while trying to create new ones. The audit was directed by the priorities of the UFH (2000a). Mrs Sobahle explained:

> I am doing an audit of what we had, resuscitating whatever linkages there were and making sure that new ones do not make any mistakes that were made from the past. So as I said to you, I am resuscitating, attempting to resuscitate those that were sort of dying and were there.
>
> We would like to know what is happening, and we are in a way focusing, because we have got SP 2000, and we think now we know the needs of the institution and any kinds of linkages must be informed by the strategic plan. You cannot simply say there is a linkage and yet it is not contributing to what we want (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

In relation to the audit, the UFH (2000a) aims to "examine existing links critically; prune those that are redundant; if necessary enter new links serving UFH interests" (UFH 2000a:43, Section 6.8.3).

6.4.3 Some Challenges Faced by the International Linkages Office

The main challenges of the International Linkages Office related to the lack of capacity, inadequate public transport to and from UFH, inadequate student services, and lack of integration on campus. Mrs Sobahle outlined her frustration and inability to focus on all international students due to a shortage of staff and lack of space in the International Linkages Office:

> When I got into this office, I hit the tarmac running – there has been so much to do and until June this year I was all by myself. It was only the 1st of June that the university approved an assistant. So it has been hectic (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

UFH's remote, rural location creates a problem with respect to accessibility for students because public transport to smaller centres in South Africa is infrequent and irregular. The issue of access is an even greater challenge for international students, in particular those arriving in South Africa from overseas who are not familiar with the local culture.

Most students have to catch local minibus taxis to and from Alice; catching these taxis is time consuming because they not at all regular, and they are not considered the safest mode of transport in the country due to the competitive and unregulated nature of the South African taxi industry. The White population generally does not use this mode of transport, which is

commonly used by the majority of the Black population. Therefore, having to use these taxis as the main mode of transport in and around Alice causes problems for students and in particular, female students who fear for their safety.

All students, but in particular international students, suffer from a lack of accommodation, lack of access to email, and the need for laundry facilities. Although provision of student services should be inclusive to the student population as a whole, lack of capacity at UFH hampered service delivery to all students. The International Linkages Office could only manage to target international students from overseas[126] for service delivery. Mrs Sobahle explained:

> We want to, as I told you, we really want more [overseas students] because we are looking for accommodation – since coming here sometimes students have problems with email so they come to use email in my office. It is one office, I have to stand up and give them space.
>
> I haven't heard of that [complaints from local students about international students getting better services], but I am aware that it can happen. As a result it is something that I say to myself – whatever services we offer, we must be careful not be accused of favouring the internationals.
>
> Yes, the internationals, for instance, they have major needs that many local students don't have. For instance, they have to be connected to the Internet in order to be able to communicate home. They have to have access to a phone, not for free, of course. They have to have access to laundry machines, which we don't have, and I am planning that we have that.
>
> So, I am saying to myself, they do have the needs; but in some cases, such needs are not an issue to local students but I always remind myself the local students should not see that the internationals are being preferred because they might create problems. But I am aware of their needs and we have to provide for them…
>
> The office has just acquired a house; we are calling it an international house, a guest house. So we are getting there quietly, but we are getting there (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

Another challenge confronting the International Linkages Office was to integrate students and promote good relations between local and international students on campus, in particular between local Black students and those from other African countries. Xenophobia had

[126] As Mrs Sobahle was talking about international students, it became apparent that she was referring to students from overseas, in other words, those from beyond the African continent.

emerged as a cause for concern during interviews with students. This was confirmed by documentary evidence: "There are often complaints of xenophobia by foreign staff and students" (UFH 2000a:18). Mrs Sobahle had this to say:

> … there is a course that I am planning, that is another reason why I am going to this conference on racism. We have got R17 000 from USAID and we were told to put up a proposal as to what to do. So I said to myself – perhaps one should focus on issues like racism, sexism. So I put in a proposal on that for us to design a course that we will run on campus. The USAID hasn't responded, but I think we are going to get it. So that is part of being proactive so that should issues like that come, we have all the trained students on issues like racism, sexism, like conflict management (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

As we shall see in Chapter 12, xenophobia was an issue at other South African universities as well.

6.5 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Most international students came to UFH in one of three ways: university-to-university agreements, through INTERSTUDY, or directly as individual applicants. The Coordinator Mrs Sobahle had, for the time being, focused attention on those from overseas. This was mainly because her initial mandate was to support overseas students. In addition, the office was understaffed and would not be able to cope with too many demands right at the start. Therefore SADC students were 'put on hold' for the present.

Most of the SADC students came to UHF with financial aid through government agreements. "The SADC students, it is an agreement between the governments" (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001). However, in 2001, the International Linkages Office lacked the capacity to give special attention to SADC students as a sub-group of international students, as explained by Mrs Sobahle:

> When I took over, the students that the office was helping, I had the mandate for, were overseas students. My question is, 'What about SADC (students)?' So I don't want to ask that question now. I will ask it, but at the moment, I do not want to ask it because it is going to mean a flood of students. We don't have the space, we only have that office…
>
> Can I tell you what I feel about SADC? I have said because of the amount of work I know we have, and I decided not to [focus on them] until I set the house in order (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

6.5.1 Numbers

In 1999, international students constituted less than 1% of the total enrolment of 5 282 at UFH. This figure increased to 8% (418) in 2001. A drop in the number of overseas students at UFH was apparent, as highlighted by the International Linkages Office coordinator:

> When I took over, there were no international students [i.e. from overseas], but it does not mean that there have never been. There have been students, quite a number of them at Fort Hare, why they pulled out, I do not know.… So we did not have students when I took over, then we had last year two students from Massachusetts…, then this term we have got one from Virginia through INTERSTUDY…
>
> Earlier on, maybe four or five years ago we had a number [of overseas students]… I would not know. Mr X[127] will know because he is the one who was handling that, so he would know the number of students we had and why they are no longer coming perhaps. But now we have just this few (Mrs Sobahle Interview 2001).

6.5.2 Origin

As a proportion of international student enrolments, an overwhelming majority of 93% (389) were from SADC. Over one half (57% or 237) of the international students at UFH were from Zimbabwe, followed by nearly a third (31% or 130) from Lesotho, 5% (22) from other African countries, and only 1% (4) from countries beyond the African continent. These data are provided in Table 11. Thus over one half of the international students were (Black) Zimbabweans.

[127] Mr X (not his real name) was in charge of international matters prior to Mrs Sobahle becoming the Coordinator of the International Linkages Office.

Table 11. Geographic Origin of International Students at the University of Fort Hare in 2001

ORIGIN	*N*	%
Zimbabwe	237	57
Lesotho	130	31
Other SADC	22	5
TOTAL SADC	389	93
Other Africa	25	6
Other countries	4	1
GRAND TOTAL	418	100

Source: UFH (2001b).

6.6 CONCLUSION

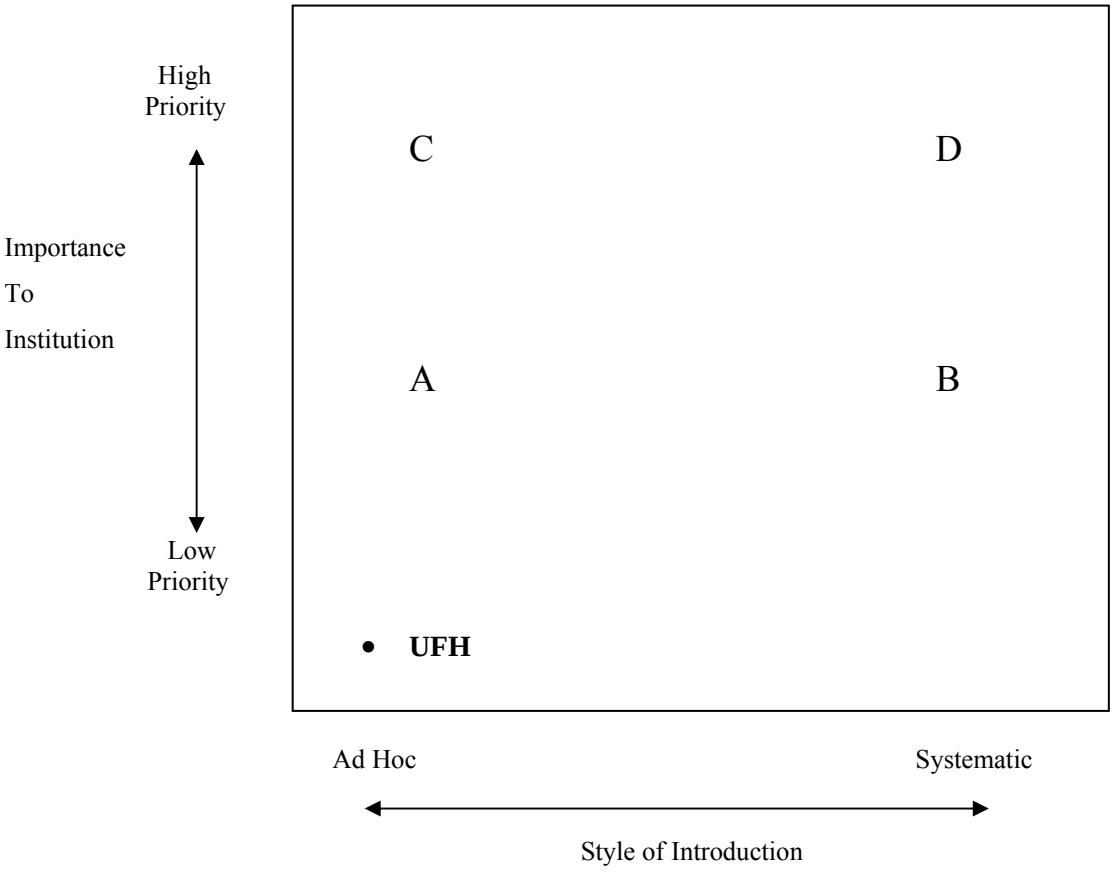
Although in 2001, no dedicated International Office as such existed at UFH, some of the tasks of the office were being handled by the International Linkage Office. One staff member and one assistant were in charge of linkages, international students, and more or less all 'matters international'. Staff was new in the office and in need of specialist training and institutional support, as expressed by the acting coordinator. Sadly, specialist training and institutional support were lacking at the time. Given this limited structure and range of responsibilities, including TELP, one may conclude that internationalisation was a low priority on the institutional agenda. Neither the office nor the institution had the capacity to give attention to internationalisation in a systematic and sustainable manner, despite access by the coordinator to the Vice Chancellor's Office.

In terms of the Davies model (1995) referred to in Chapter 4, UFH thus exemplified most of the characteristics typical of an institution located in the bottom left-hand quadrant in which:

> The amount of international business is relatively small: some overseas students; a small amount of consultancy or continuing education… arrangements for charging and financing are variable and unsystematic. Little specialism exists in personnel or organisational form. A weak database exists on opportunities … and little systematic assessment of opportunity occurs. Internationalisation is low in the mission and on the planning agenda (Davies, 1995:15).

This ‘ad hoc–low priority’ or ‘ad hoc–marginal’ approach to internationalisation is illustrated in Figure 10.

Figure 10. The University of Fort Hare's approach to internationalisation in 2001.



Source: Modified from Davies (1995, 2003).

For UFH, which in 2001 was emerging from a period of dramatic upheavals, was preoccupied with institutional transformation and was lacking the human resources to assign a full-time, dedicated International Office. Setting up the International Linkage Office measure may be viewed as a temporary solution. The University’s response to internationalisation could be described as selective disengagement and a passive rather than a proactive response. Given Fort Hare’s history and its post-crisis phase, perhaps this was not the best time to develop internationalisation-related work, but rather, give priority to reconstruction of the institution in line with the general national transformation agenda for South African higher education. The university authorities were cognisant of these developments as mentioned in the UFH (2000a) Strategic Plan 2000.

However, Fort Hare has enormous potential to internationalise. Should it decide to recruit international students[128] more aggressively, a two-pronged approach could be adopted that targets both individual students as well as institutional exchange programmes. Both African students as well North American and European students would probably find the UFH experience appealing, provided student services are upgraded.

After 2001, Mrs Sobahle left and Mr Mnyatheli took over as the director of the International Linkages Office. The number of international students is around 10% of the total enrolment, but again, this comprises mostly students from SADC and the rest of Africa. UFH now also has an urban base. Access to email has improved dramatically because the university went from six functional open-access computers in Alice in 2001 to several hundred a few years later.

The dire need for an International Office with access to funding and high-level university support still remains a challenge, as is the need for expertise in internationalisation. A genuine plea for support towards these needs was expressed in 2005 email from Mr Mnyatheli, the International Office director, to the IEASA president:

> For the first time, I was given a slot in the University Executive Management Meeting [to address our strategy for internationalization]… I would really need the support of the IEASA Executive… I should make use of you *to convince our Management about the whole concept of internationalization…*
>
> Ms X, my colleague, has taken study leave. This *leaves me alone* to deal with *people who are nowhere near understanding the concept of internationalization*. This also implies that I should take lead in ensuring that Fort Hare establishes a functioning International Office. However, *my main problem is lack of support, internally and … from people with little or no knowledge of the concept and its application*
>
> *My voice alone cannot be heard. I need your help and that of IEASA…This is a sincere request from me* [emphasis in original][129] .

In the light of this plea for help, the outlook for internationalisation at UFH remains bleak unless these needs are addressed in the near future. In contrast to this grim reality, the university planner has a more optimistic vision:

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[128] International student mobility does not appear to feature in the UFH Strategic Plan 2000, although there is a section in the Strategic Plan about strategic educational partnerships (UFH 2000a, Section 6.8).
[129] Mr Mnyatheli has used the American spelling.

> Naturally the imperatives of preparing and incorporation have taken up much of our resources over the last 3 years. But I personally still have a dream of expanding our international base of students (Dr Rod Bally, personal communication, 1 March 2005).

It is unlikely that this vision will materialise without a major institutional turnaround strategy to empower the International Linkages Office. In addition, it is evident that UFH on its own lacks the institutional support required. If UFH and, indeed, other HDIs are to internationalise in a more meaningful way, sectoral support from HESA, IEASA and the Department of Education (Higher Education Division) would be crucial elements.

CHAPTER 7

RHODES UNIVERSITY: "WHERE LEADERS LEARN"[130]?

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an account of the unique features that shaped the internationalisation trajectory of Rhodes University (RU) in 2001. After the introduction, these unique features are used to explain the context for the operation of the International Student Office. Next, the University's sizeable and diverse international student population is profiled. Then the University's rationale and strategies for internationalisation are discussed before the chapter concludes.

Although Rhodes University (RU) has had "a long tradition of internationalisation practices across all levels of its functioning", these practices had yet to be formalized in 2001 (RU 2001a:1). The Rhodes mission statement identifies "international recognition and the advancement of scholarship as major elements of its niche in higher education" (RU, 2001a:1). In addition, the "proportion of international students at Rhodes is one of the highest in the world" among residential universities (RU 2001a:1). This percentage grew from 7% in 1991 to about 24% in 2001, and represents 40 countries.

This growth has occurred despite the absence of a specific internationalisation strategy. However, the University realised that "the exact benefits of internationalisation to the institution and the students had not been made explicit", and that "the time had come to develop a "coordinated internationalisation policy and strategy to guide future development" (RU 2001a:12 & 1).

Thus in 2001, Rhodes University implemented an Internationalisation Quality Review (IQR)[131] and was among the first universities on the African continent to do so. This unique development sets Rhodes apart from other South African universities, and the IQR (RU 2001a) was intended to help it frame a coherent internationalisation policy and strategy. With regard to the IQR, and the question of whether the Science Faculty had had any thoughts or

[130] Rhodes University Logo
[131] This is a comprehensive report, including a self-assessment and peer review.

plans to view international students as a new area for growth, Prof Terry, the Dean of Science stated:

> I don't think we have, you know, a formal sit-down and think-about it. There has just been an international review, which probably nobody has seen a report of and that there is going to be feedback from that, and I think the initial feeling on this was mutual among people as either [way] we are going to be sort of judged by international standards. But it turns out that it is not really that. I think it is more along the lines of what we are going to do to attract and train and deal with international students… (Interview 5 October 2001).

In fact, although RU "had never had a conscious policy or strategy" on internationalisation (RU 2005:1), its traditions, going back to its founding at the beginning of the 20th century, have always been international in character and in practice.

7.2 HISTORY

Rhodes University College was established in 1904 by an Act of Parliament and gained full university status in 1951. The university has a unique character among South African universities thanks to a combination of factors – historical, geographical, cultural and architectural. To cite just two special features, Rhodes University has adopted for its own purposes the tutorial system common to Oxford and Cambridge and other UK universities, and is known for the quality of its residential life, which is heavily influenced by the Oxbridge model.

In 2001, Rhodes University had two campuses, the main one in Grahamstown and a smaller one in East London. The Grahamstown campus had over 4 777 students enrolled in more than 80 subjects who were taught by over 300 academics in about 30 departments in six faculties – Humanities, Commerce, Education, Law, Pharmacy and Science. Rhodes East London had a full-time academic staff of over 50 with over 1 000 students taking degrees and diplomas in Education, Commerce and Social Work (RU *s.a.*).

One of the most appealing features of RU for undergraduate students is that it is a small, residential university, making Grahamstown almost a university-town, with the university producing more than 50% of the town's GDP (RU 2001a). The campus "caters to a niche market which seeks a total educational experience in an attractive, safe and nurturing environment conducive to good scholarship" (RU 2001a:7). The University had reached

capacity at the undergraduate level, but was interested in expanding its postgraduate research capacity. This sentiment was echoed by two sources, namely the Registrar and the Calendar:

> We don't want the student numbers on the main campus to go any higher than it is now, because I think it would start changing the nature of the campus. The one exception to that would be in postgraduate research… Rhodes Grahamstown is full in the residential sense, so we just don't have the accommodation to offer to lots of international students coming here on exchanges (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

> The future of Rhodes lies not in greater numbers, but in increasing academic excellence, and building upon a century of academic achievement (RU 2001b:14).

In fact, the refusal to compromise academic excellence is at the heart of Rhodes' *mission* and is a shared *vision* of its academic staff who, for their part, are heavily involved in research that crosses borders. Although RU has its roots on the African continent, it aspires to be recognised as much more than a provincial African institution. To be sure, its location in the Eastern Cape and Southern Africa defines the context within which it must operate and the primary communities it serves. At the same time, however, given its high academic standards and the quality and volume of its scholarly research, RU sees itself – and is seen – as belonging in the company of first-class universities internationally:

> Rhodes University wishes to be recognised not just as an excellent South African university but as an excellent university (RU 2001a:7).

> Rhodes University's *vision* is to be an outstanding internationally-respected academic institution which proudly affirms its African identity and which is committed to democratic ideals, academic freedom, rigorous scholarship, sound moral values and social responsibility (RU 2001b: front cover).

While maintaining the traditional roles of a university in teaching, research and community service, RU's main catchment areas are the Eastern Cape and further afield into the sub-continent. Regarding its mission,

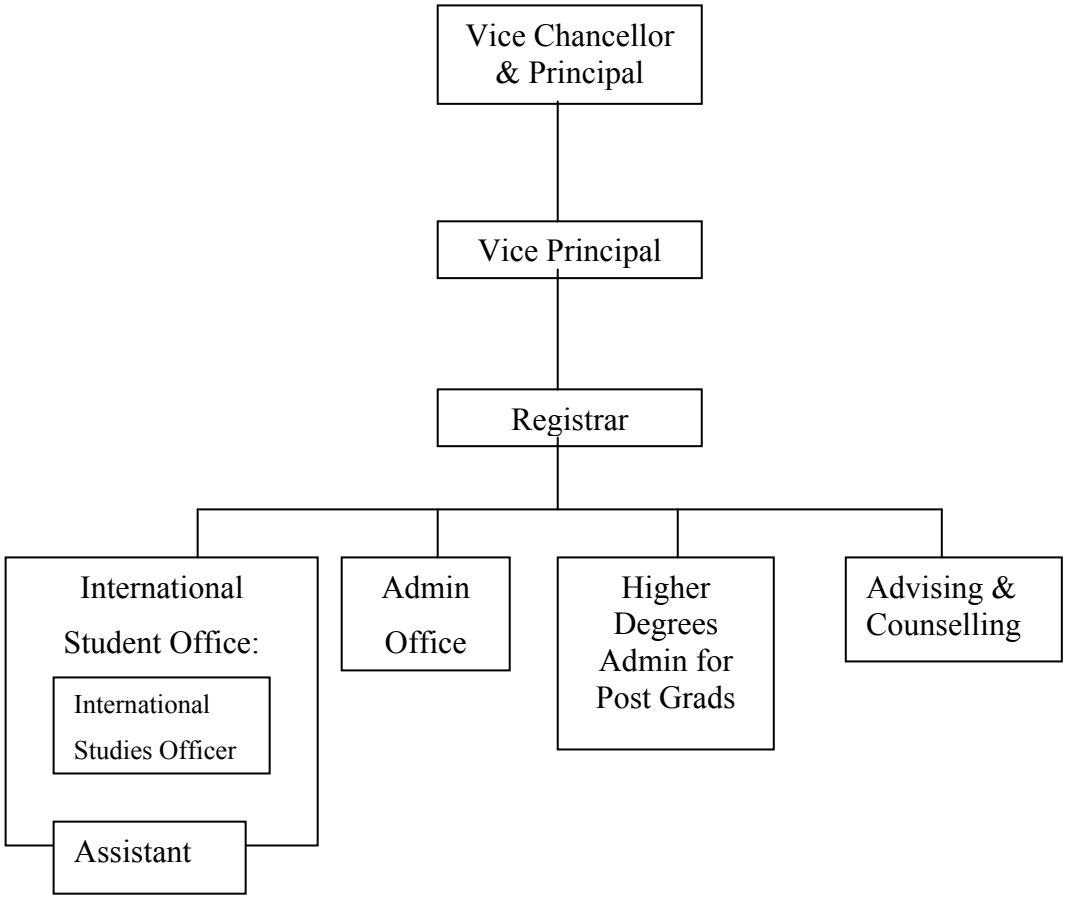
> The University will strive to produce internationally-accredited graduates who are innovative, analytical, articulate, balanced and adaptable, with a life-long love of learning; and to strive, through teaching, research and community service, to contribute to the advancement of international scholarship and the development of the Eastern Cape and Southern Africa (RU 2001b: front cover).

7.3 INTERNATIONAL STUDENT OFFICE

7.3.1 Inception and Structure

In 2001, no fully-fledged international office offering comprehensive services existed. The International Student Office comprised two staff, an International Studies Officer, Ms Helen Pienaar and her assistant who reported to the office of the Registrar, Dr S Fourie. The international studies officer was appointed in 1997, mainly to assist exchange students (RU 2001a:13). The organogram is illustrated in Figure 11.

Figure 11. Rhodes University's International Student Office organogram in 2001.[132]



The Registrar is responsible for most of the administration of RU, from recruitment to graduation. This includes student recruitment, admissions, faculty administration, administration of the Senate and Council, financial aid, student counselling, examinations and

[132] Source: Interview with the Registrar on 4 October 2001.

graduation. These are for both local and international students. Within this structure, it is therefore logical for the International Student Office to report to the Registrar, although this additional responsibility may not lend itself to much innovation under the portfolio of an already heavily burdened administrator.

7.3.2 Decentralised Services or 'One-Stop Shop'?

The Registrar explained that because of its history, RU had always had international students and a need for specific services to international students, over and above those provided to local students, had never been necessary (Dr S Fourie Interview 5 October 2001). The Student Bureau acted as a 'one-stop shop' to assist all students (RU 2001a:22). Thus, to date, no need for an independent international office had been apparent. Most of the functions normally carried out by an international office were decentralised and handled by other organs of RU, which also assisted local students.

The Dean of Science, Prof Terry, confirmed the unavailability of specific services for SADC students, over and above that provided for local students:

> At Rhodes we have a long tradition of regarding everybody who comes from the Southern end of Africa as local, so I don't think there is any particular effort that has been made to distinguish between those people or have a special outreach, special ways of looking after them or anything. Zimbabwean students – Rhodesian students as it was known years ago – they are just like all the other students (Interview 5 October 2001).

Further, because the Grahamstown campus had reached its maximum residential capacity[133], RU was not intending to increase the number of undergraduates, specifically, international students[134]. Therefore, in 2001, the two-member 'International' Student Office was deemed to be an appropriate structure by RU.

However, on further investigation, it emerged that the International Studies Officer, Mrs Helen Pienaar, provided support mainly to 50 to 60 short-term, non-degree, exchange students

[133] "We are not full in the academic sense, but Rhodes Grahamstown is full in the residential sense. We are at the moment building two new residences and the third one will be started early next year. So, we just don't have the accommodation to offer to lots of international students coming here on exchanges" (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).
[134] In 2001, international students comprised about 27% of the enrolment at the Grahamstown Campus (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

and provided some information regarding study permits and medical insurance to degree-seeking students. This was confirmed by Prof Terry's statement: "The sort of people that Helen [Pienaar] has largely dealt with, [are] the international exchange people that come for a semester" (Interview 5 October 2001).

Thus "no assistance or support structure for the more than a thousand international students registered for full qualifications" existed (RU 2001a:26). It became clear that there was a need for a fully-fledged international office. As acknowledged by the IQR (RU 2001a:26):

> An internationalisation policy will need to address the position of all international students, revise the brief of the ISO, and possibly set up new structures to enhance the international students experiences of Rhodes. Research into the needs and challenges faced by international students at Rhodes should be a priority.

Further, a Senate subcommittee, the International Student and Staff Exchanges and Studies Committee (ISSES) existed, which was "established in 2000, in response to the need to formalise exchange agreements and discuss issues relating to internationalisation" (RU 2001a:26). The IQR (RU 2001a:26) also agreed that this committee's membership should be "reviewed and its brief extended to include all aspects of internationalisation".

Despite its good intentions and a thorough Internationalisation Quality Review, in 2001, RU had not established a fully-fledged international office. The rationale for this may be understood in the light of the Registrar's conclusive justification:

> When it is an international student, because we have so many international students, our admission office is geared to assist the students in obtaining, for example, their study visas. So we don't really need a special office to do that. The Admissions Office itself is small enough to handle that.
>
> When it comes to transport and special arrangements, we anyway meet all our students at the Port Elizabeth airport – any student returning has free transport from the PE airport to Grahamstown – and we take them back again at the end of the term. So again, we don't need special treatment for the international students. All our students are special at Rhodes.
>
> When it comes to higher degrees, research students, the research groups are very small anyway, so most of the students are on first name terms with the lecturers, they are invited to social occasions.
>
> You know when I travelled around the [United] States, they made a big thing about all the special services for the international students. When I look at

> Rhodes, that is how we live here. We don't need to provide all those special services (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

Student services at RU appear to be comprehensive for all students, local and international. This personalised service is possible due to the smallness of the RU. In addition, the setting up of an independent international office did not appear to be a priority in 2001 because all student services were rendered under one roof in the Student Bureau complex:

> Sometime ago we adopted the 'one-stop shop' concept. You see this building? Most students can find their needs there, other than special things like psychological services. But the staff down there are trained to handle just about any queries that the students can come up with. And if they need career assistance or curriculum assistance, there is a trained faculty advisor in the bureau to assist them (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

7.3.3 Some Challenges Faced by the International Student Office

Some of the unique characteristics of RU facilitate student integration on campus for both local and international students. These include the residential nature and small size of RU, as well as its student governance and mentoring system within and outside student residences. In addition to these support structures, the International Student Office offers additional services to occasional and short-stay students. This was explained by the Registrar:

> I don't think it [the presence of diverse groups] creates problems culturally. We have to make some accommodation, we have a variety of diets in our residence system, we have a lot of student societies. The other thing that works for us again [is] the smallness of Rhodes and its residential nature. The students are in small residences, the optimum size for those is around 60 to 70 students in a residence.
>
> Those students would be cared for, nurtured by a warden, sub-warden, senior student, and that is in the support base for all students, not just international students, and international students benefit from the normal process. Then in addition, we have the International Student Officer, Helen Pienaar, and she meets with a lot of those students to deal with particular problems that they have (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

It emerged during the student interviews (to be analysed in Chapter 12) that some tensions do exist between local black students and black students from other African countries. However, these tensions arise outside the lecture rooms and mainly concern social relations on campus. These tensions were inevitably exacerbated by the apartheid culture of South African students

who had been conditioned (by past legislation and social practice) not to mix with races or ethnic groups other than their own:

> I am told that such tensions exist…my knowledge of the students' social scene in that sense is, especially at my age, not particularly accurate.
>
> I am led to believe that there are some tensions, but from the perspective that I have seen in the classroom, they are not particularly bad, and you tend to find that students do group together, and they tend to work in their old-fashioned homogenous sort of way. The black students will work together, and the Indian students will work together, and the white students will work together and so on.
>
> But when they aren't doing that in a sort of a natural tendency, they do work with one another. This year, in my third year, I have had quite a number of groups where we have had whites and blacks working together. It sounds crude to say this sort of thing, but there don't seem to be any problems. They all seem to have got on very well, and I think as this country moves out of the old ways that we used to have, the stuff is happening fairly naturally…But yes, I think it is still true to say that the black students congregate together and work together.
>
> I am led to believe that there is a bit of tension with some of the local black students taking a bit of resentment to the black Zimbabwean students, and their attitudes come across simplistically to me, from what I have heard (Prof Terry Interview 5 October 2001).

7.3.4 International Exchange Agreements

Since the mid-1990s, a number of foreign universities have approached RU about student exchange agreements and several of these are in operation. However, with great foresight, RU has been very selective about its exchange agreements. This has been instituted in order to ensure that local students can also participate in exchange programmes[135], as elaborated by the Registrar:

> With the lifting of the academic boycott with the new South Africa, we have gone into exchange agreements, but we have been very cautious there, we don't just want to enter into agreements so we have got something on paper. We have insisted that they work, for example, we have flatly refused any exchange which does not exchange accommodation[136] as well. Because if our students have to pay in US dollars for accommodation, the thing is not going to work, so it is an equal agreement, in a sense in our favour at one level.

[135] As previously stated, the major direction of international student traffic has been an inward flow into South Africa.
[136] Lack of funds is the main factor preventing local students from participating in exchange programmes. Including accommodation costs as part of the exchange would alleviate this problem.

> And then we have taken on as many agreements as we can find exchange students. Now our exchanges are working, we are sending students across, and we are managing to keep the balance in sending as many students as we receive. But we are committed to that, we are committed to a few good exchanges rather than a sort of mass exchange agreement (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

The typical (incoming) exchange student is from North America – mainly the USA – and Europe and comes to RU as an occasional student for a semester study abroad programme. Courses taken at RU are credited to their degree programmes at their home institution (RU 2001a:13). In the period from 1997 to 2000, incoming occasional students totalled approximately 167. This number included both exchange as well as independent, fee-paying, study abroad students. Formal exchange programmes existed with institutions in Canada, the USA, the Netherlands, Finland, Germany, the UK and Australia (RU 2001a:21).

Rhodes was cognisant of the fact that its international linkages were strongest with developed countries, in particular, those in Europe, North America and Australasia. Therefore, RU had decided to consider increasing its linkages with other African countries (RU 2001a:25). This is a positive move, given RU's location on the African continent and its historic ties with the SADC region.

7.4 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Historically, RU has always had international students, especially from Southern African countries. As such their presence at RU has been accepted as a natural process.

> …as I say, at Rhodes, it is quite natural, which you are now making a fuss about and calling international students, we always had them (Prof Terry Interview 5 October 2001).

However, since the introduction of the democratic dispensation in South Africa, an interest from countries beyond SADC has been apparent:

> Certainly we are noticing an increase in number, although it is still not very big, of students from Kenya, Ghana, Nigeria and those sort of places, who want to come along and do undergraduate degrees as well (Prof Terry Interview 5 October 2001).

Some data on international students are examined in Sections 7.4.1 to 7.4.3

7.4.1 Numbers and Origin

Between 1996 and 2001, the total number of international students at RU grew from 648 to 1 429; in other words, the number of students more than doubled. As a proportion of total student enrolment, it grew from 13% to 24%[137]. The proportion of students from overseas increased phenomenally, by 15 times during this period. These data are shown in Table 12.

Table 12. Origin and Growth of International Studies at Rhodes University: 1996-2001

ORIGIN	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Zimbabwe[138]	475	545	595	621	623	663
Other African states	149	167	241	221	294	407
Overseas	24	71	82	361	346	359
Total international students	648	783	918	1203	1 263	1429
Total enrolment	4 911	4 948	5 370	5569	5 806	6 008
International students (% of total enrolment)	13	16	17	22	22	24

Sources: 1996 – 2000: Rhodes University, Academic Planning & Quality Assurance Office, Digest of Statistics, Version 5: 2001.
Compiled from data provided by the Registrar, Dr Fourie, on 5 October 2001.
Data represent both campuses.

In terms of proportional representation, the majority (75%) of the international students at Rhodes University originated from Africa, with 66% from the SADC. There were smaller proportions from Europe (16%) and the rest of the world. This is indicated in Table 13 overleaf.

7.4.2 Diversity

The student body at the Grahamstown campus "exhibits a high level of diversity in terms of geographic origin, socio-economic background, home language and cultural tradition. This diversity is viewed by RU as a campus strength, but it poses challenges at the teaching/learning interface and in terms of intercultural issues" (RU 2001a:8). Some student

[137] This figure was 27% at the Grahamstown campus (Dr S Fourie Interview 5 October 2001).
[138] Between 1997 and 2001, Zimbabwean students constituted 11% of all Rhodes students.

data below from the SADC, African countries beyond the SADC and other regions of the world illustrate this diversity.

Table 13. Origins of International Students at Rhodes in 2001

REGION	***N***	**%**
SADC	947	66
Other Africa	123	9
Africa total	1 070	75
Europe total	235	16
USA	23	2
Rest of the world	101	7
Total	1429	100

Source: Compiled from data provided by the Registrar, Dr Fourie, on 5 October 2001.
Above data are for both Grahamstown and East London Campuses.
Percentages are rounded off.

In 2001 Rhodes University was host to international students from 40 countries. *Within the SADC,* by far the majority (70%) of students originated from Zimbabwe. This was followed by much smaller proportions of 9% from Namibia; 3% from Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zambia; and even smaller proportions from other SADC countries, as shown in Table 14. The majority of the SADC students were Black. Similarly, the majority of Zimbabwean students were in fact Black although historically they were White 'Rhodesians'.

At the Grahamstown campus about half of the international students originated from Zimbabwe. The next largest group (20%) were from other African countries. Students from North America and Europe constituted the smallest group; however, this number has increased tenfold since 1996 – more than any other group (RU 2001a).

In accordance with the SADC (1997) Protocol, at least 5% of enrolments should be allocated to SADC students. However, for Rhodes University, this proportion is rather high at 16%, indicating strong historical ties with the region in particular Zimbabwe. As indicated in Table 14, Zimbabwean students constituted 11% of Rhodes students between 1997 and 2001. They are, in fact, regarded as 'local' students by the Rhodes community, as explained by Prof Terry:

> 15% of our students come from Zimbabwe, so what? We see this as the Southern end of Africa and it is very nice to have those people here and the cultural differences, or if you can call them that, are so slight that they are kind of honorary South Africans. At least that has been my opinion; they are just like the rest of our students (Prof Terry Interview 5 October 2001).

Table 14. Country of Origin and Race of SADC Students at Rhodes University in 2001

	Asian	Black	Coloured	White	Total	%
Angola	0	2	0	0	2	<1
Botswana	0	22	2	1	25	3
DRC	0	1	0	0	1	<1
Lesotho	0	31	0	1	32	3
Malawi	0	16	1	1	18	2
Mauritius	17	1	2	0	20	2
Mozambique	0	3	2	0	5	1
Namibia	1	57	13	13	83	9
Swaziland	0	20	4	0	24	3
Tanzania	2	16	1	0	19	2
Zambia	7	16	0	1	24	3
Zimbabwe	80	308	24	251	663	70
Total SADC	107	523	49	268	947	100

Source: Compiled from data provided by the registrar, 5 Oct 2001.
Above data are for both Grahamstown and East London Campuses.

A steady growth in the number of students from *African countries outside SADC* was noted:

> Certainly we are noticing an increase in number, although it is still not very big, of students from Kenya, Ghana, Nigeria and those sort of places, who want to come along and do undergraduate degrees as well (Prof Terry Interview 5 October 2001).

From African countries beyond the SADC, only four countries were represented. Three major sending countries were Kenya (40%), Uganda (35%), and Ghana (16%), which are Anglophone, Commonwealth member countries in East and West Africa. In addition, much smaller proportions (4%) were apparent from Francophone Cameroon. These trends, indicated in Table 15, reinforce previous trends which are attributable to colonial and language ties.

Table 15. Country of Origin of African International Students Outside the SADC at Rhodes University in 2001

COUNTRY	Total	%
Cameroon	5	4
Congo	1	1
Ghana	20	16
Kenya	49	40
Uganda	43	35
Other African Countries	5	4
Total	123	100

Source: Compiled from data provided by the Registrar, 5 Oct 2001.
Above data are for both Grahamstown and East London Campuses.

Rhodes University also hosted international students from outside the African continent. Within the developed world, major home countries for students attending Rhodes University were the UK (150) followed by the United States of America (23), Holland (13), France (12), Canada (12), Germany (11) and Ireland (10). The majority of United States' students came for short-term semester 'study abroad' programmes. This information is summarised in Table 16. Of interest are also small numbers from China (8) and India (22). These figures have the potential to grow in the future.

7.4.3 Level of Study

Most undergraduate international students studied Commerce, followed by the Humanities and Science. Slightly more females than males were present. In terms of race, most were Black, presumably from Africa. This is indicated in Table 17. In contrast, most postgraduate, international students studied Science, followed by Humanities and Education (Table 18). More males than females were present. Most were Black.

Table 16. Major Home Countries of Rhodes University's International Students from the Developed World

Country	Total
Canada	12
Denmark	2
France	12
Germany	11
Greece	4
Holland	13
Ireland	10
Italy	6
Poland	3
Portugal	6
Russia	1
Switzerland	4
UK	150
Europe[139]	234
USA	23
Total	257

Source: Compiled from data provided by the Registrar, 5 Oct 2001
Above data are for both Grahamstown and East London Campuses.

[139] The European countries are aggregated together for this table because very small numbers from each country are apparent.

Table 17. International, Undergraduate Students at Rhodes University by Faculty, Race and Gender in 2001

	Asian		Black		Coloured		White		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Humanities	6	13	33	65	3	11	56	98	98	187
Commerce	42	17	119	102	12	5	54	23	227	147
Education	0	0	28	22	0	0	2	1	30	23
Law	0	0	5	20	1	3	8	1	14	24
Pharmacy	7	17	16	35	2	1	1	2	26	55
Science	18	9	35	24	3	2	47	38	103	73
TOTAL	73	56	236	268	21	22	168	163	498	509

Source: Student Counts, Office of the Registrar, 5 Oct 2001.
Above data represent the Grahamstown Campus only. There were 46 international students registered at the East London Campus, 28 of whom were enrolled in Commerce.

Table 18. International, Post-Graduate Students at Rhodes University by Faculty, Race and Gender in 2001

	Asian		Black		Coloured		White		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Humanities	1	2	28	21	2	2	15	15	46	40
Commerce	2	1	11	5	1	1	7	7	21	14
Education	0	0	31	18	1	2	9	11	41	31
Law	0	1	2	3	0	0	0	2	2	6
Pharmacy	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Science	8	4	32	10	0	2	28	21	68	37
TOTAL	12	10	104	57	4	7	59	57	179	131

Source: Student Counts, Office of the Registrar, 5 Oct 2001.
Above data represent the Grahamstown Campus only. There were 7 international students registered at the East London Campus.

7.5 RATIONALES AND STRATEGIES

7.5.1 Rationales

Thus far, RU's rationale for internationalisation appears to have been broadly educational and cultural. The economic rationale has been insignificant. RU's attitudes towards international students are best summarised in the words of Prof Terry:

> [The advantages of having international students at Rhodes] are the same as I would imagine that you get from all sorts of other people that you would meet from all around the world. The fact that you are meeting people from other countries, other cultures and so on, can surely only enrich your experience.
>
> *The University is not entirely just about learning mathematics and computer science or philosophy or something. It is a whole set of life experiences that go with it.* I would hope that it helps international relations generally [emphasis added].
>
> If you have met students from India or somewhere and find that you get on with them, you are less likely to say, "Dreadful Indians!". We have got American students. There is probably some anti-American[140] feeling all around the world but if you actually know people from there and you discover that they are really ordinary people like yourself, I am sure that helps relieve international stress (Prof Terry Interview 5 October 2001).

In addition, the Registrar explains that internationalisation at Rhodes has thus far not been a means for income generation, but for educational and cultural enrichment:

> You see, in our situation, it's interesting. We need to look at 'Do we want to make money out of this internationalisation?' The answer so far has been 'No!' apart from a small levy. Even R1000 goes nowhere because the cost for international students are much higher [than for local students]. We haven't tried to make money at all.
>
> So basically, maybe the rationale for having had international students wasn't anything specific. It was in the history of the University and its character.
>
> And I think implicitly and not explicitly, [it] is not written down anywhere, but implicitly [it]is an acceptance of one of the nobler goals of internationalisation. That is it's part of the education for not only the international students coming here, but for our students to meet people from other cultures, to gain an insight into other ways of thinking, other perspectives on problems (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

[140] This statement was made a few weeks after the 9/11 El Qaida Attacks on the Twin Towers in New York city.

The above comments by the Registrar clearly indicate that RU, like Stellenbosch University, takes a broad, educational view of internationalisation. Neither of the two institutions views internationalisation primarily as an income generating activity, as is the case for UPE and to a lesser extent UCT. Instead, internationalisation at RU is perceived as an integral part of the mission of a university aspiring to academic excellence: it is subject to the scrutiny of peer institutions worldwide.

7.5.2 Strategies

In 2001, RU seemed to have no particular strategy to actively internationalise**,** either through aggressive marketing or seeking exchange agreements. In fact, the reverse is true; in other words, Rhodes' strategy was not to rush into internationalisation, but to take its time and go the internationalisation route very gradually. Given RU's history and international character since its early days, this is not hard to understand, as explained below by the Registrar:

> There are two things that we don't do: recruit internationally and sponsor international students or assist them in any way financially. Those are the two big 'No, No's' for us. Given our high percentage of international students, we would run into political trouble if we went on an international recruitment drive.
>
> One of the disadvantages of being small is we can't afford the kind of TV or even print advertising campaigns that WITS had last year, or I see that UCT has got this year. On the other hand, we don't need it either because this year, for the first time ever, we are going to probably end up saying 'We are full!' in Grahamstown, (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

7.6 CONCLUSION

In 2001, Rhodes University provided an anomalous case study of a South African university which had one of the highest proportions of international students for a residential university, despite the absence of either a formal policy on internationalisation or a dedicated international office. This is understandable given that its traditions, going back to its founding at the beginning of the 20th century, have always been international in character and in practice. Further, its emphasis on research and postgraduate development and its university-town atmosphere, small size, adoption of the Oxbridge tutorial model, efficient administrative set up, comprehensive service delivery, and residential character have made it appealing to both local and international students.

The Student Bureau acted as a 'one-stop shop' to assist all students, and no foreseeable need for an independent international office had been apparent. Two main reasons existed for this: efficient service delivery and capping of student growth. First, most of the functions normally carried out by an international office were decentralised and handled systematically by other organs of RU. Second, because the Grahamstown campus had reached its maximum residential capacity, RU was not intending to increase the number of undergraduate international students. Therefore, up until 2001, the two-member International Student Office was deemed an appropriate structure for the University.

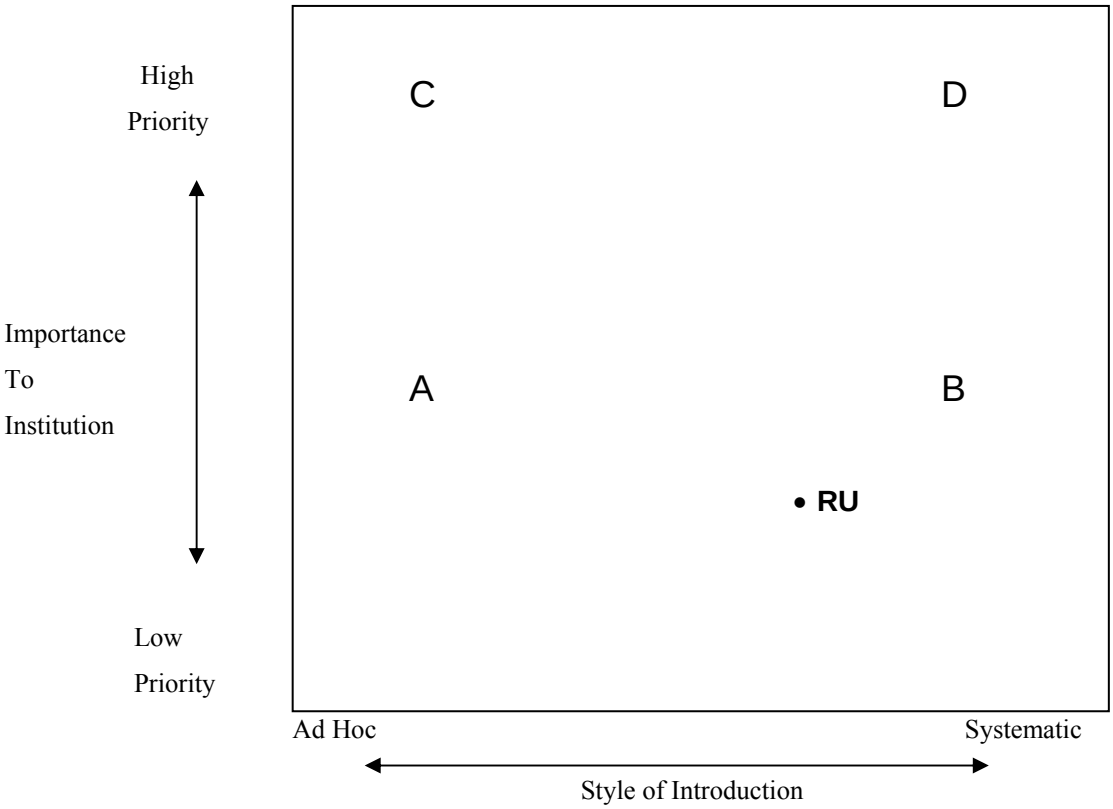
One may conclude that up until 2001, RU had adopted a process approach whereby internationalisation was infused or integrated implicitly into the major functions of the university. Its proactive response to internationalisation may best be referred to as selective engagement. The institution had evaluated its resources and on the basis of these, made a conscious decision to engage on a limited scale in internationalisation. Given its 'international' history and current status at full residential capacity, this managed response is understandable. In terms of the Davies model (1995) mentioned in Chapter 4, RU's approach to internationalisation is typical of an institution where,

> The amount of business is still relatively small, but is well organised and coordinated. Areas of international activity correspond with fields of internal strength and market opportunity… A small number of institutional agreements are meaningful and work. Supporting procedures are clear and relevant. Staff training is limited but related (Davies 1995:15).

RU's systematic but 'low priority' approach to internationalisation in 2001 is illustrated in Figure 12.

Since 2001, when this research was conducted, a number of developments at RU with respect to internationalisation have occurred. Despite the above status quo and perhaps having realised the need for a change of direction, the University Senate commissioned an Internationalisation Quality Review, which was undertaken in September 2001 in order to develop a coordinated internationalisation policy and strategy. After the IQR (RU 2001a) was discussed, Senate in 2002 established a subcommittee of the Quality Assurance Committee to develop a university policy on internationalisation and to propose an institutional structure.

Figure 12. Rhodes University's approach to internationalisation in 2001.



Source: Modified from Davies (1995, 2003).

Subsequently, in February 2004, RU appointed a part-time 'Dean: International Office' (Prof Marius Vermaak) to drive the process of internationalisation. This decision was followed by a University Bosberaad, or strategic planning retreat that was held in July 2004, and the Head of Department Workshop in September 2004.

These events culminated in the formulation of an internationalisation policy in February 2005 in terms of which the University committed "itself to internationalisation as a key element of quality in university teaching and research". Further, internationalisation at Rhodes is understood to operate "within the framework provided by policies, strategies and laws at the national system and sector level", including the SADC (1977) Protocol on Education and Training, and the IEASA (2000) Code of Ethical Practice, while "special attention is paid to developing relations with institutions in Africa" (RU 2005:2). The rationales given for

internationalisation are to maintain "academic quality, cultural diversity and staff development", because RU "does not view internationalisation as a source of income"[141].

These measures are likely to steer internationalisation efforts at RU in a more focused direction. In addition, they are likely to boost RU's profile from merely being a provincial university with international links to becoming an internationally acclaimed university located in Africa. Senate has given the responsibility to drive the internationalisation process to someone other than the Registrar whose portfolio is already very full, and this strategy will enhance the university's international profile by reaching out into the African continent in addition to maintaining links with partners in the developed countries. The appointment of an academic as Interim Dean: International Office will probably also enable the University to focus on the internationalisation of the curriculum, which would have broader benefits for the academic programme as a whole: "That is an area where Rhodes perhaps needs to do most of its work in the future" (Dr S Fourie Interview 4 October 2001).

[141] Refer to Rationales for Internationalisation at RU, Section 7.5.1.

CHAPTER 8
THE UNIVERSITY OF PORT ELIZABETH

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The University of Port Elizabeth (UPE) has by tradition been a provincial university, serving the needs of the impoverished Eastern Cape. However, in 2000[142], in an expansion of its role, UPE embarked on a programme of internationalisation. The main purpose was to recruit international students as a means of generating additional income. This desire to 'go global' is an important marker in its transformation from an originally conservative, Afrikaans institution to a more modern entity.

This chapter briefly traces the history of UPE from 1964 to its current status (as of 2005) as the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU). After an account of the inception and practices of the International Office in the first few years of its establishment, the international student profile is analysed. This is followed by an examination of UPE's rationales and strategies for internationalisation. The chapter concludes with some critical questions regarding future directions for internationalisation at UPE/NMMU.

8.2 HISTORY

UPE is located in the coastal city of Port Elizabeth, also known as the Nelson Mandela Metropole/Bay, located in the Eastern Cape province. Port Elizabeth is the fifth largest city in South Africa and is served by a harbour, airport, and road and rail networks. "The city is known for its historic buildings" that are associated with the 1820 settlers, "its pristine beaches, ecotourism attractions, and an industrial complex dominated by the automotive industry" and related manufacturers (UPE *s.a.*a:Location)[143].

UPE incorporated the Port Elizabeth branch of VISTA University in 2004 and merged with its neighbouring institution, the Port Elizabeth Technikon. As of 2005, the new institution

[142] This date is later than the inception of International Offices at both SU in 1993 and UCT in 1996.
[143] This publication has no title, publication date or page numbers. This could be evidence that at the time, marketing materials were produced under very tight time constraints and that neither time nor the human resources required to refine such marketing materials were available.

became known as the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) with a total enrolment of about 20 000 students. This is another phase in UPE's development and is taking place within the context of the national mergers discussed in Chapter 5.

UPE's history as a white institution is unique, especially with regard to transforming itself from an institution that supported the apartheid ideology to one that claims to be committed to a new, inclusive South Africa. Apartheid leaders created UPE in 1964 with a double purpose: "to provide an ideological home for white Afrikaners in the Eastern Cape and to incorporate white English speakers into a more liberal form of Afrikaner nationalism" (CHET 2001:19). Lectures began in March 1965 with the registration of 320 students, 18 professors, and 15 other academics (UPE *s.a.*a:Growth).

During the first three decades of its existence, UPE remained a small university. This led to the institution perceiving itself as vulnerable, which, in turn, led to a belief that its survival depended on continuing government approval of its mission and actions. As a consequence, UPE subscribed to the apartheid government's segregationist policies in higher education (CHET 2001). In 1974, UPE moved from Bird Street to its campus in Summerstrand, located in a nature reserve of about 700 hectares.

During these decades, UPE's overarching vision "was that of providing an intellectual home for a non-exclusionary form of Afrikaner nationalism" that was somewhat tolerant of white, English-speaking South Africans (20). So while UPE developed along similar lines to Afrikaans institutions such as the University of the Orange Free State, Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, and the Rand Afrikaans University, it was also different (20). The key differences were that UPE had a much larger group of English staff and students than other Afrikaans institution, and it was more prepared to hire non-conformist Afrikaans-speaking staff members. "Two consequences of this diversity were that UPE was never a monolithic institution and that contestations occurred at UPE much earlier than at Afrikaans Universities" (20).

"A consequence of UPE's espousal of 'white unity' was that by the end of the 1980s, only 8% of its student population were coloured or Indian and only 2% African" (21). In addition, the staff remained overwhelmingly white and male. However, after the political unrest and anti-

apartheid upheavals in PE and the Eastern Cape, UPE's activists began to realize in the 1990s that its survival depended on its ability to adapt to wider socio-political changes (21).

Because of UPE's subscription to apartheid ideology, a perception existed that its governance structures were illegitimate. Hence in the 1990s, a key focus of the transformation agenda at UPE became that of changing these structures, negotiating them out of existence, and replacing them with new structures. After a period of 'negotiated transformation', UPE claims that it was 'reborn' in 1997 with a new mission and strategic direction as a 'Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) university'; in other words, the university fully accepted the ANC government's RDP (21).

This was followed by a second phase that coincided with the policy process of the National Commission on Higher Education, and resulted in UPE "adopting some of the new proposals about curriculum restructuring even before the government published its higher education White Paper" (46). A third phase described as the 'efficiency transformation', or the need to reduce costs and to improve income flows, started in 1997 soon after the government abandoned the RDP and adopted the new Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) economic policy.

In the new millennium, in other words, post-2001, Cloete (in CHET 2001) argues that UPE has entered a fourth phase where the institution had turned the gauge of transformation from the government to globalisation. In this phase, the objective is to gain access to international markets as opposed to political legitimacy. This context involves the internal restructuring of the institution in order to respond to global trends in the demand for higher education. The driving agency is the International Office.

UPE has undergone a long process of transformation since its inception in 1964, and the next few years of this decade appear to be crucial in determining UPE's survival as a global institution. In the words of its first Black, female Chancellor, Dr Brigalia Bam:

> Transformation for the University of Port Elizabeth has meant reorientation to a university that would serve the whole population of its region. It would, itself, therefore become a democratic and multicultural university – a university for all (in CHET 2001:26).

In 2001, no *mission or vision* statements could be located in any official UPE publications: "UPE is currently working to redefine its mission and strategic direction in response to the new National Plan for Higher Education" (UPE *s.a.*a: Inside front cover). Apparently, the institution was still dealing with major change, especially in preparation for the incorporation of the VISTA campus and the merger with the Port Elizabeth Technikon. The new mission and vision statements for the merged NMMU were released later, towards the end of 2004.

The NMMU was to declare its vision as a "values-driven university to be the leader in optimising the potential" of its "communities towards sustainable development in Africa" (NMMU 2006:7). Its mission is to become "an engaged and people-centred university that serves the needs of its diverse communities by contributing to sustainable development through excellent academic programmes, research and service delivery" (7). "Inspired by the leadership qualities of Nelson Mandela in the transformation to democracy in South Africa", the NMMU is guided by the following eight core values and principles: transformation for equity and fairness, respect for diversity, people-centeredness, student access, engagement, excellence, innovation, and integrity (7). These are idealistic statements, and it remains to be seen to what extent the NMMU will become "an engaged and people-centred university that serves the needs of its diverse communities" (7), in particular due to the many challenges faced by the International Office in terms of service delivery to students. The inception and role of the International Office are analysed in the next section.

8.3 INTERNATIONAL OFFICE

8.3.1 Inception

The development of the internationalisation process at UPE illustrates the many factors and role players who have influenced its strategy to 'go global'. The decision to establish an International Office at UPE was taken by the University Council in March 2000. Towards this goal, a loan amount of R1 million was allocated by the University Council. A document was drawn up justifying the rationale for setting up the International Office and its initial staff composition. The International Office was set up in 2000 with a loan on the premise that, in addition to being self-supporting, it would generate a second stream of income for the university. In its first three years of inception, not only was the International Office self-supporting, but in addition, it generated a major profit. Its financial viability endeared it to the

university management and gave it the financial muscle to operate relatively independently. This had both positive and negative consequences. On the positive side, the International Office was able to pursue and implement other decisions which, although not necessarily academically viable, were nonetheless sustainable and profitable from a financial angle. For example, while inadequate accommodation existed for local students, additional accommodation was sought for international students.

On the downside, this financial independence resulted in the International Office operating independently, as an appendage rather than an integral part of UPE. Because it did not need (financial) support from UPE, the International Office was able to disregard existing university policy in many respects and practice and operate on its own terms, sometimes like a university within a university.

In addition, if one evaluates UPE's earlier exchange agreements with foreign partners, no logic for their adoption was apparent[144]. The only trend which emerged was that these agreements were entered into at the invitation of the foreign partners on a very *ad hoc* basis. In the absence of a sound internationalisation policy, *ad hoc* agreements may have been inevitable at the time when the International Office was new and still developing. Further, given that the International Office was trying to prove its (financial) viability in the first three-year phase of its inception, quality of service and systematic planning for the formation of partnerships and exchange agreements were difficult to achieve and may have been neglected in favour of quantity, the accruing of revenue generated from international student fees, and the reliance on agents for the recruitment of students. Needless to say, not all of the agents were motivated by the well-being of the international students coming to UPE, or that of the university. Many students coming from the Far East and East Africa were very disgruntled after their arrival at UPE when they discovered a mismatch[145] between what they had been promised by the recruitment agent and what was actually available in Port Elizabeth and at UPE.

[144] For example, in 2001, UPE had student exchange agreements with two US Universities, both in the same city in the State of Minnesota. The rationales for adopting these agreements were not clear. Possibly they were entered into by the previous Vice Chancellor before the International Office was set up. However, even after the International Office was set up, it took a long time before any systematic strategy was conceived. Only three years after the inception of the International Office did an internationalisation policy began to emerge that focused on East and Central Africa as areas of growth and student recruitment of degree-seeking students.
[145] I found out about these happenings through my personal interaction with students while I was employed at the International Office between 2002 and 2004.

8.3.2 Founding Philosophy

At the time of this research, UPE had no internationalisation policy statement[146], although it had made a conscious decision to establish a market-driven International Office. With respect to the founding philosophy of the International Office, two versions exist: the official version which was very much in tune with the times; and the unofficial, but perhaps more accurate, version.

UPE's official view is best summarised below in a marketing booklet (UPE, *s.a.*a: International relations)

> Driven by the globalisation of economies, labour markets, knowledge and information, the internationalisation of higher education world-wide is taking place rapidly. Graduates who have intercultural understanding and knowledge of global trends and international affairs will become increasingly valuable in the job market; while international collaboration aids higher education in fulfilling its role as an agent of information driven and knowledge-based sustainable development. The presence of students from other countries on campus is enriching both for them and for local students, and contributes to a diversity of views and cultural values both in and outside the classroom.
>
> Against this background, UPE has expanded its internationalisation drive with the establishment of a fully-fledged International Office that will recruit and provide support services to students from outside South Africa's borders, and facilitate student and staff exchange programmes between UPE and other institutions world-wide.

The unofficial version (which came across mainly in interviews) was not recorded in any formal documents. According to this view, the International Office was to be self-sustaining and generate a second stream of income for the institution. Thus the International Office was based first and foremost on a spirit of entrepreneurship. In the words of the Director of the International Office, Dr N Jooste,

> We need to look at the philosophy behind [setting up] the International Office. The [founding] document laid down that the International Office should be a self-funding office and should be used also to create a second stream of income for the university.

[146] This policy statement (UPE *s.a.*b) could not be analysed in this research as it was released after the due date for data gathering and analysis. Its publication is further evidence that the internationalisation of South African higher education is a process in its early stages and is still unfolding. Similar to UPE, other South African higher education institutions in the process of internationalisation are in the phase of policy formulation. As shall be seen in the forthcoming chapters, UCT and SU already had internationalisation policies.

> So taking that into account, the [International] Office has to run as a business, so all decisions here are taken along business lines, not purely for the sake of having an International Office that renders pure service… On a campus like UPE, we need to create a second stream of income (Interview Dr N Jooste 20 June 2001).

Secondly, the International Office intended that a by-product of the extra income generated by international students would be some social benefits for local students, such as funding for outgoing exchange students:

> If you ask me whether I think it is good or bad, I can't comment at this stage. I think institutions need both, that you need to have a good mix in an office where you run it according to business principles and create a source of income, but there is also a social responsibility on an international office, social towards students, staff and visitors. So if you have a strong enough international student body that creates income for you, you can actually fund the social part which the university benefits from.
>
> On a campus like UPE, we need a second steam of income. How we spend the money is the next issue. I am sure a part of it will be spent on funding disadvantaged students to travel and be part of the exchange programmes. I think it would be a politically unbearable situation if we don't do that (Interview Dr N Jooste 20 June 2001).

It seems evident that the International Office was and is more driven by money than the desire to internationalise in a genuine way seems abundantly clear, although the latter may be an intention of the institution at large.

8.3.3 Structure and Management Hierarchy

UPE's international profile started to develop gradually in 2000 during the term of office of Prof Andre Havenga, the Director of the Centre for Organisational and Academic Development (COAD). At this stage, no International Office existed as such. Dr Nico Jooste, the first Director of the newly established International Office, began to market UPE aggressively. This is confirmed in a UPE marketing booklet, "The University has recently embarked on a focused internationalisation drive to increase the diversity of the learner population" (UPE *s.a.*a: Inside front cover).

However, contrary to the claim in this statement that the recruitment drive was aimed at increasing student diversity, evidence exists (from the interviews with Dr Jooste) that the

International Office was set up primarily to generate a second stream of income for UPE. Thus the rationale for internationalisation at UPE was mainly economic. Claims about cultural/educational rationales were secondary to motives.

The Director of the International Office was appointed in July 2000 and approved by the executive management of UPE. Subsequent to his appointment, other staff members were appointed under his direction. These included three managers and three assistants. The managers were allocated for Marketing and Finance, Student Administration, and Linkages and Exchanges. The last position was vacant at the time of conducting this research in 2001. The assistants included two general office assistants and an assistant to the Student Administration Manager. One of the General Assistants was also the Personal Assistant to the Director.

The staffing structure of the UPE International Office in 2001 is illustrated in the organogram in Figure 13 below. This structure[147] seemed to be adequate for a new International Office housed in a relatively small institution. One advantage of this structure for the International Office was that it gave the Director direct access to the Vice Chancellor and, presumably, access to power. As shall be seen in later chapters, UCT and SU, both larger and older institutions, had much more elaborate organograms, having commenced their internationalisation activities long before UPE.

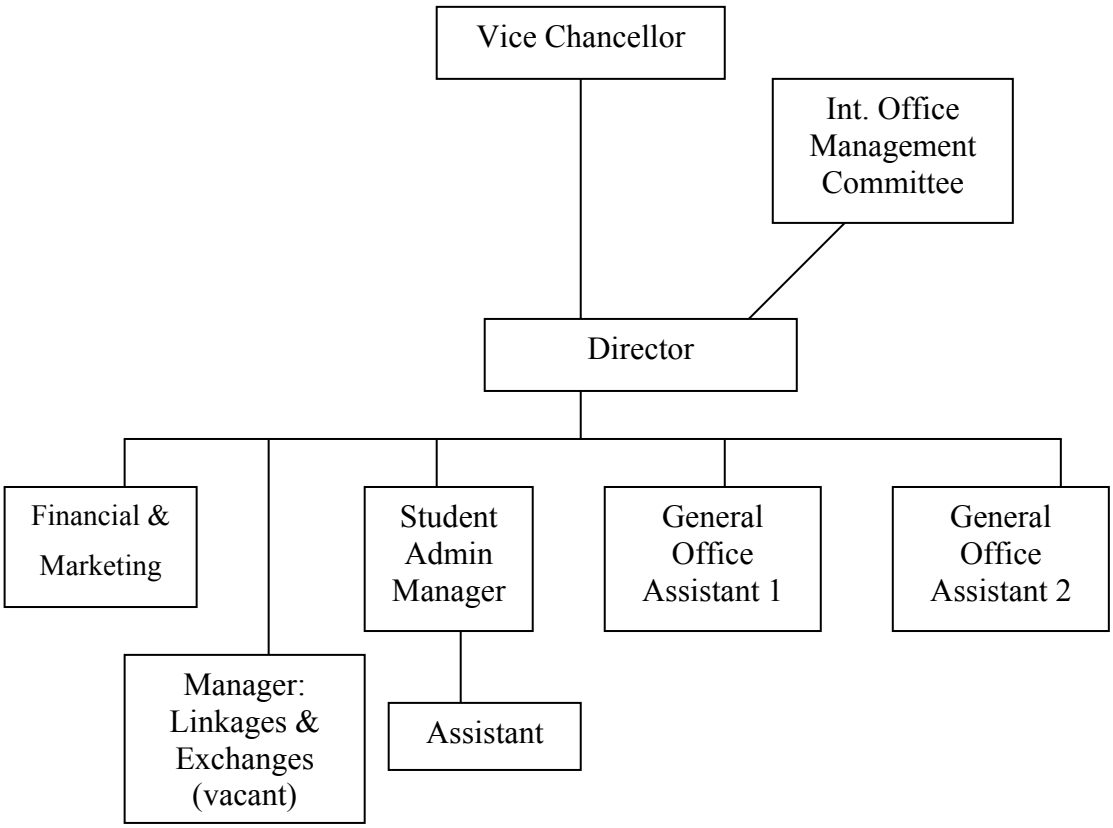
The International Office Management Committee, to which the Director reported in 2001, comprised the Vice Chancellor, the Chairman of Council, the Director of Finance, the Director of the Centre for Academic Development, one Senior Dean, the Dean of Students, two members of Senate, and the Registrar.

Judging by the high-profile membership of the Management Committee, the reporting line of the International Office Director, and the founding philosophy of the International Office, it was evident that the International Office occupied a high profile position at UPE. In terms of the Davies model[148] (1995), internationalisation was thus a "high priority" at UPE. However,

[147] The 2005 organogram indicates the expansion of human resources in the International Office, mainly due to a rapid increase in international student numbers. In addition, in terms of lines of command, the Director is now required to report to the Deputy Vice Chancellor: Research, Technology and Planning.
[148] As outlined in Chapters 2 and 4.

it was still early days, and in 2001, internationalisation was being implemented in an *ad hoc* and haphazard manner although the process became more systematic later.

Figure 13. University of Port Elizabeth International Office organogram in 2001.



Source: Based on interview with Dr N Jooste, the Director, 20 June 2001 at UPE.

8.3.4 Role of the International Office

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, at the time this research was being conducted in 2001, UPE had no internationalisation policy statement. What follows in this section is a discussion of a document which closely resembled a policy statement although in places it resembled a manual. This was released by the International Office in October 2001 in the UPE Bulletin (10 October 2001a:9).

As expressed in this document, since its inception in 2000, the International Office had taken on a number of challenges that included strategic planning and policy development, international student administration, international student fees policy and collection, marketing and recruitment, international twinning/collaboration agreements, and servicing

visiting international staff and post-doctoral fellows. In 2001, some of these tasks and roles had been addressed, whereas others were still unfolding. As they are outlined below, the challenges provide a fair impression of how much the UPE International Office had achieved just one year after its inception. This document may explain why the UPE International Office had managed to prove itself financially and convince the UPE management that internationalisation of the university was responding to a market need. In being strongly market-driven, UPE differs significantly from other South African institutions such as UFH and SU.

With respect to strategic planning and policy development, the International Office had worked closely with senior management to undertake new international initiatives that aimed to develop a university-wide globalisation and internationalisation policy. Further, it had established a tuition fee policy for international students and developed a staffing structure for the International Office. Regarding student administration, the aim of the International Office was to provide a 'one-stop information/service shop' for international students, from initial enquiries to completion of the course of study. Activities included, but were not limited to, providing pre-arrival information, including immigration requirements; working with academic departments to admit and register students; orientating students upon their arrival; and providing academic transcripts for work completed at UPE.

The International Office had pursued an aggressive marketing strategy with a view to recruiting fee-paying study abroad students from Europe and North America and was seeking to establish links with potential partners abroad. As part of its internationalisation policy, the International Office also provided support for visiting academics.

8.3.5 International Co-operation and Partnership

In 2001, UPE had 12 to 14 agreements for links with other universities. These were mainly formed with European and US-based universities. The European links included agreements with the Universities of Mainz and Oldenburg in Germany; the Vrije University in Amsterdam, Holland; Kingston University in the UK; two institutions in Belgium; and Gothenburg University in Sweden. The two US links were in the State of Minnesota. By far

the most effective and active student 'exchange' agreement[149] was with the two universities in the State of Minnesota in the USA, namely, the Saint Cloud State University and the Colleges of Saint John's and Saint Benedict's, all three of which are located in the city of Saint Cloud. The two latter colleges, which comprise one institution, send about 40 students per year to UPE for a study abroad programme, but this number is likely to increase to about 50 per year.

However, Dr Jooste was of the opinion that UPE's cooperation agreements needed to shift focus from Europe to Africa and Asia:

> If you look at our linkages, they are very European-focused, and it is one of my visions to make sure that our linkages are not just European-focused. We would definitely look towards Africa. It is not from a neo-colonialist or opportunistic outlook, but I do think South Africa is the hope of Africa as far as connecting Africa to the rest of the world. That is the one, and then I think we are totally absent in Asia. We would probably establish links with Malaysia and from there develop the Asian link (Interview Dr N Jooste Interview 20 June 2001).

8.4 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

8.4.1 Numbers, Origin and Diversity

According to one estimate[150], in 2001, 420 full-time international students were enrolled at UPE. Most of these were at UPE for a year or longer, as in the case of those enrolled for a full degree programme. About 80 of them were occasional students who would be there for at least one semester. In 2001, the majority (250 or 60%) of UPE's international students were from Africa, mainly the SADC, and the remaining students were from Europe and the USA. These data are indicated in Table 19. In that year, UPE had a large intake of 100 Batswana[151] students who made up 40% of the African international student population. Other African students originated from Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Kenya, Uganda, Ghana, and so forth.

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[149] This was not really an equal exchange in terms of student numbers because more incoming US students than outgoing local students were apparent. However, typically in South African universities, outgoing student exchange is very limited due to the high costs and exchange rates.

[150] Two different enrolment figures for 2001 were provided by the UPE International Office in 2001 and 2004 respectively. This indicates that no proper Management Information Service existed either within the International Office or UPE as a whole. This may be attributed to the lack of capacity within the International Office and UPE. Another estimate given by the UPE International Office for the 2001 enrolment was "over 500 students, which was about 8%" of the total enrolment at UPE (UPE 2001b, p.1). One may therefore estimate the international student numbers to be about 450 for 2001.

[151] Setswana-speaking people or citizens of Botswana are known as Batswana.

No data was available from UPE regarding the disaggregation of international students by country of origin at the time.

In accordance with the SADC Protocol (1997), UPE had reserved 10% of student enrolments for SADC students. Within the next three years (2002–2005), UPE aimed to increase its international student quota to between 15–18% of the total enrolment (Dr Jooste Interview 20 June 2001). In 2001, this figure was about 6%[152].

8.4.2 Catering for the Needs of Students from Diverse Backgrounds

In addressing the needs of international students, UPE has adopted a foundation or 'Advancement Programme' which is compulsory for all 'at risk' students. For example, one of its components is the introduction of intensive English-language programmes for international students, and among these 'at risk' students were a group of Israeli students with their own language requirements. In addition to the above, UPE had embarked on a strong marketing drive to recruit more international students by making use of the Internet or e-recruitment as well as more direct face-to-face marketing through the use of recruitment agents in African countries where internet connectivity is not widespread, for example Rwanda and Indian Ocean Islands.

The International Office did not have the resources to deal with the issues of social integration and accommodation at the time. For any internationalisation policy to be a success, issues of student integration outside the lecture room should be addressed as part of a campus-wide strategy. Consequently, in 2002, an International Student Society was formed. However, the role of the International Office in its formation could not be confirmed because the society is a sub-structure of the Student Representative Council.

[152] International students grew from 980 in 2004 to 1 300 in 2005. This constitutes 6.7% of the 19 288 students registered at NMMU in March 2005 (Talk@NMMU. March 2005).

Table 19. International Students by Faculty at the University of Port Elizabeth in 2001[153]

Faculty	Students
Economic & Building Sciences	154
Arts	63
Science	78
Health	57
Law	22
Education	5
Occasional	5
TOTAL	384

Source: UPE International Office, 2001.

8.5 RATIONALES AND STRATEGIES

8.5.1 Rationales

Contrary to statements in official university documents that UPE's main rationales for internationalisation are educational and cultural, the economic rationale has been the primary motive behind the drive to internationalise at UPE. For example, a marketing booklet (UPE *s.a.*a) claimed that,

> The University has recently embarked on a focused internationalisation drive to increase the diversity of the learner population (Inside front cover)…. The presence of students from other countries on campus is enriching both for them and for local students, and contributes to a diversity of views and cultural values both in and outside the classroom (International relations).

Elsewhere (UPE 2001b, p.1), it is also stated that,

> UPE is becoming increasingly cosmopolitan as more foreign students enrol at the University. South African students get the benefit of making friends from all over the world and an "international" study experience without leaving home!

[153] These figures were generated in February 2004 and were not available in 2001. The fact that these figures do not tally with the figure of 420 provided to me in 2001 could be an indication of the lack of a proper Management Information Services at UPE at the time.

Dr Nico Jooste said: "Now South African students don't need to go abroad to get an international learning experience. Even based in Port Elizabeth they can build contacts with international students and enhance their global networking opportunities" (Interview 20 June 2001). While some truth to this statement is apparent, it is just as important for South African students to have a study abroad experience as recruiting students from overseas. Apartheid has left deep racial scars on South African population groups that are not easily overcome. Exposure to the international community beyond South Africa can contribute towards overcoming racial barriers and students becoming part of a global community.

From my experience of working[154] with international students at UPE, I know that integration with local students is still a challenge for several reasons. International students have few opportunities to meet local students beyond meeting in lectures. Even then, local students appear to be very hesitant to make friends with international students. In addition, few organised events exist that would provide opportunities for local and international students to meet socially. However, the lack of integration of local and international students is a problem common to other South African universities and will be explored in Chapter 12.

Further, UPE student-life is not as campus-based as is the case for Rhodes University. Only a minority of white students reside on campus in residence halls. The majority of UPE students, local and international, commute to the campus and live off-campus. Furthermore, the short-stay occasional students from Europe and North America who are considered to provide global networking opportunities for local students are financially well-off and usually travel out of Port Elizabeth on weekends, thus minimising their opportunities to come to know local students. In the absence of opportunities for international students to integrate on campus, the extent of the "internationalisation-at-home" experience claimed by the International Office above remains questionable.

Evidence that the International Office was set up primarily to generate a second stream of income for the university was outlined above. Thus the rationale for internationalisation at UPE was mainly economic and much less cultural/educational.

[154] I was employed at the UPE International Office from 2002 to 2004 as Exchange and Study Abroad Advisor and therefore found out about these challenges through interaction with students.

8.5.2 Strategies

In Chapter 2, two major institutional strategies for internationalisation were distinguished by Knight and De Wit (1995b): programme strategies refer to those academic activities and services of an institution which integrate an international dimension into the main functions of the institution; and organisational strategies are those activities which develop an international dimension through appropriate policies and administrative systems.

In 2001, it was observed that UPE had neither programme nor organisational strategies aimed at internationalisation. Its efforts may best be summarised as *ad hoc* student recruitment, opening its doors to whoever knocked on them. The main thrust was to grow international student numbers in order to prove the financial viability of the office. Once this had been established, the International Office started to focus on a more planned strategy. Further, it became more selective about international student admissions.

UPE had proposed four strategies to internationalise: establish links, especially with countries outside Europe and the USA; increase international student enrolments so as to internationalise or diversify the student body; enable local students to participate in study abroad programmes within UPE, in other words, without international travel[155]; and internationalise knowledge production/the curriculum by course exchange through visiting academics to and from UPE. However, these were coming into effect very gradually. In the first phase of its inception, the International Office was mainly trying to prove its financial viability and its survival. Only once that had been proven could the International Office focus on more creative strategies and solutions.

From the above, it is evident that a strategy targeted at individuals has an impact on both the organisational and educational aspects of the higher education institution. Thus, student mobility is considered a means of achieving institutional change and diversity (Baumgratz-Gangl 1995). The individual mobility strategies which have tended to focus on increasing the mobility of students have been expanded into broader approaches to internationalisation.

[155] Although UPE has an international student population of about 980 in 2004 (Talk@NMMU, March 2005), the number of outgoing exchange students remains very small at about 20 per annum. In the absence of opportunities to study abroad, internationalisation is a dream come true for incoming students but only a dream for local students.

Thus, UPE's strategies aimed to introduce an international dimension into the main curriculum even for local students who would not be mobile. This 'internationalisation-at-home' suggestion was an innovative way of looking at internationalisation because the majority of South African students who cannot afford to travel overseas due to the unfavourable exchange rate would still be able to gain an international experience. However, this ideal is far from being attained. Very little attempt to make the curriculum more international in content is apparent, for example, by developing coherent curricula in regional and language studies.

8.6 CONCLUSION

In 2001, UPE's approach to internationalisation was rather unsystematic and marginal, but highly innovative, adaptive and entrepreneurial. This institutional approach is illustrated in Figure 14 on the Davies (1995) model which was discussed in Chapters 2 and 4.

UPE's approach in 2001 highlights many of the characteristics typical of institutions having an *ad hoc*, high priority approach to internationalisation:

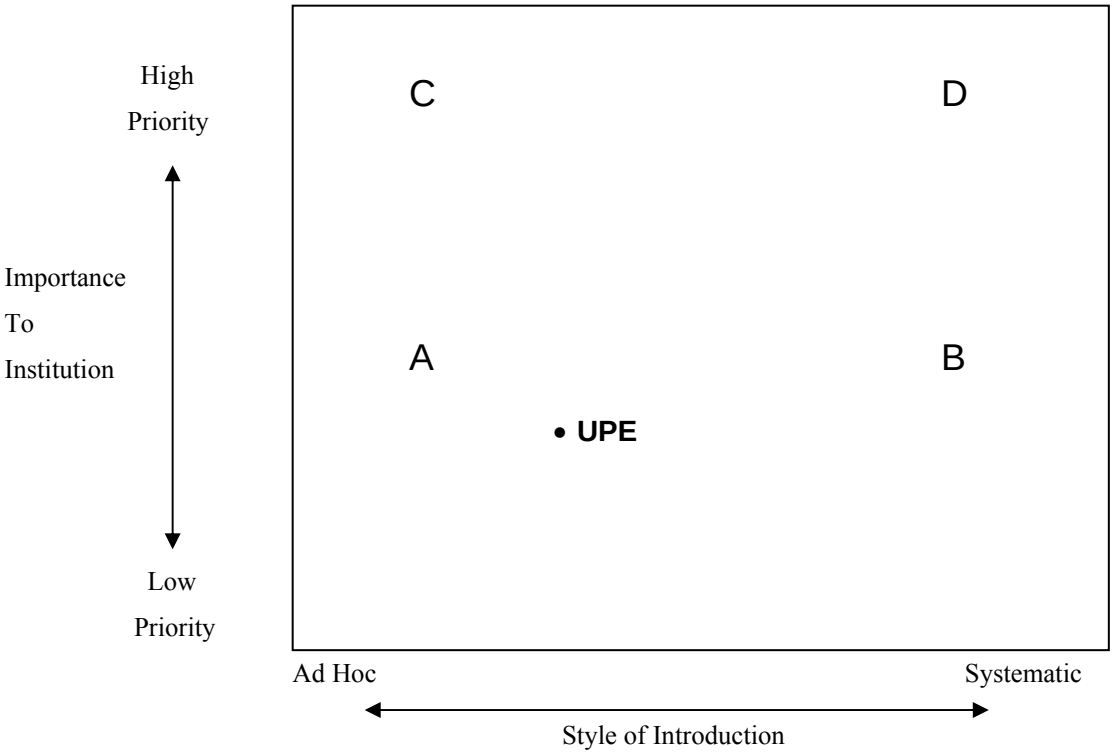
> The amount of international business is considerable across a number of different categories and a wide range of market segments and client groups. Whereas there may be some strong areas, marketing is usually ill-focussed. Curriculum may not be particularly geared to international issues in any coordinated way. Acceptance of projects is usually on a knee-jerk basis. There is a tendency for a sizeable number of institutional agreements, many of which are not operational but largely rhetorical. Central marketeers often generate business which faculties and individuals resent and reject, but the financial imperative is strong. Tensions are rife. Support services are often not geared to considerable international effort and ground rules change with bewildering rapidity. Quality control is haphazard and often related to periods of crisis in international projects (Davies 1995:15).

Davies (1995:16) notes that "if the external pressures towards international entrepreneurialism are strong and finances precarious, speedy development will usually ensue, resulting in all sorts of corners being cut". In this case, movement to Section C usually follows. This observation appeared to be true in the case of UPE at the time of the research.

In 2001 UPE's response was to the broader process of globalisation. It had identified changes not only in the global economy and the network society, but also, the emerging marketisation of the university. Therefore, UPE had seen an opportunity in internationalisation and had

decided to set up structures and mechanisms not only to deal with the student influx, but also, to increase it further. This was with a view to both generating income and increasing diversity in the institution. In other words, UPE had decided to engage with internationalisation and therefore set up an office to deal with the rising tide of international student traffic. It must be noted that this student traffic is mainly incoming, and thus opportunities for local students to go overseas are still very marginal. However, this is also true of other South African universities.

Figure 14. The University of Port Elizabeth's approach to internationalisation in 2001.



Source: Modified from Davies (1995, 2003).

Undoubtedly, an additional factor which has been to UPE's advantage is its location in Port Elizabeth, which enjoys a moderate climate all year round, has relatively low reported crime rates, has scenic beauty as a port city, is a large tourist centre with many amenities including access to air and road transport, has a relatively lower cost of living, has a major recreational centre for water-sports, and is the gateway to the Garden Route.

Given its appeal to international students, in 2001, UPE aimed at student recruitment in order to raise the international student proportion from 6% to 15-18% by 2004. Thus, UPE is a case

of an adaptive, entrepreneurial institution which has maximised the advantages of its natural setting, albeit without having all the adequate services in place. The International Office had become a profit-generating centre, and in the foreseeable future, the economic rationale is likely to dominate the internationalisation agenda at UPE/NMMU. However, the adoption of a rigorous entrepreneurial model could be at the expense of quality. In this respect, Davies' observation is particularly apposite:

> Philosophical commitment and the concepts of customer care which inform the Total Quality Management movement are absolutely compatible and consistent. One would hope that internationalism would be as irreversible from a mission and belief standpoint as it appears to be becoming from a financial standpoint (Davies 1995:17).

The importance of having the support of academic staff in doing strategic planning cannot be overstated. Perhaps this is another area in which the International Office needs to grow. Closer collaboration and consultation with faculty would assist the International Office to become more integrated within the university rather than operating as an independent profit-generating entity to the institution as it is at present. Closer collaboration with community leaders, tourism and industry, for example, the motor manufacturing companies in and around Port Elizabeth, could also be beneficial in securing scholarships for outgoing exchange students. In addition, a desperate need for long-term strategic planning by the International Office exists, although that may be rather difficult in the fluidity of the post-merger context.

Since this case study was completed in 2001, the UPE International Office has made enormous progress. The International Office of the newly merged and much larger NMMU is known as the Office for International Education and has a much larger staff complement to match the growth in international student numbers which was approximately 1800 in 2006. This constitutes about 10% of total student enrolment. The Office has consolidated its activities and strategies and has become more selective in its choice of partner institutions. Research partnerships have been consolidated with mainly European institutions of higher education, for example in Germany. Simultaneously partnerships with East African institutions, such as Makerere University in Uganda and Kenyatta University in Kenya, have been strengthened and student recruitment from East Africa has also increased. Apart from its ideal location in a coastal (holiday) town which enjoys a moderate climate nearly all year round, the University's new name as the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University could act as an additional draw card to attract international students and visiting academics. Whether

the Office for International Education can provide the quality of service expected from an institution which bears the name of a former president and Nobel Prize laureate, remains to be seen.

CHAPTER 9

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY: "YOUR KNOWLEDGE PARTNER"?[156]

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a case study of Stellenbosch University (SU). To begin with, a brief history of the university is given as background to the SU (2000b) Strategic Framework (SF) that approved in 2000. Among the salient features of the framework that are highlighted are the attention given to the realities of a changing environment, the university's values, the need for a new vision and mission, and finally, the strategic focus areas.

Next, the International Office is explored in terms of its inception, organogram, management hierarchy, budget, and projected growth. This is followed by a statistical analysis of the international student profile, including their numbers, origin and diversity. In addition, the chapter outlines rationales for internationalisation at SU. The chapter concludes with SU's response to and future directions for internationalisation. Although the account below was in the context of 2001, it has been updated wherever possible.

9.2 HISTORY AND STUDENT PROFILE

The picturesque town of Stellenbosch is set amongst the mountains of Jonkershoek Valley in a wine-producing region about 50 km from the city of Cape Town. It is a modern centre of agriculture, commerce and education with an Afrikaans heritage. Stellenbosch is the home of the oldest Afrikaans university that is also the second oldest university in South Africa. The history of the university dates back to the opening of the Stellenbosch Gymnasium in 1866. Out of the Gymnasium the "Arts Department" was established, and it became the "Stellenbosch College" in 1881. This name was changed to "Victoria College" in 1887, the jubilee year of Queen Victoria's reign. The Victoria College, in turn, acquired university status in 1918 and became the University of Stellenbosch (Living Stellenbosch: Study Abroad in South Africa, *s.a.*).

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[156] SU Logo

The university has three satellite campuses. The Tygerberg Campus houses the Faculty of Health Sciences. The Bellville Park Campus houses the Graduate School of Business and the School for Public Management. The campus at Saldanha houses the Faculty of Military Science (SU 2002).

From 500 students and 39 teachers in 1918, SU has grown to more than 22 000 students (Table 20), over 800 teachers, 150 departments in 11 faculties and some 50 research and service bodies. SU has close links with a range of foreign academic institutions (*ibid.*). In 2001, more than two-thirds of its student enrolment was White (Table 21).

Table 20. Total Student Enrolment at Stellenbosch University: 1999-2001

	1999	2000	2001
On-campus students	19 188	21 756	22 713
Distance education	1 851	3 666	3 982

Source: SU International Office (2001).

Table 21. Total Student Enrolment at Stellenbosch University by Race: 1999-2001

	1999		2000		2001	
	N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%
White	14 415	75,1	14 869	68,3	15 196	66,9
Black	2 366	12,3	4 300	19,8	4 768	21,0
Coloured	2 063	10,8	2 175	10,0	2 358	10,4
Indian	344	1,8	412	1,9	391	1,7

Source: SU International Office (2001).

The medium of instruction in undergraduate and honours programmes at the university is predominantly Afrikaans (Table 22), given that over half the student population are native Afrikaans speakers. This group includes Whites, Coloureds and some Blacks. Students are free, however, to write their assignments, tests and exams in either English of Afrikaans. In postgraduate programmes, the language of instruction depends on the make-up of the class. In most of the advanced postgraduate programmes, the language of communication is English (*ibid.*).

Table 22. Home Language of Stellenbosch University Students: 1999-2000

Language	1999	2000
Afrikaans	58,25 %	53,77 %
English	29,55 %	25,13 %
English/ Afrikaans	1,91 %	1,75 %
Other African	7,09 %	16,78 %
Others	3,19 %	2,57 %

Source: SU International Office (2001).
The 2001 breakdown was not available.

SU has among South Africa's highest proportions of postgraduate students. Of the roughly 22 700 students registered in 2001, just over one third were postgraduates (Table 23). Of these postgraduate students, some 8% were international visitors (*ibid.*).

Table 23. Stellenbosch University Postgraduate Enrolment: 1999-2001

	1999	2000	2001
Number	6 280	8 347	8 128
%	32,7	38,3	35,8

Source: SU International Office (2001).

In addition to a well-established International Office, the International Students' Organisation of Stellenbosch (ISOS) provides support and facilitation for international students.

9.3 STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK

SU prides itself on being a proactive institution, "changing with change" (SU 2000c). Faced with changing student demographics and the transforming South African higher education landscape, SU claims to have recreated itself in a new mould. As stated by Prof Andreas van Wyk, the Rector and Vice-Chancellor at the time:

> We must play our part in reconstructing our country; and we must remain relevant in the global arena. An unprecedented rate of change requires that we too continue changing. Accordingly Stellenbosch University embarked on an extensive assessment of its markets, its offering, and its landscape (SU 2000c:3).

A comprehensive consultation and participation process was initiated in 1999 that led to the adoption of the strategic framework in March 2000. The framework (SU *s.a.*) offers a basis for a university that is "vision driven"; that "has committed itself to universal values"; that is "relevant as a university in South Africa and in the world of the 21st Century"; and that wants to "redesign its core processes, structures, infrastructure and institutional culture". Further, the framework upholds the *values* of equity, participation, transparency, readiness to serve, tolerance and mutual respect, dedication, scholarship, responsibility and academic freedom (SU 2000b:10).

The Strategic Framework (SU 2000b:5) has identified five major forces – both national and international in origin – that cannot be ignored. These are the information and knowledge revolution; increasing internationalisation, which promotes the worldwide mobility of people, knowledge and ideas; the change from elite to mass higher education; changes in the relationship between higher education, state, economy and graduate employment patterns; and shrinking public spending on higher education and performance-based funding systems. In acknowledging these five forces, SU seems very attentive to the powerful forces of globalisation mentioned in Chapter 3.

Although this strategic framework claims to be a turn-around strategy for SU as it recasts itself in order to redress the inequities caused by apartheid, whether the strategic framework is a turn-around remains to be seen. For example, the language policy is a contentious issue and Afrikaans is still the medium of instruction in most undergraduate programmes, although English is more in use at a postgraduate level.

SU's new *mission* is rather typical of most higher education institutions, namely, "to create and sustain, in commitment to the universitarian ideal of excellent scholarly and scientific practice, an environment in which knowledge can be discovered; can be shared; and can be applied to the benefit of the community" (SU 2000b:9).

The ideals espoused in the new *vision* include excellence in research, teaching, community service, enterprise and innovation. In addition, SU aspires to be a "research-oriented university of world standing" (SU 2000b:11), positioning itself for more applied research and joint-venture partnerships with commerce and industry. This role is best captured in the new logo of SU: "Your Knowledge Partner"; however, the idea of being a knowledge partner is by

no means unique to SU, and most institutions of higher education nowadays stake a claim to some form of knowledge partnership.
Among South African universities, confirmation of SU's leadership in applied research in some areas is apparent in the fact that the university has consistently been the largest beneficiary of financial support from the Technology and Human Resources for Industry Programme (THRIP) that provides funding on a shared basis for industry-relevant research. Further evidence of the pioneering partnership with industry was the launch in February 1999 of SUNSAT, the Southern Hemisphere's first satellite (SU 2000c).

Internationalisation is identified as a strategic focus for change. With respect to international activities, SU has committed itself to the "pursuit of international recognition", as well as "responsiveness to the region, country and continent" (SU 2000b:11-12). "Further internationalisation" and the "developing of networks and alliances, both national and international", are explicitly identified among a list of ten strategic focuses for repositioning SU (SU 2000b:15). With the exception of UCT, very few South African universities had progressed this far in 2001 with respect to internationalisation. In addition, efforts to "advance interracial, inter-ethnic, multicultural and intercultural understanding, tolerance and cooperation" are identified as further focus areas (SU 2000b:15). However, despite this written rhetoric, the International Office Director recounts a different scenario in the section below.

9.4 INTERNATIONAL OFFICE

The information below is based upon interview data obtained at SU on 18 and 19 October 2001 from Mr Robert Kotze, the Director of the International Office. Further, it is corroborated by the Document Concerning International Students at the University of Stellensbosch (SU 1997), the SU (2000b) and other SU documents. The inception of the SU International Office commenced in June 1993. It may well be the oldest International Office among all South African higher education institutions. In comparison, the UCT International Office was set up in March 1996. In terms of staff complement, the office grew from a one-person office in 1993, to two people in 1995, to 3 in 1997, and its staff complement is still increasing. Since 1997, it makes use of a number of part-time and temporary staff. This is not ideal, and the Director Mr Robert Kotze would prefer to employ more full-time and/or

permanent staff. However, as he explains, the growth of the International Office is not one of the strategic focuses of SU:

> Within the strategic plan of the university, the university decided to focus on research and to become the premier research institution in the country. So everything is geared towards research, and they try to strengthen the international profile of the research through the Research Office and through the researchers. That is the focus. So there isn't a very high emphasis on the role of the International Office in terms of staff and student mobility. That has not been based on a very high priority list (Interview 18 October 2001).

This admission provides evidence that although internationalisation has been identified as a strategic focus, it was, as yet, not operational; nor did it have the necessary support from all sectors of the university in 2001. Thus a gap exists between rhetoric and reality.

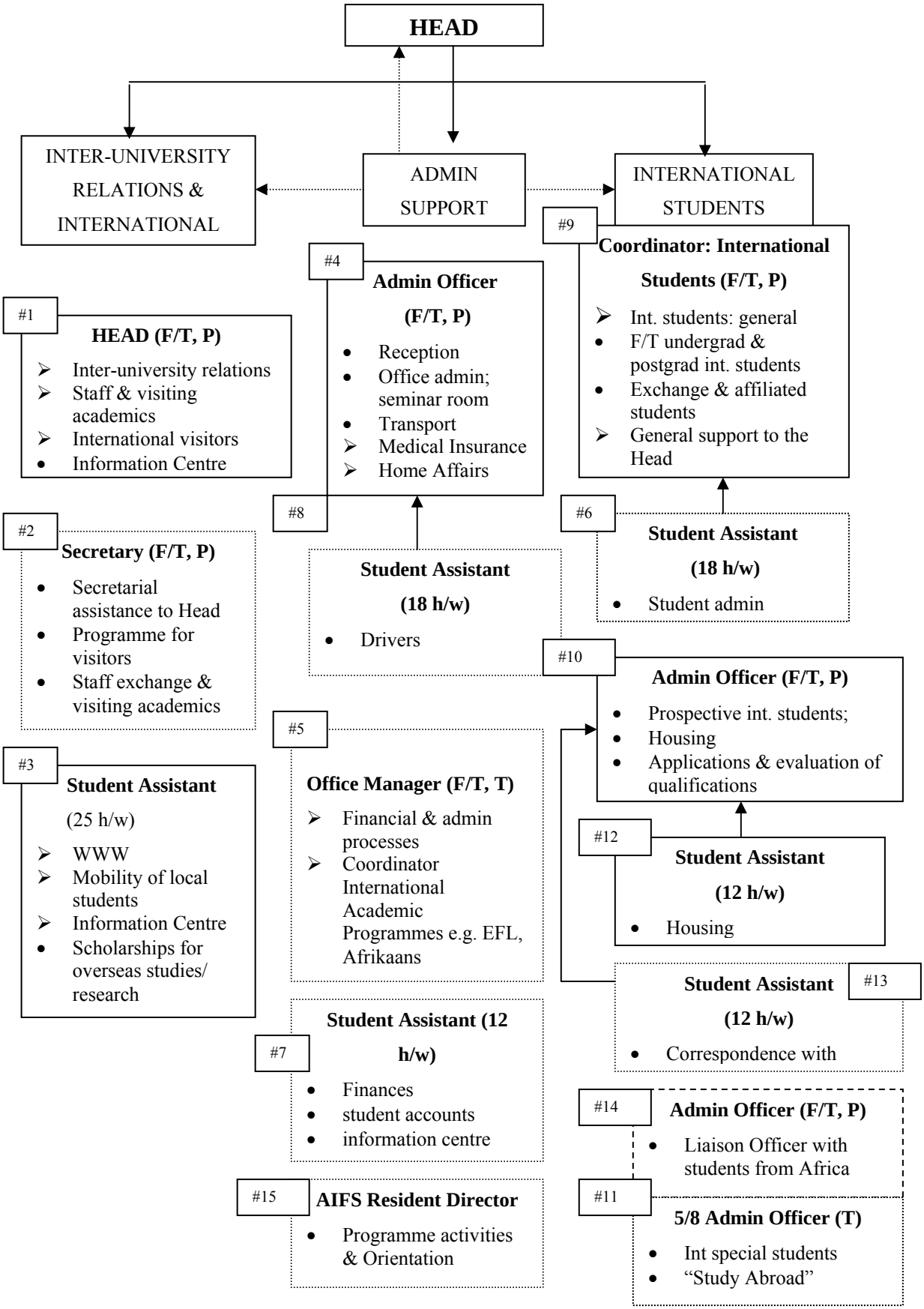
The International Office, being one of the oldest in the country, had a very elaborate structure. The more one scrutinizes the detail of this structure, the more one understands how and why service delivery[157] is rendered in an effective and efficient manner. The office was managed by a Head (or Director), and its major functions were divided into three categories namely, inter-university relations and international mobility; administrative support; and international students. It employed five full-time, permanent staff (F/T, P), in addition to the Head. They were responsible for the main functions within the office, such as inter-institutional relations and international visitors; general international student affairs; liaison with African students; applications, admissions, and the evaluation of foreign qualifications; and general administration. In addition, a few staff were employed on a full-time, temporary (F/T, T) basis, such as a secretary and the Office Manager. In total, 11 full-time personnel and three part-time personnel are employed. The 11 personnel included student assistants who were used to relieve the office of more routine tasks. The organogram is shown in Figure 15.

The above role was explained by Mr Kotze:

> There is not a strong strategic document on the position and the role of the International Office. The Office is seen as a *one-stop service* for international activity. So whether it is incoming or outgoing staff or students, they know they start here. For scholarships, for people who are wanting to go out, and also for incoming people, everybody knows that they should send the enquiries here or they should send people walking around here [emphasis added] (Interview 18 October 2001).

[157] Service delivery by the International Office was commended by students in interviews.

Figure 15. Stellenbosch University International Office organogram: 2001.



The emphasis on being a service provider is so strong that it has been emphatically and explicitly stated (SU 1997). The International Office has been specifically allocated the responsibility of rendering a *comprehensive service* to international students with regard to their arrival, their integration into existing and special services, and their settling in at the university in the local environment. The specific services include arrangements with regard to arrival, transport from airport, and so forth; arranging accommodation; presenting a suitable welcoming and introduction programme; rendering assistance in joining services at the university; and consultation on any aspect which is not properly handled by the regular service providers.

Further, the following is stated in the Base Document (SU 1997:4):

a) The administration and service sections should be *properly informed* that the University of Stellenbosch is expanding into a new field, and that because these students are of great importance to the University, they should be handled as such
b) Divisions should indicate how they can *contribute to a service package* for international students [emphasis in original].

This emphasis on *providing a service* to students in general and international students in particular is one of the biggest differences between the SU International Office and those at other South African Universities. Student services, for example the Student Centre, are among the most well-resourced in the country. SU perceives students as its primary clients and is thus very student-friendly. Of course the university also has the resources to provide the capacity required for holistic student life, unlike many HBUs where student services are skeletal or lean and mean.

Thus far, the internationalisation activities had been very much centralised through the International Office on the main campus in Stellenbosch. More recently, with the admission of international students to the Medical School in Tygerberg and the Business School in Bellville, these campuses have also initiated one-person international offices. However, other than for student admissions, these two offices liaise with the International Office on the main campus.

Despite this, the International Office was encouraging faculties to take ownership of other internationalisation-related procedures such as the evaluation of foreign qualifications. As outlined by Mr Kotze:

> We didn't force the integration so what we are now doing is that if there is a faculty secretary who is open and responsive, we ask them to do things for us, and so we are placing things back into the faculties. And also some of the evaluation of qualifications, as soon as we see people get the expertise and they understand what it is about, then we place it with them (Interview October 2001).

9.4.2 Management Hierarchy

Initially, the International Office reported via the Office for Research Development to the Vice-Rector (Academic), but later, when the student organisation became too big, the International Office moved out and became an independent office, reporting directly to the Vice-Rector (Academic) as illustrated below in Figure 16.

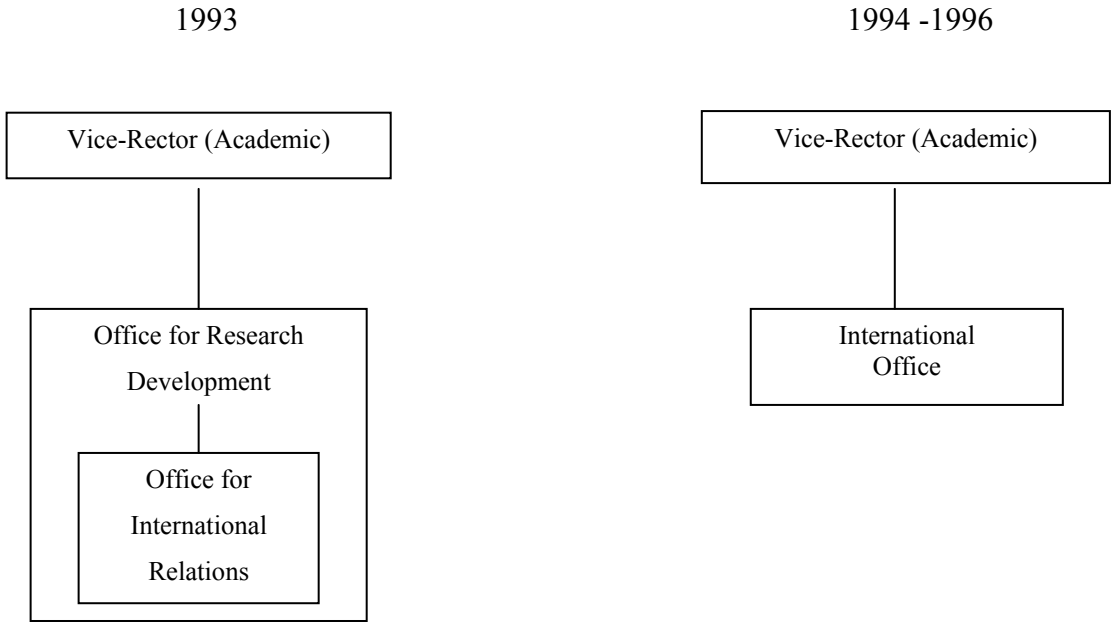
From about 1997 onwards, a major reshuffling of the management structure of the university occurred, and the International Office was relocated to the Corporate Affairs Division. As Mr Kotze explained:

> We were dealing with a variety of aspects of university life which cannot be brought under one roof. We do academic administration, we do student affairs, we also do research development and scholarships and things like that. So they had to put us, because of our multi-faceted function, into Corporate Affairs (Interview 18 October 2001).

The implementation of the university's strategic framework necessitated a regrouping of some key functions, including those previously carried out by the Marketing and Communication Division. A new division, Corporate Affairs, was consequently established to provide an organisational home for this new group of functions. Corporate Affairs consists of six separate portfolios, namely: the Stellenbosch Foundation, Marketing and Communication, Prospective Students, the International Office, the University Museum, and the Community Service Unit (SU 2000a).

In 2001, SU was unique among South African universities in having located the International Office within the Corporate Affairs Division. For the university, strategic partnerships constituted the core of its perceived success as one of South Africa's leading academic institutions (SU 2000c).

Figure 16. Stellenbosch University International Office Management Hierarchy: 1993 and 1994-1996.



Given the fact that the International Office coordinated and managed the university's exchange and other agreements with more than 60 foreign universities and publicises overseas teaching and research opportunities, it is not difficult to appreciate this placement. However, in terms of other lines of command, this structure may not have been the most suitable. The relocation of the International Office to the Corporate Affairs Division was not a perfect niche and was complicated in terms of the management hierarchy and chains of command, as outlined by Mr Kotze and illustrated in Figure 17 below:

> I have a line function towards the Senior Director of Corporate Affairs, so about staff, budget, equipment and stuff like that I will report to him, but when it is dealing with mobility of staff – incoming or outgoing – I report to the Vice-Rector (Research), and if it is about student matters, it is the Vice-Rector (Teaching) (Interview 18 October 2001).

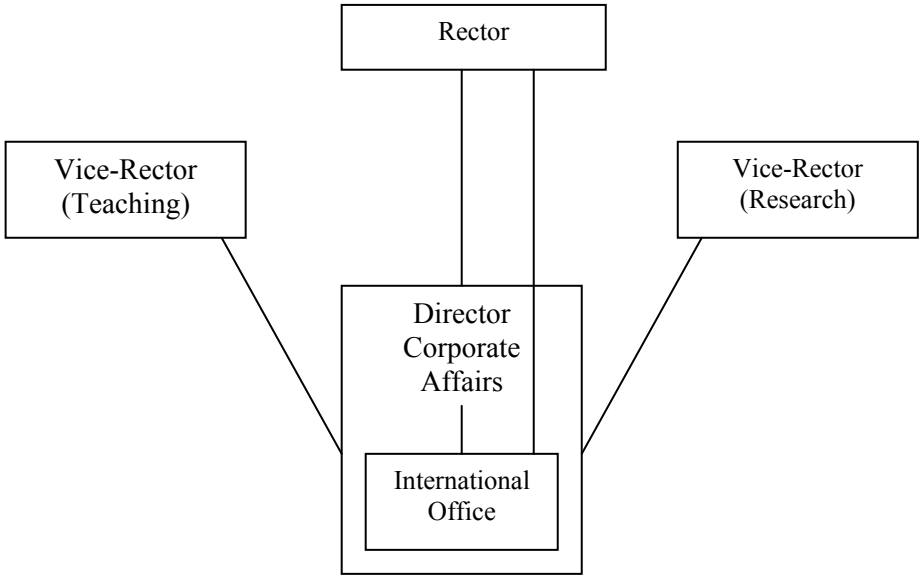
When asked whether he reported to three line managers, Mr Kotze answered the following:

> Yes, then the Rector has his own agenda. Through Corporate Affairs we are part of the three offices reporting to him. This gives him a line into the office especially when it's about international visitors or agreements, delegations or visiting overseas. So I have to decide on each issue where to seek approval (Interview 18 October 2001).

The above management hierarchy was evidently far from ideal. When asked to suggest an alternative chain of command, Mr Kotze added:

> My alternative would be to report to one of the two Vice-Rectors, if not the Rector himself. That will give a bigger profile to the International Office and we will be able to solve matters directly (Interview 18 October 2001).

Figure 17. Stellenbosch University International Office Management Hierarchy: 1998-2001.



When asked if the idea of creating the position of Vice-Rector International Relations would improve the chains of command, Mr Kotze agreed:

> Yes, I think it would. At this stage we have the Vice-Rector Research or Teaching or Operations. Adding 'International Affairs' specifically to one of these portfolios would place internationalisation on a high level (Interview 18 October 2001).

Further, with regard to the position of the Director of the International Office being a more high profile appointment and as to who should be driving the process of internationalisation at SU, Mr Kotze was of the opinion that the position needs to be more high-profile and was very frank:

> I felt a bit embarrassed yesterday when I said to you when you asked me, 'Who is driving internationalisation?', because there is nobody, but it is also a reflection on me because then I should grab the opportunity and do that, but I am not. I have clout but it is more to do with my personality and the way I do things. It is not clout in my position.
>
> For that *I need more clout* and for that there needs to be *someone higher up in the structure to take it further* [emphasis added] (Interview 18 October 2001).

The existence of other university organs, such as an advisory International Relations Committee, could further support and endorse the work of the International Office. However, at the time, no such support structures existed. This may explain why Mr Kotze regarded SU's response to internationalisation as having been reactive:

> One of the reasons for this *reactive way* is the fact that the office has to deal with a lot of things and, basically there is *not a strong strategic directive from the management*… the thing is because everything is going on fine – there is no big issue, there is no problem, why should they bother?
>
> Now I have more important things to attend to; that is why I tend to let it go, but *there is no international relations committee which takes responsibility for that, so that is a gap*. This 'strategic gap' could be closed by introducing an international relations committee which can provide strategic direction and more proactive leadership [emphasis added] (Interview 18 October 2001).

9.4.3 International Cooperation and Partnerships

In 2001, SU had over 60 agreements with international higher education institutions of which about 60% were active (Interview Mr Kotze 21 October 2001). These ranged from departmental, to faculty, to institutional agreements with a focus on student and staff exchange. The majority of these agreements were with European institutions in Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands. Language seems to play a strong role in forging these links. In addition, membership in other networks plays a part, for example many SU alumni and faculty are Humboldt scholars and have strong ties with German universities. A few agreements were with institutions in Africa and three were with institutions in China. New agreements with institutions in the USA were in the process of being negotiated (in 2001).

All of the agreements were signed after 1992. Most were initiated at the request of foreign institutions that approached SU. More recently, SU departments and faculties themselves have taken the initiative to identify overseas colleagues and departments with whom they would like to cooperate.

9.5 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

9.5.1 Numbers and Origin

In 2001, 1 165 international students were enrolled at SU from 72 countries. This constituted 6.2% of the 18 731 campus-based students. Over the five-year period from 1997 to 2001, the international student numbers increased from 665 to 1 165. This is a significant growth of 75%. The growth is even greater if one takes into account that the student numbers have quadrupled from 300 in 1994 to about 1 200 in 2001. The growth has been more rapid in the new millennium, with an average growth rate of 15% per annum from 1997 to 2001. This information is indicated in Table 24:

Table 24. Growth in International Students at Stellenbosch University: 1997-2001

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Number	665	718	856	983	1165
Increase		53	138	127	182
% increase per annum		8.0	19.0	15.0	18.5
Average growth % per annum	15				
% growth 1997 - 2001	75				

Compiled from data supplied by SU International Office in October 2001.

Nearly half (588 or 50.5%) of the international students at SU were from Africa, and over one third were from the SADC (437 or 37.5%). Over a half (257 or 59%) of the SADC students were from Namibia. Of the other half (577 or 49.5%) who originate from outside Africa, the majority are from Europe, with one third (181 or 31%) from Germany, followed by smaller proportions from the Netherlands (80 or 14%), the USA (70 or 12%), the UK and Belgium (Table 25). These trends are indicative of historical and linguistic links with Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium and Namibia (formerly South West Africa), all of which speak Germanic languages related to Afrikaans.

Table 25. Origin of International Students at Stellenbosch University: 2001

	N	%
SADC	437	37.5
Other Africa	151	13.0
Africa total	588	50.5
Rest of world	577	49.5
Total	1 165	100.0

Source: SU International Office October 2001.

9.5.2 Diversity and Level of Study

In terms of diversity, although originally the international students were mainly from Namibia and Zimbabwe, with the odd French or American student, in 2001, they come from a total of 72 countries. The majority of the SADC students still come from Namibia and Zimbabwe however.

Regarding level of study, because most undergraduate programmes at SU are offered in Afrikaans, 50% of the international students are enrolled in graduate programmes. The undergraduate international students comprised about a quarter, with the remaining quarter enrolled in special study abroad programmes. These students usually come in groups from the USA. The bulk of the full-time, undergraduate students were from one SADC country, Namibia, and tended to be children of (White) SU alumni. This is indicated in Table 26.

The rationale for targeting graduate students was explained by Mr Kotze:

> The university wants to pitch itself as a *research institution* where the strong *focus* should be on *graduate studies and the mobility of students*. International students would also then mainly be on a graduate level. That has been expressed in several circles in the university. The *graduate programmes* should be the main reason attracting international students.
>
> We do not want to exclude undergraduate, degree-seeking or study abroad students. On this level, programmes should be solid with strong international content.
>
> We also support mobility of graduate students, mainly because of restricted funding. Overall, the emphasis is on the mobility of incoming and outgoing *graduate students* [emphases added] (Interview 18 October 2001).

Again, in this respect, SU is unique. Most other South African universities recruit mainly undergraduate international students.

Table 26. International Students at Stellenbosch University by Level of Study: 2001

	SADC	Africa	Other	Total	%
UG Baccalaureate	207	11	59	277	23.8
Special	6	27	270	303	26.0
UG Certificate	2	1	1	4	0.3
Honours	40	14	16	70	6.0
Masters	117	75	150	342	29.4
Doctoral	33	15	68	116	10.0
PG Diploma	26	7	12	45	3.9
PG Baccalaureate	6	1	1	8	0.7
Total	437	151	577	1165	100.0
%	37.5	13.0	49.5	100.0	

Source: International Office (October 2001).

9.6 RATIONALES, APPROACHES AND STRATEGIES

SU bases the development of its programme for international students on the following premises and general approaches (SU 1997:1). The university aims to extend and use all opportunities with regard to the intake of international students. While making use of the new opportunities created by the State in this regard, it will be careful not to deprive South African students of their rightful study opportunities. This expansion will take the form of a fully-fledged international programme.

The following are the *specific goals* of the international programme at SU: to fulfil its *academic function* in the context of greater internationalisation; to *offer its expertise* in certain fields at international level by means of teaching, research and service programmes; to *introduce its students* to a wide spectrum of international students, in order to prepare them for the professional world where they will be dealing with global perspectives; to *generate funds* for the University; and to give a rightful place to *study fields with an international character* (SU 1997:1) [emphasis in original].

Thus the *rationales* for internationalisation[158] at SU were social, educational, and cultural. Economic gain from international students was not the priority. This was further elaborated below by Mr Kotze:

> No, it is *definitely not financial*. The biggest rationale is within this whole idea of *internationalisation-at-home*, to have more international people visiting Stellenbosch, staff and students, so that the local students and academic faculty can have exposure to international teaching, international students and other international inputs. So, it is *educational* and also to provide opportunities for people to have an *international exposure* on campus.
>
> It should not cost the university something *but should not be a cash cow, definitely not*. We have an international student levy and we are contemplating charging in dollars. But it would be, I think, in a modest range an attempt to cover costs and especially to fund the services we give to students, being a one-stop service centre.
>
> … *study abroad is not the cash cow* and it is not seen as the source of funding our operations…we need to diversify and have the full spectrum.
>
> So I think our fees are in the middle of the range. *Internationalisation is not built upon a financial rationale*; it is rather more about *having diversity on the campus*, giving people *a broader educational experience*, either for our students or for incoming students. It is also to promote South Africa: part of our *social and cultural* programme for international students is also to have a community service programme in Kayamandi, a black township.
>
> There are three or four groups doing community work. The Office, through ISOS, organises visits to Parliament and Robben Island, other historical landmarks, and even to go to see the flowers of the Western Cape. So it is not only *political*, but it is also to show the *diversity that we have in this region.* [emphases added] (Interview 18 October 2001).

Mr Kotze had a very holistic and integrated vision regarding internationalisation at SU. He explained its various components:

> The first thing I would like to see is internationalisation becoming part of the *normal academic programme* of the university, for example, the research development office should facilitate opportunities for lecturers and researchers to be engaged in international research projects; the internationalisation of the curriculum should be an ongoing and "normal" activity for the *unit for university education* in developing new academic programmes for students; and when it comes to *mobility and exchanges*, we would then be the facilitators. This should also be a part of the previously mentioned curriculum development process.

[158] See for example Knight & de Wit 1995a&b; 1997.

> Secondly, we need to develop the concept of *internationalisation-at-home*. We should be creating an *international experience for the students who are not mobile – for those staying here* through language training, more possibilities in area studies and through the presence of international students [emphases in original] (Interview 18 October 2001).

This vision was quite different from UPE where the main thrust of internationalisation was and still remains income generation. This revenue is gained from student inflows, as individual free-moving students or in study abroad groups from the USA.

SU's *approaches* to internationalisation were best described as a combination of the "activity and process approaches" (Knight & de Wit 1995b:16). Two *strategies* existed, namely, programme and organisational (Knight 1997a:15). However, in 2001 the latter was more prevalent at SU.

9.7 CONCLUSION

In 2001, the International Office had ambitious plans to expand into other regions of the world, closer to home on the African continent in Southern, East and Central Africa, and further away in the Americas, as well as India and the Far East. The champion of the vision for this vast global expansion, Mr Kotze, pointed this out on a map of the world on his wall:

> So, the focus now is that we are quite well established in Europe – Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands – and now we are moving towards America and Africa, perhaps Tanzania, Uganda and/or Kenya. We are not quite sure about that, but that will be on the table for next year, and then we will start with Asia. There are some leads we are taking. We still need to develop a general awareness about the university in America. People know of Stellenbosch and that we carry a lot of *political baggage* because of our close association with the previous government. We need to change this. We need to show them that we have opportunities for their students in study abroad programmes.
>
> The Law Faculty intends developing an International Trade Law Centre in partnership with the University of Namibia. Likewise should the research links in Biochemistry with the University of Botswana or in Applied Mathematics with the Universidad Eduardo Mondlane (Maputo) guide our development of extensive links with African institutions.
>
> Our strong interaction with institutions in Gabon should be developed as a base for greater interaction with Francophone Africa. The effect should also culminate in strengthening our language programmes in French, but also in *English as a Foreign Language*.

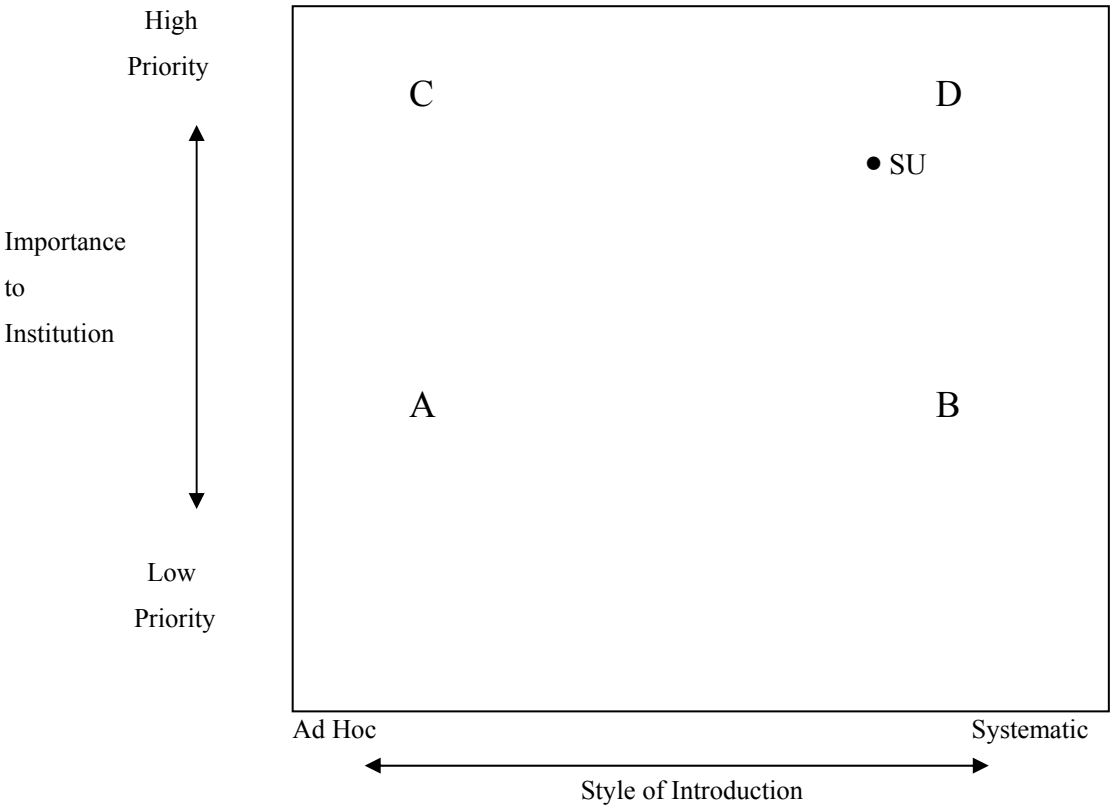
> Having a strong Asia project and a teacher of Mandarin should guide our interaction on the Asian continent: Mandarin should be taught at more universities using our distance education facilities and exchanges with Chinese institutions should be developed to support this unique academic programme.
>
> Then there is still South America – a new world with a lot of potential for study abroad [emphasis in original] (Interview 18 October 2001).

This was quite an expansive vision and is likely to occupy the agenda of the International Office for the foreseeable future. The expansion into the Chinese market is very proactive, and offering Mandarin is a positive strategic move, again a first for any South African institution of higher education. In addition to links with the Far East, links with India and South America are likely to lead to South-South cooperation.

In terms of the overall response of SU to internationalisation, one may conclude that it has been quite proactive. An acute awareness of the ubiquitous "reach" of globalisation exists. This understanding is reflected in the University's strategic framework, the establishment of an International Office with an elaborate organogram, and the extensive plans for future cooperation with higher education institutions in various regions of the world. These are all indications that SU has gone about internationalising in a very systematic manner, while perceiving it as a high priority for the institution. In terms of the Davies model (1995) cited in Chapter 4, SU's high priority – systematic approach to internationalisation is illustrated in Figure 18 (and falls just below that of UCT, as shall be seen in Chapter 11).

Certainly, the service-oriented nature of the International Office is one feature which distinguishes it from other International Offices in the case studies, and this acts as a draw card. Undoubtedly, the language factor has hampered the development of SU's international profile, for example, by acting as a repel factor for international students, specifically in undergraduate programmes. However SU's emphasis "on the mobility of incoming and outgoing graduate students" and the fact that in 2001, 50% of its international students were enrolled in graduate programmes, indicates that the university has carefully selected a graduate niche-market for itself to enhance its research profile. This research profile is additionally enriched through the many international partnerships that SU has had historically and that it is now extending in new directions, for example, to other countries in the South.

Figure 18. Stellenbosch University's approach to internationalisation in 2001.



Source: Modified from Davies (1995, 2003).

In 2001, the International Office was in need of further strategic direction from management. In addition, the creation of a structure such as an advisory International Relations Committee would help to endorse and support the International Office in its vision, as expressed by its Director, Mr Kotze: "…but there is for example, *no international relations committee who take responsibility for that, so that is a gap*" [emphasis added] (Interview 18 October 2001).

Since this research was conducted, internationalisation at SU has gone ahead, and Mr Kotze had this comment to add:

> Thank you for giving me perspective on what we have achieved. Sometimes I am so tied up with day-to-day matters that I forget the bigger picture. On reading your assessment, I realised for the first time that we are actually in the process of putting together an interesting mosaic – putting together a variety of aspects of internationalisation without registering it as such. We have indeed moved forward since the interview reflected in your chapter. We even tested the "limited higher fees in dollars" (email, 19 September 2004).

CHAPTER 10
THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN: "A WORLD-CLASS AFRICAN UNIVERSITY"?[159]

10.1 INTRODUCTION

The University of Cape Town (UCT) presents a unique set of characteristics, not the least of which is its explicit commitment to world-class research and, inseparable from this strategic goal, a clearly articulated dedication to internationalisation. Among the important UCT policy documents to be examined here are the Revised Strategic Planning Framework (Revised SPF)1999-2002 (UCT 1999a) and the Draft Policy on Internationalisation (UCT 2001), which fed into the new vision and mission statements. These documents bear witness to the post-apartheid transformation of UCT into a world-class institution that is cognizant of the forces of globalisation.

Against this programmatic background, the decision was taken to establish an International Academic Programmes Office (IAPO). IAPO's evolution, from its inception in 1996 to its development in 2001 as a comprehensive one-stop international student service, is charted here. Next, UCT's rationales for internationalisation are examined. Thereafter, the chapter provides a statistical profile of international students at UCT, including their numbers and countries of origin within the SADC, the African continent and other regions of the world. Further, the benefits of the groundbreaking and profitable Semester Study Abroad Programme are briefly discussed. Finally, marketing, recruitment and future student growth are touched upon. The chapter concludes that UCT's response to internationalisation has been both innovative and proactive.

10.1.1 History and Location

UCT is South Africa's oldest university. It is located in the beautiful city of Cape Town, which is considered to be a major international tourist destination and very attractive to students. The university was founded in 1829 as the South African College – a boys' school which also provided some tertiary education. During the 1880s the college grew rapidly in

[159] UCT Logo.

response to the needs of South Africa's developing economy. In 1918, the tertiary section of the college became the University of Cape Town. UCT is a HWU and was also one of the so-called 'liberal' White universities during the apartheid era.

UCT has a main campus in Groote Schuur and three smaller campuses. The Medical School campus is in Observatory, the Hiddingh campus that houses Fine Arts and Drama is in the Gardens area, and the Business School is at the Breakwater campus at the Cape Town Waterfront[160]. With a total enrolment of approximately 15 000 students, UCT has positioned itself to remain a 'medium-to-large' institution, providing conventional delivery through contact tuition. Although it could easily grow, its commitment is to avoid becoming a 'metropolitan mega-institution' (UCT, *s.a.*a) in which quality could be compromised.

In 2001, UCT had six faculties, some 100 departments, more than 15 000 students, and 4 500 faculty members. About 30% of the student population were postgraduates and 17% were enrolled for Doctoral or Masters degrees (Study Abroad at UCT *s.a.*). Approximately 11% of the total enrolment was international students from about 70 countries[161]. The medium of instruction and examination at UCT is English.

10.1.2 Africa's Leading Research University?

UCT considers itself "Africa's leading research university" (Nuttall *s.a.*:27)
and "South Africa's top research university in science and engineering" (UCT 1998:15). These claims are well founded. In 1999, the university had "the highest number of rated researchers overall, as well as more 'A-rated' scientists" than any other South African higher education institution (UCT 1999b:9). The National Research Foundation (NRF) awards 'B' ratings to researchers who are considered to be among the world's leaders in their fields. The NRF also awards 'A-plus' ratings to those who are considered to be 'the' world leaders in their fields. Out of 47 'A-rated' South African scientists, UCT had 20 in 1999. Further, 14 of these 47 had an 'A-plus' ranking. Of these 14 researchers, 9 (64%) were based at UCT

[160] The Waterfront is a popular recreation area which is centrally located close to the Cape Town central business district and tourist attractions.
[161] An estimate for 2002-2003 is 12-14% from 75 countries (UCT *s.a.*a:2). Refer also to Section 5 in this chapter.

(Nuttall *s.a.*:30). UCT also employed 52 B-rated scientists, and 76 with C-ratings, bringing the total number of rated scientists to 164 (UCT 1999b:9).

As stated in the Revised SPF: 1999-2002 (UCT 1999a:21), research is a strategic direction, and UCT's vision is to "occupy the position of foremost research university in Africa". With respect to research and international collaboration, one of the priorities of the Revised SPF is to expand the "base of recognized world-class research and researchers at UCT", with three objectives in mind: to promote and protect research work directed at enlarging the global pool of knowledge; to develop strategic links with other world-class institutions; and to promote African links to exploit the unique social and geographic location of UCT. Thus, for UCT, strategic links with other renowned institutions globally and on the African continent are strategic priorities.

10.2 TRANSFORMATION AT UCT

10.2.1 Transforming UCT into a World-Class African University

Transformation of UCT from an apartheid era liberal, White university to a globally competitive higher education institution has been shaped by both national and global challenges. While giving priority to the national agenda of transformation, UCT (like SU and UPE) understood the need to be part of a global community. UCT has also committed itself to serving the needs of the African continent. As indicated repeatedly by the former Vice-Chancellor, Dr Ramphele:

> It is essential for a developing country like South Africa to have world-class institutions. We are moving into what has been aptly described as the 'global knowledge society'. From the southern tip of Africa we have an enormous amount to contribute to global knowledge as an equal partner, not as a permanent colony that has to rely on imported expertise – which is what will happen if we give up the quest to be world-class (UCT 1998:3).
>
> Transformation in Higher Education in South Africa is lagging far behind that taking place in other parts of the world as universities adapt to develop new ways of contributing to socio-economic and political development.
>
> This role is now all the more critical given the worldwide explosion in information technology and the global economy we now have to work within. Over the past four years I have sought to position UCT at the forefront of this transformation process to ensure that it is well-equipped to compete on an equal footing internationally, despite our limited resources (UCT 1999b:1).

Further to the acknowledgement of being part of a 'global' knowledge society mentioned in the section above, 'globalisation' and 'internationalisation' have been explicitly identified as two processes in the external environment bearing upon UCT as a higher education institution. This is stated in the Environmental Scan: 2002-2003 (UCT *s.a.*a:3-4), which distinguishes between globalisation and internationalisation:

> Globalisation
>
> This phenomenon resulting from the impact of ICTs and closer linking of national economies is continuing to impact on higher education; leading to increased demand, continually transforming the modes of delivery and leading to increased competition through the entrance of non-traditional providers. The increasing digital divide between the developed and developing countries poses a serious challenge for developing countries and their universities.
>
> *UCT has no option but to embrace this phenomenon and seek to enhance its teaching, learning and research activities using the new technologies …* [emphasis in original].
>
> Internationalisation
>
> The globalisation phenomenon is accompanied by high mobility of capital, knowledge and personpower. This has resulted in universities losing the monopoly they have had for a long time in the provision of higher education. The entrance of new forms of providers has led to a need for universities to form strategic partnerships with other universities, industry and other societal players in order to achieve operational cost-effectiveness and efficiency.
>
> *UCT will face increasing competition from other providers, nationally and regionally. The appropriate response is for UCT to increase its global profile through linkages and networking with other institutions in and outside South Africa to facilitate knowledge transmission and student and staff exchange arrangements. There are fears of increasing fear and recession following the September 11 attacks on the USA. This might impact on the development of linkages and networks and the recruitment of foreign students* [emphasis in original].

The above is further verified in the Revised SPF 1999-2002 (UCT 1999a:1). A fundamental change has occurred world-wide in what is understood to be the business of a university. In part, these changes are due to the globalisation of many aspects of life; in part, they relate to the change from an industrial to a knowledge-based society, and they occur in parallel with the proliferation of ICT. "Universities can no longer be seen as privileged points of access to knowledge, nor can a university be seen as just a repository of knowledge, nor has a

university graduate any longer an automatic expectation of a single job lasting a lifetime" (UCT 1999a:1). Today, knowledge workers will be rewarded for problem-solving skills, creative thinking and adaptability.

For these reasons the Revised SPF 1999-2000 (*ibid.*) argues that change at UCT is not only "unavoidable", but also desirable. This transformation is based on three core concepts. The first concept is that UCT is an "*Institute of Learning*" and its "core business is learning". The second concept is that UCT is an "*African university*". Its location on the African continent presents many challenges in the area of research that UCT is uniquely placed to conduct, given both its historical legacy as well as its developmental responsibility, which are different from anywhere else in the world. The third concept is the *synergy* which must exist between intellectual and societal aspects of scholarship, for example, to avoid false dichotomies between pure and applied research (UCT 1999a:2) [emphasis in original].

In addition, the Revised SPF 1999-2002 contends that excellence and equity are interdependent and not mutually exclusive. "UCT cannot be a university of world-class quality if it fails to draw on the widest possible pool of talent to develop human potential, without regard to stereotyped labels. Thus excellence demands equity". Likewise, equity cannot compromise on excellence: "The people of this country did not win their freedom to gain access to mediocrity" (UCT 1999a:3).

In the latter half of the 1990's, change at UCT was driven by a vision, a challenging mission and two significant frameworks: the Academic Planning Framework (APF) and the Revised Strategic Planning Framework (SPF) (UCT 1999a). The strategies adopted focused on answering a set of key questions, as formulated by the Vice-Chancellor in 1997, Dr Mamphela Ramphele. These questions were presented as the motivation for UCT's current transformation process:

> What should UCT be doing in order to be world-class in an African context? What kind of graduates should we be producing? What role should we be playing in the development of South Africa and the African Continent? What are the academic strengths on which we should build in teaching and research? What administrative structures and systems will best support our academic enterprise? (Nuttall *s.a.*:15).

10.2.2 Vision and Mission

"Taking excellence and equity as the benchmarks for all it does, UCT envisages becoming a world-class African University" (Nuttall *s.a.*: inside cover). This quest for a new identity was guided by the formulation of a vision to become "a world-class African university". The formulation "world-class African university" was chosen deliberately rather than 'world-class university in Africa', in order to "exemplify Africa's potential for excellence on her own ground, not an ersatz Oxford, Harvard or Gottingen" (Dr Ramphele in Nuttall *s.a.*:15).

After the departure in 1999 of Dr Ramphele as Vice-Chancellor, the vision was developed further under the leadership of the new Vice-Chancellor, Prof Njabulo Ndebele. He formulated a working document, Vision 2001 and Beyond (UCT *s.a.*b) that indicates broad directions toward which to steer UCT. It complements the above vision of the university, which was articulated in 1996.

Vision 2001 and Beyond (UCT *s.a.*b) includes key strategic drives, the fulfilment of which are intended to lead UCT closer to where the university wants to be, for example, to become "a serious global player, a place of research able to link intellectual work with social benefits; able to create future leaders, top researchers and top citizens; and able to make a fundamental impact through AIDS research" (UCT *s.a.*b:4-5). These strategic drives are summarized in Figure 19 overleaf.

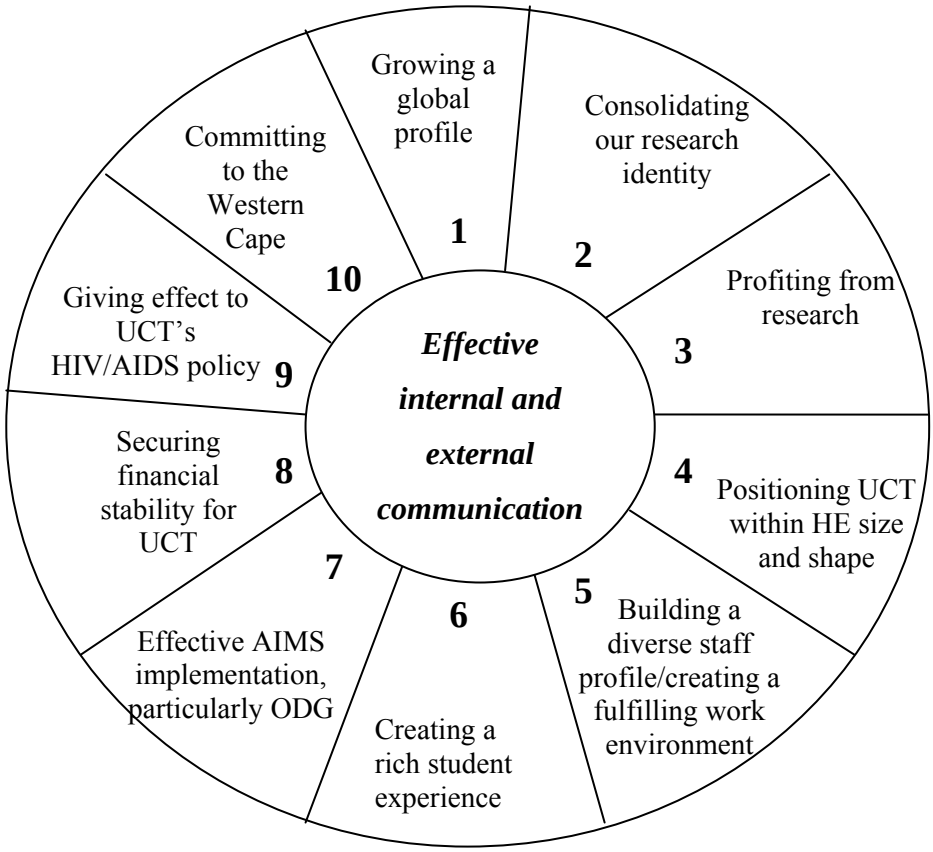
UCT's post apartheid *mission*, which was adopted in April 1996, is to be "an outstanding teaching and research university, educating for life and addressing the challenges facing our society" (UCT 1998:2).

10.2.3 Planning Frameworks

The Strategic Planning Framework (SPF) and the Academic Planning Framework (APF) (UCT 1999a) form two significant guidelines for the development of UCT in new millennium. The SPF is not a "blueprint of a future UCT", but a framework for "the development of planning as a continuous process" (UCT 1999a, Foreword section). While the APF advocated restructuring undergraduate education on the basis of degree programmes, the SPF led to a number of major changes at UCT (Nuttall *s.a.*:16), in particular the restructuring

of faculties from ten to six; the introduction of the Centre for Higher Education Development (CHED) with faculty status; the devolution of financial responsibility to faculty structures through a new system of executive Deans; equity and staff development policies; the development of the upper campus that involved a restructured library and Students' Union together with a Student Learning Centre and increased space for the Commerce and Engineering faculties; and a long-term project to transform the management of the university's information system (PRISM).

Figure 19. University of Cape Town's vision 2001 and beyond.



Source: UCT (*s.a.*b).

Together, the vision and the mission, the APF and SPF have created a platform on which to build UCT into an institution for the 21st century, insofar as they recognise at the core of any institution the inevitability and accelerating pace of change and the omnipresent reach of globalisation. One of the strategic focus areas identified in the SPF is student recruitment. Details of this are provided in Section 10.5.6.

10.3 INTERNATIONALISATION POLICY AT UCT

Within the Strategic Planning Framework (1997 - 2000), internationalisation at UCT is guided with greater specificity by the Draft Policy on Internationalisation (UCT 2001). At the time of my research, very few South African universities had any formal, explicit policy on internationalisation. Only those universities such as UCT that were very proactive had a written policy.

Selected excerpts from the Draft Policy on Internationalisation (UCT 2001) statement are included here because it was the only document available at the time of the study. In addition, this policy document covers a number of issues which would have implications for other South African universities. The level of detail in the document, in particular at the level of strategic action, places UCT as a leading institution among South African universities with respect to the internationalisation process. This could indicate that policy implementation has successfully followed policy formulation.

The preamble to the Draft Policy on Internationalisation (UCT 2001) takes account of globalisation, the proliferation of ICT and the importance of educating knowledge workers with global competencies:

> A characteristic of excellent tertiary education anywhere in the world is its global relevance. Graduates of the future need to be equipped to succeed in the ever-shrinking global village. Furthermore the exponential expansion of information technology has speeded up the process of globalisation which is profoundly affecting how countries and businesses operate. In South Africa, only recently emerged from its isolationist past, the imperative to educate students to be citizens of the world is especially important (no page numbers).

Under the 'policy' sub-section, the definition of internationalisation adopted by UCT is one that has enjoyed common currency for a number of years, and the definition has been clearly articulated by Jane Knight (1997b). At UCT, internationalisation is viewed as a holistic process, encompassing and affecting the principal spheres of university life, not just student exchange:

> In recognition of this, the University of Cape Town strongly supports internationalisation as an essential element of quality higher education and research. Internationalisation is defined as "*the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of an institution of higher learning*". Thus internationalisation affects curricula, teaching, research, administration, selection and promotion of staff, student

> recruitment, fund-raising, marketing, experiential learning through student and staff mobility, quality review, and communication (UCT 2001: Policy section).

Next, an account is provided of UCT's provincial, national, SADC, continental and worldwide position and environment:

> The University of Cape Town strives to be a "World Class African University". Despite the academic boycott during the apartheid years, UCT has earned a reputation of excellence. It is now in the process of increasing the role it can play on the African continent. At the same time UCT's position on the scenic, multi-cultural Cape Peninsula makes it an attractive institution for both students and staff from all over the world. In common with universities across the world, UCT has recognised that international collaboration and attracting international students can open access to resources and fee income from beyond local borders (UCT 2001: Policy section).

The document continues to acknowledge seven key principles of the internationalisation process which include, for example, excellence, equity and UCT's position on the African continent. Some highlights follow:

> Linkages are encouraged with institutions with an equivalent or better academic reputation than that of UCT; international students should be selected on the basis of their quality; …

> Internationalisation at UCT will be used as a tool to develop and train South African staff and students from previously disadvantaged sectors, thus contributing towards the longer term transformation goals of the University. Students and staff from poorer backgrounds will not be disadvantaged by lack of finances from participating in international opportunities…
> A primary focus of all aspects of UCT's internationalisation will be the African continent (UCT 2001: Seven key principles).

Thus internationalisation at UCT is not aimed primarily at generating additional income but to encourage excellence, equity and develop partnerships on the African continent.

The document (UCT 2001) concludes with an elaborate strategy for implementing internationalisation. In this respect, UCT was also 'leading the pack' among South African universities. Two such strategic actions are that "Faculties must actively seek to internationalise curricula, not only to benefit UCT students but also to develop strengths which would attract international students"; and that UCT should continue to grow its Semester Study Abroad Programme which has both introduced diversity into undergraduate classes and brought in significant income to support other internationalisation activities.

UCT's internationalisation strategy with respect to targeting international students or regions of the world was succinctly summarised by Ms Thomas[162], the Deputy Director of the International Programmes Office:

> We decided to stay cautious until this can really get our focus on what we want to do, how we want to do it and then plan it and be proactive about it, rather than just react to approaches. Some of that has been successful, some of that we are still reacting to, you know. Essentially, we want to attract good quality African students rather than the rest of the world. It is South Africa, Africa, then the rest of the world. That is it; it is even in our mission statement (October 2001).

10.4 INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC PROGRAMMES OFFICE (IAPO)

In 2001, UCT had the second largest international office at any South African university, in terms of office space and the number of international students the office was expected to service. The establishment of an International Academic Programmes Office (IAPO) at UCT developed because the need arose to have someone to deal with the rising demand for an international agenda. Basically the IAPO started to "take the pressure off the senior executive for international visits" and support an academic programme of staff development (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001). In addition, it was initiated "as a result of discovering there were no specific systems in place to deal with students from outside the country" (*ibid.*).

The IAPO did not mushroom overnight, but started in March 1996 from humble beginnings in a seminar room, as explained by Ms Thomas:

> In the latter part of 1995, Lesley Shackleton was contacted by UCT to start an international office to house the USHEPiA[163] Programme and deal with "international things". I knew her and she asked me whether I would be interested in applying to do it, sort of the two of us setting it up together. I got the job; I was the member of the university staff, and she was part-time, 70%.
>
> So we started on 1 March 1996 in a little-used seminar room in the Centre of African Studies at the campus. The two of us shared an office and to start with, essentially, the USHEPiA programme as the main focus.

---

[162] The source for the interview data (October 2001) in this chapter is Ms Caz Thomas, the Assistant Director of IAPO throughout. Because she is the only source, she is not identified every time she has been quoted. Subsequent to my interviews, Ms Thomas assumed the position of Head, IAPO.

[163] See section 4.4 later in this chapter on University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa (USHEPiA).

At its inception, the IAPO had to respond to every conceivable need in the international arena, including servicing international students, international visitors and visiting delegations, and setting up systems and programmes, especially for post-graduate students. In addition, the IAPO had to maintain data on international students and develop policy in response to a demand for exchange and cooperation agreements:

> But additionally, we were the ones who would be the people meeting visitors from other universities and institutions that wanted to come and do exchange agreements and things like that. And we had to start developing policy pretty quickly because we could see that with the ones which we already signed, just a kind of relief to be accepted by the outside world again sort of thing, it was fairly indiscriminate.
>
> We were receiving students into UCT on a fees-waiver basis, but we had no idea how many of them were here; we had no idea whether any students were going the other way and if they were, then it would probably be done by a department, and it probably would have only favoured those who had the financial means to get there (*ibid.*).

Despite the lack of expertise and human resources, and despite being flooded with requests from international partner institutions, the IAPO was very selective about its choice of partners. Further, evidence suggests high-level institutional support for the activities of the IAPO:

> So in conjunction with the Deputy Vice-Chancellor for International Relations who we reported to, within the Vice-Chancellor's office, we started putting together policy and guidelines for agreements, and we became known as being very choosy and fussy about which ones we agree to sign...(*ibid.*).

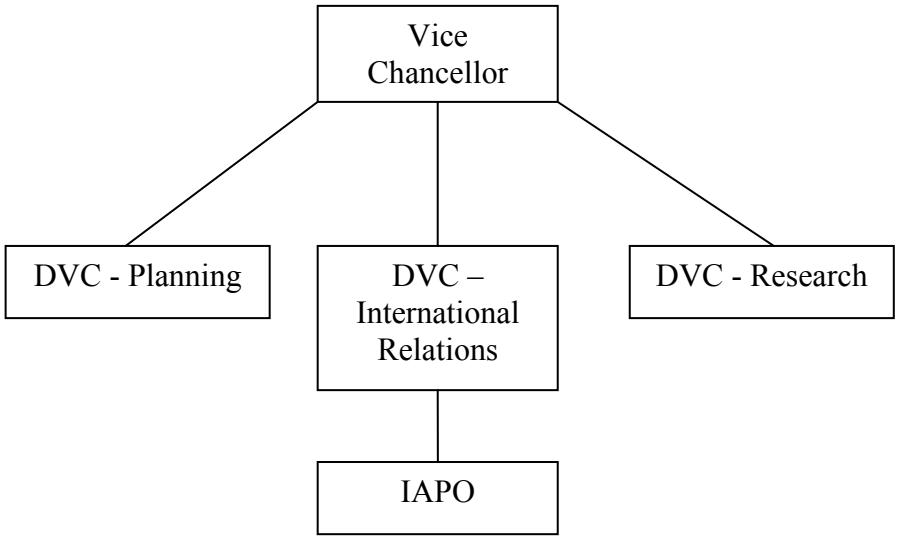
10.4.1 Management Hierarchy and IAPO Profile

The fact that UCT has a position for Deputy Vice-Chancellor-International Relations itself attests to the importance given to having an international profile. Moreover, the IAPO was established with the express objective of dealing with 'things international', and it has enjoyed high level institutional support right from the beginning. The fact that IAPO has strategic support, which is rarely the case in higher education institutions, is crucial to the success of an international office and its adoption by and integration into the institution.

> …we have a high level of institutional support, the VC supported this from the start…So in conjunction with the Deputy Vice-Chancellor for International Relations who we report to, within the Vice-Chancellor's office, we started putting together policy and guidelines for agreements [emphasis in original] (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

The IAPO management hierarchy and chain of command are illustrated in Figure 20:

Figure 20. University of Cape Town's management hierarchy: 2001.



From being one member of staff and one Director in March 1996, the IOPA expanded rapidly to employ four other staff members in 1997. At this stage, space was very limited and so the IOPA expanded from one room to five, as it was "bursting at the seams". Ms Thomas explains the pace of expansion in terms of staff recruitment and office allocation:

> … so that is really where we started in 1996 and the USHEPiA programme expanded through the next years and the Director and I couldn't cope by ourselves, so we employed, firstly, the ex-SRC leader, ….
>
> And then Nan Warner came in on a part-time basis to begin with and then subsequently got involved, and she was recently permanently appointed to the university, in fact, it is only going to take place early next year, and she has moved on from just coordinating the USHEPiA programme, but all the African links that we have now in Africa. And Carol joined us last year to take over the day-to-day stuff.

The rapid expansion of the IAPO from 1997 to 2001 is illustrated in Figures 21 and 22. Ms Thomas explained the need for this expansion:

> We got a secretary in 1997 who has recently been promoted, but we discovered that *we were bursting at the seams*, we have got the one room and we have half of another room and then all of a sudden there were four of us, and we were bringing in another person to help as necessary. So *we were rapidly bursting at the seams* up there, and we negotiated space down here [emphasis in original].

Thus the office expanded from two personnel in 1996 to a more elaborate structure with eight staff in 2001 in response to the rapid growth in student numbers.

Figure 21. International Academic Programmes Office organogram: 1997.

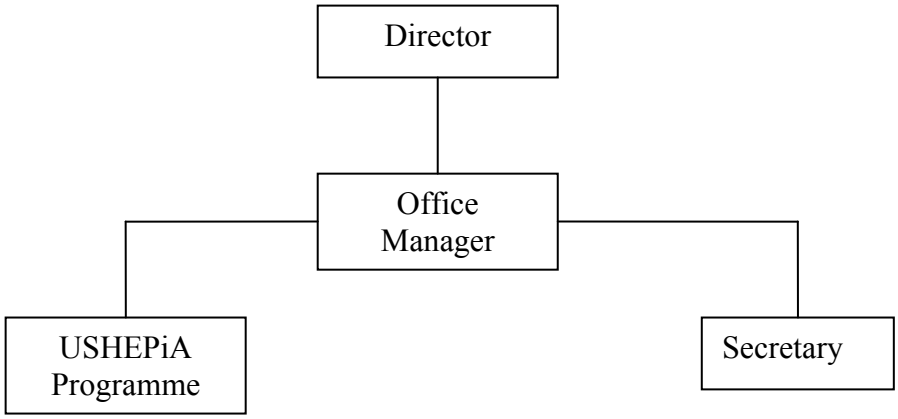
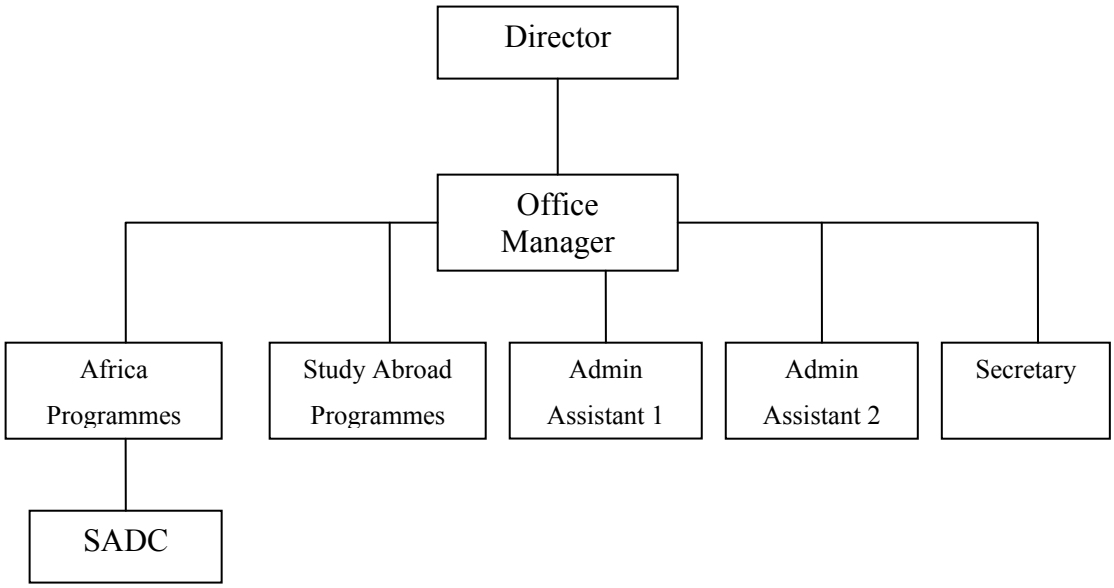


Figure 22. International Academic Programmes Office organogram: 2001.



10.4.2 One-Stop Centralised Student Service

The IAPO has since been positioned with other student services, which are strategically located next to it, thus providing a 'one-stop shop' in terms of student services.

> … during the course of transformation and restructuring and generally sort of the high-level things that were happening at UCT, it was agreed that this level of the building would become a *one-stop student services 'shop'* and so it was agreed that IAPO would be here. They negotiated the space that goes around this quad and then Academic Administration and Fees are going to be across the way. The Student Records moved in yesterday across the other side, so we are going to have a little bit more interaction and amalgamation here within the service departments (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

In 2001, IAPO provided services to international students and visitors, UCT staff, and local students. It serviced 2 260 international students from 74 countries, including both undergraduate and postgraduate students.

> IAPO welcomes all international students at UCT and acts as a central point of contact. We strive to be considered as the first place an international student in trouble will come to. An international student is defined as a student who is not a national or permanent resident of South Africa (IAPO *s.a.*) [emphasis in original].

IAPO staff intend to provide assistance and support to *all* international students for the duration of their degree or stay at UCT in a number of areas which include pre-arrival information; pre-registration, in other words, checking visas, fees, and so forth; orientation; renewal of visas and study permits; advice on list of accommodation options; administering international fees; information on international student activities and associations; provision of information pamphlets specifically for international students; medical insurance queries; and exchange opportunities for local students.

Students are registered through the normal university structures. In addition to the above, specific services and advice offered to international postgraduate students include examination procedures, thesis supervision with the faculty, funding opportunities with the postgraduate scholarships office, and opportunities for interaction amongst international and local postgraduate students.

10.4.3 Rationales for Internationalisation

In casting around for appropriate models to emulate, UCT's internationalisation process was inspired by the Australian model. Ms Thomas explained:

> There was quite a lot of pressure in 1997 to go and visit international offices in another country and the automatic assumption from everybody other than Lesley [the first Director] and myself was that she should have a look at the United States. She and I looked at each other and said 'Well, actually we would rather choose a country which we thought was more similar in terms of the education system that we have', and we decided on Australia. So she made a *very intensive visit to various Australian institutions and the Study Abroad was born out of that visit* as well as the concept [of internationalisation].

Further, the IAPO was founded on the premise that it would be self-supporting within three years. However, due to the large number of incoming study abroad students, mainly from the USA, the office had generated a profit by the end of the first year of running its programme. Profits generated were used to cross-subsidise the SADC students who were exempted from paying the international student administrative fee. Ms Thomas clarified this:

> You know it (the rationale) sounds sort of financial but it wasn't. The fact that we started charging in dollars has meant that we now have the resources to be able to firstly, give a good quality service for the study abroad and increasingly the full-degree international students, and I mean the study abroad basically subsidises the SADC and other full-degree students.
>
> But additionally, now, we have the budget that enables us to actually get the agreements working properly which doesn't rely on overseas funding to compete for a scholarship for a student to go on exchange. We negotiated ones where we have the equivalent of the dollars at the host university, which is purely for UCT's expenses and things like that. We have been quite creative and hard-nosed in how we negotiated.
>
> In 1998, we came out at a profit when we were supposed to nearly break even, [and] we have been running at a profit ever since, and that profit gets put back into the university.

Given what Ms Thomas stated below in combination with documentary analysis cited earlier in this chapter, the evidence suggests that UCT's rationales for internationalisation were economic, educational and cultural. These three rationales appeared to coexist more or less in similar proportions, as opposed to UPE where the economic rationale is dominant.

10.4.4 International Co-Operation and Partnerships

The Revised SPF 1999-2002 (UCT 1999a:11) supports the principle that as an African university, UCT should actively pursue continental collaboration. In so doing, it should strengthen current initiatives such as USHEPiA and the African Gender Institute and accommodate an increasing number of students from elsewhere in Africa. In addition, UCT should interact with the rest of the world by strengthening and developing strategic links with other world-class institutions. Collaboration has been explicitly identified as a strategic direction in the Revised SPF: 1999-2002 (UCT 1999a:30). In this respect, the vision is "to promote synergistic partnerships at regional, national, continental and global levels", and to take an active role in Africa.

In addition to its other functions, the Africa Office within IAPO seeks opportunities to enhance academic links between UCT and other African universities; delivers postgraduate programmes that develop research links in Africa through the USHEPiA programme; and maintains and disseminates information about current African Programmes and UCT and international funding opportunities. Further, IAPO liaises with "a large number of outside organisations to assist the University in making its presence felt internationally". These activities include facilitating agreements between UCT and other institutions and between individual faculties and departments and their counterparts elsewhere (UCT 1999b:59).

UCT has many cooperation and exchange agreements with foreign institutions. The many agreements reached and negotiated in 1999 included three new study abroad agreements, and an agreement with the Andrew Mellon Foundation to train UCT female staff in management over the next few years (*ibid.*). In addition, some agreements have been made with European universities, such as those in Germany, as Ms Thomas elucidates:

> Academics, we have had some movement where we have got established links and they keep a small amount of funding over there to accommodate UCT faculty and to pay for airfares for the partner faculty to come spend time here. And that works on a sort of low-key thing because really there isn't a lot of movement going backwards and forwards.
>
> Hamburg, we have a similar situation where an ex-university of Hamburg staff member left a bequest specifically for Hamburg to deal with certainly UCT and possibly also Stellenbosch in terms of inviting a member of faculty over, and they pay for our accommodation costs for a month, and we pay for their accommodation to come here for a month. So there are a lot of things like that which we have been doing for some time.

A cooperation programme unique to UCT is aimed at human resource development in Africa, mainly in the SADC and East Africa. This programme is worth particular mention. The University Science, Humanities, and Engineering Partnerships in Africa (USHEPiA) programme started with a focus on Science and Engineering and then expanded into the Humanities.

> It was set up to promote collaboration amongst established African researchers in the generation and dissemination of knowledge, and to build institutional and human capacity in cash-strapped African Universities. The ultimate goal is to build on existing potential to develop a network of African researchers capable of addressing the developmental requirements of sub-Saharan Africa. It thus aims to turn Centres of Excellence into Networks of Excellence (USHEPiA Brochure *s.a.*).

UCT's commitment to research development on the continent relates to its vision of being a world-class African university. As emphasized by the Vice-Chancellor:

> Our greatest opportunity lies in building on the strengths we have. We have, in the past, produced Nobel Prize winners and leading scholars across many disciplines. Our greatest challenge is to broaden and deepen this legacy and develop its roots in Africa (UCT 1998:3).

The references to "cash-strapped African universities", "network of African researchers", "networks of excellence", and deepening the legacy to develop Africa cited in the quotations above relate back to the "network society", the "crisis of higher education in Africa", as well as South Africa's moral obligation to develop the African continent that were discussed in Chapter 3. The USHEPiA programme is a pragmatic example of translating commitment into practice as noted below.

USHEPiA enables Fellows of the programme to complete postgraduate degrees at partner universities. Further, it supports a wide range of development opportunities such as short-term professional development fellowships; postgraduate fellowships for staff development; jointly supervised sandwich MSc and PhDs; exchanges of staff and senior students; short courses; joint research projects of mutual interest; and exchange of external examiners and lecturers. In 1999, USHEPiA activities included a workshop at UCT for "Emerging African Leaders", funded by the United Nations Foundation. The workshop reviewed "UN Policy in the Next Century". In 2001, the USHEPiA partner universities in East and Southern Africa were Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology and the University of Nairobi, both in Kenya; Makerere University, Uganda; the Universities of Botswana, Zambia, Zimbabwe; and the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania.

Funding for USHEPiA has been ongoing. To date the programme has obtained funding from major philanthropic organisations such as the Carnegie Corporation and foundations such as Rockefeller, Andrew Mellon, Coca Cola and Ridgefield. From 1996 to 2000, a total of 42 Fellows graduated in the Humanities, Science and Engineering. Fellows and their home and UCT supervisors interact and share experiences of each other's worlds. "African academics are able to link into the global community of scholars, and individuals are being empowered to develop their intellectual strengths, in Africa, for Africa" (USHEPiA Brochure *s.a.*).

10.5 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

10.5.1 Numbers and Origin

In 2001, UCT had the highest number of international students among South African universities, although Rhodes University had the highest proportion relative to its total enrolment. The growth of international students at UCT during the period 1997 to 2001 and their proportional representation are detailed in Tables 27 and 28.

Table 27. Growth in International Students at UCT: 1997-2001

	1997	1998	1999*	2000	2001
Number	1 630	1 845	2 018	2 179	2 260
Increase		215	173	161	81
% increase per annum		14.4	9.4	8.0	3.7
Average growth 1997 - 2001	8.5 %				
% increase 1997-2001	39%				

Source: Compiled from data provided by IAPO, UCT (October 2001).
1997–2000 data: estimated accuracy 2%; 2001 data more accurate
* 1999 International student numbers are given as 1 857 elsewhere (US 1999b:59)

Table 28. International Students at UCT as a Proportion of Total Enrolment: 1997-2001

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Total Enrolment	15 163	*15 859	16 462	17 139	17 837
International Students	1 630	1 845	2 018	2 179	2 260
% International Students	10.7	**11.7	12.3	12.7	12.7

Source: IAPO, UCT (October 2001).
* 16 002 quoted elsewhere (UCT 1998:8)
** 11 % quoted elsewhere (UCT 1999b:2)

The majority of international students at UCT are from Africa, followed by Europe and the rest of the world. Between 70% and 80% of international students are from Africa, with the bulk from the SADC (64%-71%). Less than one fifth (13%-18%) are from Europe, and about a tenth (7%-10%) are from other parts of the world. This is illustrated in Table 29.

> If you see from the figures, the vast majority of our international students are from [the] SADC. There are over 1 600 of them here, the study abroad programme is 250 to 300" (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

Table 29. Origin of International Students at UCT: 1997-2001

	1997		1998		1999		2000		2001	
	N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%
SADC	1 064	65	1 211	66	*1 286	64	1 440	66	1 603	71
Other Africa	114	7	122	6	174	9	200	9	191	9
Africa Total	1 178	72	1 333	72	1 460	72	1640	75	1 794	79
Europe Total	267	16	299	16	373	18	359	17	303	13
Rest of World	168	10	186	10	176	9	160	7	163	7
Not specified	17	1	27	2	9	1	20	1	0	0
Total	1 630	100	1 845	100	**2 018	100	2 179	100	2 260	100

Source: Compiled from data supplied by UCT IAPO October 2001.
Percentages are rounded off.
* SADC numbers 1202 quoted elsewhere (UCT 1999b:59)
** Total 1 857 quoted elsewhere (UCT 1999b:59)

While a slight increase in student proportions was evident over the five-year period from the SADC (65%-71%) and other African countries, the proportions from Europe and other parts of the world had decreased gradually. The increase in the number of students from Africa was explained by Ms Thomas as such:

> Essentially we want to attract good quality African students rather than the rest of the world. It is South Africa, Africa, then the rest of the world. That is it; it is even in our mission statement.

In accordance with the SADC Protocol, at least 5% of enrolments should be allocated to SADC students (Table 30).

> The Ministry (of Education) encourages institutions to enrol students from SADC countries who will be treated the same as South African students for subsidy purposes. Opportunities are identified in the area of postgraduate study. In 2000, approximately 5% of UCT students were from SADC countries, 15% from other African countries, and 5% from outside Africa (UCT *s.a.*a:7).

Table 30. SADC Students as a Proportion of Total Student Enrolment: 1997-2001

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Total Enrolment	15 163	15 859	16 462	17 139	17 837
SADC Students	1 064	1 211	*1 286	1 440	1 603
% SADC	7.0	7.6	7.8	8.4	9.0

Source: IAPO, UCT (October 2001).
* 1 202 quoted elsewhere (UCT 1999b:59)

10.5.2 Diversity and Level of Study

In 2001, UCT was hosting international students from over 70 countries. The IAPO had ensured that UCT offered "one of the most diverse campuses in the country" (UCT 1999a:59). The breakdown of international students from the SADC, other African countries beyond the SADC, as well as from overseas is indicated below (in Tables 31 to 33). Within the SADC, major home countries in 2001 were Zimbabwe (39%), Botswana (10%), Lesotho (10%), Namibia (10%) and Mauritius (8%) as indicated in Table 31.

Table 31. Country of Origin and Level of Study of SADC Students at UCT: 2001

Country	Undergrad	Postgrad	Total	%
Angola	23	7	30	1.9
Botswana	87	70	157	9.8
DRC	14	12	26	1.6
Lesotho	115	42	157	9.8
Malawi	25	19	44	2.7
Mauritius	102	29	131	8.1
Mozambique	33	19	52	3.2
Namibia	101	53	154	9.6
Swaziland	66	30	96	6.0
Tanzania	19	24	43	2.7
Zambia	56	36	92	5.7
Zimbabwe	491	130	621	38.7
Total SADC	1 132	471	1 603	100.0

Source: Compiled from data provided by IAPO, UCT (October 2001).

From the rest of Africa beyond the SADC, major home countries in 2001 were Kenya (41%) and Uganda (14%), which are both Anglophone Commonwealth member countries in East Africa. Further details are provided in Table 32.

Within the developed world, major home countries were Germany (39%), followed by the United Kingdom (26%) and the United States of America (59%). The majority of United States' students come for short-term Semester Study Abroad Programmes. Table 33 indicates the major home countries for European students.

Table 32. Country of Origin and Level of International Students from Other African Countries at UCT: 2001

COUNTRY	Undergrad	Postgrad	Total	%
Burundi	4	1	5	2.6
Cameroon	2	7	9	4.7
Eritrea	0	15	15	7.9
Ethiopia	3	7	10	5.2
Ghana	6	7	13	6.8
Ivory Coast	1	2	3	1.6
Kenya	39	39	78	40.8
Libya	0	2	2	1.0
Liberia	1	2	3	1.6
Madagascar	1	0	1	0.5
Nigeria	1	13	14	7.3
Reunion	1	1	2	1.0
Rwanda	0	2	2	1.0
Sierra Leone	0	2	2	1.0
Somalia	1	0	1	0.5
Sudan	0	5	5	2.6
Uganda	7	19	26	13.6
Total	67	124	191	100.0*

Source: Compiled from data provided by IAPO, UCT (October 2001).
* Percentages may not add up to 100 due to rounding off.

Table 33. Major Home Countries of European Students at UCT: 2001

Country	Undergrad	Postgrad	Total	Percentage
UK	16	64	80	26
Germany	9	110	119	39
Scandinavia	11	15	26	9
Other European countries	15	63	78	26
Total	51	252	303	100

Source: Compiled from data provided by IAPO, UCT (October 2001).

Overall, 57% of all international students were undergraduates and 43% were postgraduate, as illustrated in Table 34. The majority (93%) of African students are undergraduates (Table 35), whereas the majority (81%) of students from the rest of the world are postgraduates (Table 36).

Table 34. Level of Study of International Students at UCT in 2001

	Undergrad	Postgrad	Total
Number	1 287	973	2 260
Percentage	57	43	100

Source: IAPO, UCT (October 2001).

Table 35. Level of African International Students (*N*=2 260) at UCT: 2001

Region	Undergrad *N*=1 287 (57%)	Postgrad *N*=973 (43%)	Total *N*=2 260
SADC	1 132	471	1 603
Other Africa	67	124	191
Total Africa	1 199	595	1 794
%	93	7	100

Source: Compiled from data provided by IAPO, UCT (October 2001).

Table 36. Level of Study of Non-African International Students (*N*=2 260) at UCT: 2001

Region	Undergrad N=1 287 (57%)	Postgrad N=973 (43%)	Total N=2 260
Europe	51	252	303
Rest of world	37	126	163
Total Europe + rest of world	88	378	466
%	19	81	100

Source: Compiled from data provided by IAPO, UCT (October 2001).

10.5.3 Semester Study Abroad Programme

10.5.3.1 For incoming international students

A total of 205 students from around the world, but mainly the United States of America, participated in a Semester Study Abroad Programme in 2001 at UCT. The programme included a five-day orientation course. The university appointed academic advisors to assist participants, while IAPO provided counselling and ongoing advice to students.

As mentioned before, the Semester Study Abroad Programme generates substantial profit for IAPO:

> We put together a proposal where we could do the study abroad programme as an effectively *income cash-cow* thing and that we would be self-funding within three years, and we asked for bridging finance to see whether it would work over there, and that is really how the study abroad programme started coordinating the preference of short-stay students on campus.
>
> There were quite a number from Princeton coming to us for the past few years and we not only broke even, but made a profit by the end of the first year of the programme.
>
> The Semester *Study Abroad programme brings in income, it funds the whole operation, it also is now beginning to fund opportunities for the UCT* community to be able to take part in exchanges and developmental programmes (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

10.5.3.2 For outgoing local students

In 2001, the number of local students who could go for a Semester Study Abroad (SSA) Programme was very small, in the region of 20 or 30. This programme is still in its development stages:

> That's it probably, it is in its infancy, my main portfolio this year has been trying to get proactive management agreement in place so that there are procedures for selection. I can think of at least three SSA agreements off the top of my head where we have never sent anybody because we haven't organized ourselves properly (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

The main reason given for this is a lack of funds. Another one of the difficulties encountered with sending local students to study outside the country is the issue of credit transfer when they return to UCT, as illustrated below:

> [Credit transfer works] with difficulty [for local students] – historically we have had *terrible difficulty* and that is something that is at faculty level. You have to get buy-in from the faculty in order for any students to be able to study abroad and come back to UCT. Some are better than others I mean, and we put the onus on the students to actually help negotiate.
>
> So a student, if they have been selected or been put forward to do an exchange and even if they are going to do it in terms of as part of their Honours or Masters, and a credit can be counted towards a UCT degree, there is a fair amount of exchange between the student and the course convener or lecturer, and then there is more so with the faculty office.
>
> I mean it is a kind of inclusive process, and we make the students do a lot of the work, essentially the more motivated the student is to go away on an opportunity like that, the more you get out of them. The ones who want everything done for them tend to fall by the wayside, partly because *we just don't have the manpower* to pay that extra attention (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

Some of the money that is generated from the international student dollar fees and paid by the incoming study abroad students is used to help finance outgoing local students, although the priority is on postgraduate students:

> [We are] Starting to [send local students on study abroad programmes], Yes – even if it is just airfares which is actually quite a substantial amount, but firstly I think the postgraduate students. It was never a high priority for UCT undergraduates to be funded to go overseas. We have started that in a small way, I think less than ten have gone to date, so that isn't in 2000 (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

10.5.4 Marketing and Recruitment

For marketing and promotion, UCT relies mainly on word of mouth, but in addition, makes use of the Internet and glossy brochures with a tourist touch for Semester Study Abroad Programmes. UCT's historical reputation, coupled with Cape Town's superb location as a tourist destination, minimises the need for marketing. However, two different groups of student clients are identified for marketing purposes, the short-term occasional and the study abroad group, as well as the long-term degree-seeking students. Hence different marketing approaches are adopted for each group.

In the case of the study abroad students, word of mouth seems to go far and the programme generates substantial profits for UCT:

> I always refer to it as the *cash cow*, but it is not academic tourism; we want serious students here, and they get credit in mainstream UCT courses.
>
> But we have got the edge to a certain extent by virtue of *where our campus is*, by virtue of the fact that we have been previously a very *Eurocentric university* so we have *a name in the first/ developed world*. So, the study abroad programme now feeds on word of mouth because *we don't really actively market it*.
>
> Lara [a staff member] has just returned now from a ten-day trip to a couple of study abroad fairs where we have centralised agreements or programmes. Their students pay full fees and they also pay for extra support. But the interest came from our *brochures which* were there for the very first time and the *word of mouth*, previous students' evaluations with programmes and things like that are wide and consistent. We are getting good numbers of students from these places (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

For degree-seeking students from the SADC and other African countries, some recruitment drives were necessary:

> It is for our full degree, the admissions and recruitment. They recently sent two of their people to Botswana, and we helped fund them to go to Kenya for a particular recruitment there, so we have done that….
>
> As far as the recruitment of the full-degree students, there are two things here: we did have some links within the SADC, and we were in there quite early with the UCT programmes so the name was known.
>
> Increasingly I think students both from within the SADC and from outside the rest of Africa are looking to Nigeria and South Africa. These two countries each have more than one or two universities, unlike the rest of sub-Saharan Africa.
>
> The IMF and the World Bank as well concentrated on the primary education and they have really screwed up the African universities basically. I mean they are on their knees or they were on their knees, but it has put so much pressure on other African universities like South Africa but we don't have enough capacity…
>
> [Regarding post graduates] I think we must start doing some active marketing actually (Interview Ms Thomas October 2001).

10.5.5 Projected Growth

UCT aimed to increase international postgraduate enrolment from 20% in 1997 to above 25% by 2002 according to the Revised SPF: 1997-2000 (UCT 1999a:18). IAPO's contribution to UCT's growth is elaborated upon by Ms Thomas with the following:

> The post-graduate thing is the area that they really want to develop and grow, if you want the research university ethic.
>
> We have 12% this year international, 9% of the total body, the total student body of the SADC students, I am looking at the numbers here; we have just under 1 300 undergraduates and the postgraduates have pulled up to 963; it is much bigger, it is much less of a gap, but a lot of those postgraduates are doing the postgraduate diplomas in the new year, and *we certainly want to focus on getting a much bigger postgraduate student body*. I think the undergraduate student body will probably stay pretty well…
>
> One of the other things is our size, which to a certain extent is limited by our situation, our geographical situation. If we were to merge with another university or a technikon based on the Size and Shape Report[164] and the National Plan (DoE 2001) and all that sort of thing, then it is a total different story; I don't think anybody has any idea really about what is happening.
>
> I am not sure, I mean, yes it could probably grow more on its own but it would probably have to be more online teaching than face to face if it was to expand much bigger in terms of student body…

10.6 CONCLUSION

UCT's institutional profile is that of an established higher education institution that is well endowed with resources. As the oldest university in South Africa, with its roots dating back to 1829, UCT certainly has a long history behind it. Cognizant of its legacy as one of South Africa's top research universities in Science and Engineering and coupled with its new vision to become the foremost research university on the African continent, UCT's adoption of a holistic and balanced internationalisation strategy, especially with a focus on the African continent, certainly places UCT in a unique situation. In the light of these unique circumstances, UCT's greatest strategy in internationalisation has been to strengthen links with African higher education institutions as opposed to European and North American institutions. This has enabled it to build on its strengths through the USHEPiA Programme.

The development of internationalisation at UCT clearly reflects many of the issues which were alluded to in Chapter 3, such as the acknowledgement of the omnipresence of globalisation; selective and proactive engagement with globalisation through establishing a deliberate internationalisation strategy; the creation of networks to facilitate the access to and

[164] CHE (2000a)

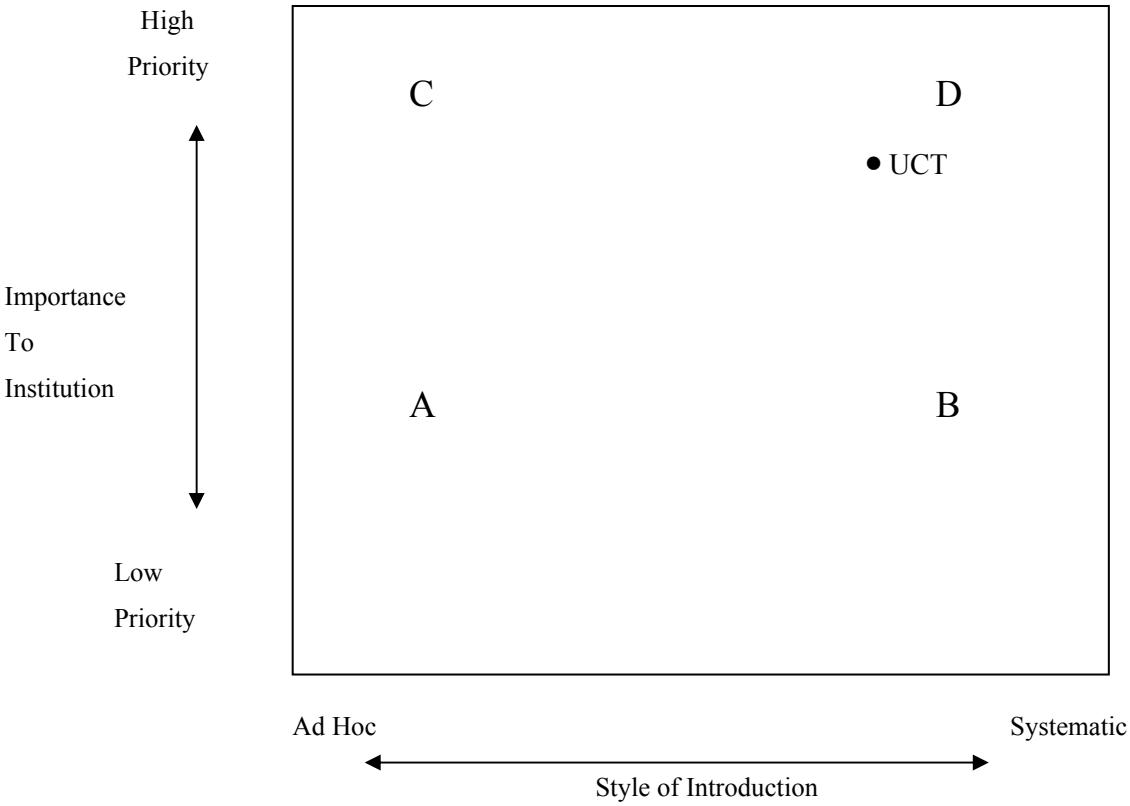
the flow of knowledge; and an awareness of the global context within which Africa, South Africa and more specifically, the South Africa higher education sector need to operate for maximum benefit to the institution and to the continent at large. In positioning itself as a world-class African university, UCT has created a unique niche for itself as a link between African higher education institutions and the global community of higher education scholars; it is a stepping-stone between knowledge in Africa and the so-called developed world. As such, it claims to have become a melting pot for African and Western scholars seeking access to learn and generate new knowledge appropriate to the needs of a continent ravaged by war, famine and the HIV& AIDS pandemic.

The aspiration to become a world-class institution implies embracing the international community of students and scholars, but with the priority being Africa. To this end UCT identified internationalisation as a strategic priority and set up an IAPO, in the first place, to coordinate the USHEPiA programme and later, to provide student support services. In terms of personnel, the IAPO expanded from a Director and an assistant in 1996, to a Director and four staff in 1997, to a Director and seven staff in 2001, offering a one-stop service. This in and of itself is an indication of the phenomenal growth in international student services at UCT in response to the growth in international student numbers. Undoubtedly, the high-level institutional support for the IAPO through a Deputy Vice-Chancellor for International Relations, financial independence, and leadership of the IAPO contributed to its initial success. In addition, its success may be attributed to the fact that despite being flooded by requests for international partnerships, the IAPO was very selective about its choice of partners (unlike UPE, which had a non-selective approach in 2001). Thus internationalisation was a central priority for UCT, and the institution decided to go 'international' in a very systematic manner. In terms of the Davies model (1995) discussed earlier in Chapter 4, UCT's high priority and systematic approach to internationalisation is illustrated in Figure 23.

UCT's trajectory towards internationalisation is an example of good practice, which may be emulated by other South African higher education institutions. However, its historic advantage, reputation as a high-ranking research institution, and superb geographic location in Cape Town, among the top-ten tourist destinations in the world, have contributed immensely to this enterprising spirit and should not be overlooked. It may thus be concluded that internationalisation favours the already advantaged. As noted in Chapter 3, this is one of the less desirable effects of globalisation. So is its tendency to exclude the weak from networks of

power and privilege. If this is true, the advisory role of the state in South Africa becomes all the more imperative, in particular, to protect and guide the HDIs, such as UFH, from 'falling off' the map of international scholarship due to their inability to compete with the more established HAIs and their extensive academic networks.

Figure 23. The University of Cape Town's approach to internationalisation in 2001.



Source: Modified from Davies (1995, 2003).

PART C: EPILOGUE

CHAPTER 11
CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS OF FIVE UNIVERSITIES

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapters 6 through 10 offered discrete case studies of five South African universities, of which three (UPE, Fort Hare and Rhodes) are in the Eastern Cape and two (UCT and Stellenbosch) are in the Western Cape. Chapter 11 provides a detailed cross-case analysis of the state of internationalisation at the five institutions in question. After a quick summary (in Section 11.1) regarding the main features of the case studies, Section 11.2 presents a cross-case analysis of the five institutions, largely in the form of comparative data detailing their student influx and institutional profiles. Section 11.3 is a conclusion pointing to a diversity of approaches to internationalisation among the five South African universities examined in this thesis.

The five universities in question were chosen because they offered a manageable but representative sample of South African higher education institutions by virtue of their very diversity. With respect to the Davies model (1995), they were and are at widely differing levels of development in their approaches to internationalisation. UCT and SU, for example, had fully staffed international offices, whereas UFH and RU had no international offices as such in 2001. In terms of the relative size of the institutions, the number of international students at each university and the diversity of the international student population in terms of age, traditions, size, location and culture, the five universities presented widely varying profiles that are best summed-up by their logo captions and Table 42 in this chapter.

Whereas the principal language of undergraduate instruction at Stellenbosch is Afrikaans, that of UFH, RU and UCT is English, while UPE offers a mixed model – historically Afrikaans, but moving increasingly towards English. UFH, the so-called ‘crucible of African leadership’, was active in the struggle against apartheid and is a historically black university, whereas the other four were historically white universities: RU, for many a place ‘where leaders learn’ and UCT, an aspiring ‘world-class African University’, were both among so-called liberal

universities, while UPE[165], considered to be a Broederbond institution, was re-inventing itself, and SU, associated with many of the South African apartheid leaders, had recast itself as 'your knowledge partner'.

Even in terms of geographic location, all five institutions are very different and reflect the diversity of South Africa itself. At one end of the spectrum, UFH is very much a rural, provincial university located in Alice. RU, which is not as rural, is still provincial and about 150 km from the nearest urban centres, namely, Port Elizabeth and East London. One of the advantages of RU is that its main campus is located in Grahamstown, a quaint university town, that is very accessible to students and located within walking distance of the university. UPE has the advantage of being located in Port Elizabeth, South Africa's fifth largest city. This coastal city has the obvious attraction of scenery and a mild climate all year round. SU, although a larger university, is actually a university-in-a-town located in the small town of Stellenbosch in the idyllic wine lands of the Western Cape. At the other extreme is UCT, which is a very large city university that is spread over the mountain slopes in Cape Town, South Africa's third largest urban centre and the tenth most popular tourist attraction in the world. The section below uses available data for a quantitative analysis and comparison.

11.2 CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS: COMPARATIVE DATA

Using the data available from the institutional case studies, a statistical cross-case comparison may be made. As mentioned previously, comparable data were not available from all the institutions; for example, UPE has only recently started to collate data on international students. The section below provides comparative data regarding student diversity; international students as a proportion of total enrolment per institution; country of origin within SADC and other parts of the African continent; and regions of origin from other parts of the world. To conclude this section, a grid is constructed which compares and contrasts the five institutional case studies by highlighting elements which constitute their unique institutional profiles.

[165] UPE's new name, the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, and its logo caption, 'for tomorrow', give the appearance that the institution is set on a new course by having successfully reinvented itself.

Table 37. International Student Diversity at Selected South African Universities in 2001

	UFH	RU	SU	UCT
REGION	NUMBER OF COUNTRIES			
SADC	7	12	13	12
Other African countries	+/- 5	5	15	18
Countries Outside Africa	4	19	44	44
Total	+/-16	36	72	74

Source: Institutions
No data were available for UPE

Table 37 (above) indicates that SU and UCT, with their well-established International Offices, international reputations and links, and available resources, were able to attract students from a much greater variety of geographic areas, especially from outside Africa, than for example, UFH or RU that are more remotely located.

Table 38. International Students at Selected South African Universities as a Proportion of Total Student Enrolment in 2001

	UFH	UPE	RU	SU	UCT
Total enrolment	5 282	7 494	6 008	18 731	17 837
International Students	418	420	1 106	1 165	2 260
International students as a proportion of total enrolment	8%	6%	18%*	6%	13%

Source: Institutions
* Since international students were only on the Grahamstown campus of Rhodes, a more accurate proportion was 1106/4777 = 23%.

Table 38 (above) indicates that with respect to total enrolments in 2001, UFH had the lowest number (5 282) and SU the highest (18 731) among the five institutions. International student representation was below 10% for SU, UFH and UPE, much higher (around 13%) for UCT and the highest for RU at 18% (23% for the Grahamstown campus). International student numbers on their own do not give the full picture and may be misleading if used out of context however. For example, the high proportion of international students at RU could indicate that more opportunities exist for interaction among local and international students. Probably the 10% proportion is more reflective of other South African universities.

The next table (Table 39) compares SADC student numbers on each of the four campuses and gives a breakdown by country of origin within the SADC. These figures are significant because SADC students comprise the majority of South Africa's international student population. Further, the presence of sizable groups of students from specific countries at specific institutions could be an indication of historic, language, cultural, socio-political and other links between that country and the respective institution. Some analysis of these factors is proposed below.

Table 39. SADC Students at Selected South African Universities in 2001

COUNTRY	UFH	RU	SU	UCT
Angola	–	2	4	30
Botswana	6	23	19	157
DRC	–	1	6	26
Lesotho	130	25	15	157
Malawi	5	16	11	44
Mauritius	–	20	7	131
Mozambique	–	5	3	52
Namibia	3	77	257	154
Seychelles	–	–	1	–
Swaziland	7	20	15	96
Tanzania	–	16	5	43
Zambia	1	20	26	92
Zimbabwe	237	631	68	621
SADC subtotal	389	856	437	1603

Source: Institutions
No data were available for UPE

Evident from Table 39 (above) is that within SADC, the largest groups of international students come from Zimbabwe and Namibia followed by Botswana and Lesotho. The bulk of SADC students attending UFH, RU and UCT were Zimbabweans, followed by Basotho[166] and Namibians, whereas at SU Namibians constituted the largest SADC contingent. The Namibian connection with SU may be due to cultural and historic factors. For example,

[166] Sesotho speaking people or nationals of Lesotho are known as Basotho.

Afrikaans is still the language of communication among a large proportion of (White) Namibians. In addition, a large proportion of White Namibians are German speaking, and Afrikaans is closer to their mother-tongue than English. Distance-wise, SU is probably the nearest South African university to Namibia. Rhodes and UCT, for their part, have enjoyed a historical connection with Zimbabwe, formerly Rhodesia, because of colonial links. In the case of UFH, Robert Mugabe, the President of Zimbabwe at the time of the study, was a former student, and many Zimbabwean students at UFH were supported by government scholarships.

Student numbers from Francophone SADC countries, such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, Seychelles and Mauritius, as well as Lusophone countries, such as Angola and Mozambique, remain very low despite their geographic proximity to South Africa and their being part of a common customs union or regional bloc. The exception is the relatively large number of Mauritian students at UCT who enrol there mainly for reasons of access to programmes in medicine and engineering, which are not offered by UFH, RU or UPE. The data indicated a negligible number of Mauritian students at SU; this is probably related to the use of Afrikaans at SU.

From African countries beyond the SADC (Table 40), the highest numbers of international students were from Kenya and Uganda and were attending UCT and Rhodes, which may be due to the language of use at those universities and colonial links. SU has a special programme in lexicography for the Gabonais students and a Master's programme for Eritrean students. With the exception of the Gabonais and Eritrean groups, which have tailor-made programmes at SU, the data in Table 40 further indicate that the majority of non-SADC African students at RU, SU and UCT originate from Anglophone Commonwealth countries, such as Kenya and Uganda, and from East African countries, for example, Rwanda, which are Francophone. This indicates that language, colonial links and geographic proximity influence the selection of a host country. These data also reflect UCT and RU's student recruitment drives in East Africa.

Not surprisingly, the student numbers from Francophone countries remains low; in the case of Francophone countries both within and beyond the SADC, as indicated in Tables 39 and 40 respectively. In general, the numbers of students from West Africa were very small. This may be explained by geographic distance and possibly because South Africa was still regarded to

have some degree of segregation and apartheid despite the change in government. South Africans' xenophobic attitudes against Africans from other parts of the continent have not helped this situation.

Table 40. Origin of International Students from African Countries beyond the SADC at Selected South African Universities in 2001

COUNTRY	UFH*	RU	SU	UCT
SADC subtotal	389	856	437	1603
Burkina Faso		–	1	5
Cameroon		5	2	10
Congo		1	–	–
Egypt		–	1	–
Eritrea		–	40	15
Ethiopia			6	10
Gabon			30	–
Ghana		12	7	13
Ivory Coast		–	–	3
Kenya		43	16	77
Libya		–	–	2
Liberia		–	1	3
Madagascar		–	1	1
Nigeria		–	11	14
Reunion		–	–	2
Rwanda		-	14	2
Sierra Leone		–	–	2
Somalia		–	1	1
Sudan		–	5	5
Uganda		29	15	26
Other African countries		4	–	–
Other Africa Subtotal	25	94	151	191
Total Africa	414	950	588	1794

Source: Institutions; No data were available for UPE; * UFH data was not disaggregated by country

Table 41 provides a breakdown of international students from all African countries as a proportion of total international student enrolments at the four universities. The data are analysed in terms of SADC and non-SADC proportions. Table 41 indicates that whereas nearly all the international student population at UFH originated from Africa, just over a half (51%) of the international students at SU were from Africa. This proportion was about eight out of ten (80%) for RU and UCT. The data were in the reverse order with respect to students from African countries: the highest proportion (13%) of non-SADC African students was at SU, and the lowest (6%) was at UFH, with similar proportions at RU (8%) and UCT (9%). Conversely, SADC students comprised the majority (93%) of international students at UFH, while they comprised the lowest proportion (38%) at SU.

Table 41. African Students as a Proportion of International Students at Selected South African Universities in 2001

ORIGIN	UFH	RU	SU	UCT
Total number of international students	418 100%	1106 100%	1165 100%	2260 100%
SADC	389	856	437	1603
SADC students as a proportion of international students	93%	73%	38%	71%
Other African countries	25	94	151	191
Students from other African countries as a proportion of international students	6%	8%	13%	9%
SADC + Other Africa	414	950	588	1794
All African international students as a proportion of total international students	99%	81%	51%	80%

Source: Institutions
No data were available for UPE

With regard to providing administrative support for international students, all five universities comprising the case studies had administrative structures, albeit in different forms or degrees, although only SU and UCT had dedicated international offices. SU had the most elaborate International Office organogram with 14 staff members, followed by UCT, which had an eight-member International Academic Programmes Office (IAPO). Both of these universities were among the first South African universities to establish International Offices. UPE had initiated its International Office in 2000, to a large extent because of the need for a new

revenue stream. Rhodes had an International Student Officer, but international students are handled along with other students in an integrated manner, in other words, largely as though they were South African students. UFH did not have a separate International Office, but international students were under the portfolio of the TELP Office for the time being. Thus, depending on how long the International Office had been in place and the number of staff employed, the quality and variety of services offered to international students differed. On the whole, a correlation existed between the success of the internationalisation effort and the level of staff and office support for that effort, although RU appeared to be an exception to this rule.

Table 42 provides, in summary form, a profile of the five universities studied, including international representation at these universities, while Figure 24 applies the categories to the adapted Davies model (1995). From this diagram, it is evident that among the five case studies variations in institutional approaches existed to internationalisation in 2001. These approaches have already been referred to in the conclusions to Chapters 6 to 10 and are summarised in Table 43.

Table 42. Overall Comparative Data (2001)

	UFH	**RU**	**UPE**	**SU**	**UCT**
Size	Small	Small	Medium	Large	Large
Nature	Mainly teaching	Teaching & research	Mainly teaching	Teaching & research	Teaching & research
Total enrolment In 2001	5 282	6008	7 494	18 731	17 837
International Student enrolment	418	1106	420	1 165	2 260
I.S. as % of total	8.0	18	6	6.2	12.7
No of countries of origin of IS	Not available	34	Not available	74	70+
Location	Remote rural agricultural	Peri-urban	Urban	Agricultural	Urban
Setting	Small campus in a small town	University town	University in a city	University town	University in a city
Nearest town	In Alice	In Grahamstown	-	In Stellenbosch	-
Nearest city	60km to East London/ Buffalo City	150 km to nearest city	In Port Elizabeth/ NMMM	45 minutes from Cape Town	In Cape Town
Accessibility	Difficult	Relatively easy	Easy	Relatively easy	Easy
Transport	Not on main routes. By road from nearest town	By road or rail from nearest city	On main route for road, rail and air transport	By road or rail from Cape Town	Hub for road, rail and air transport

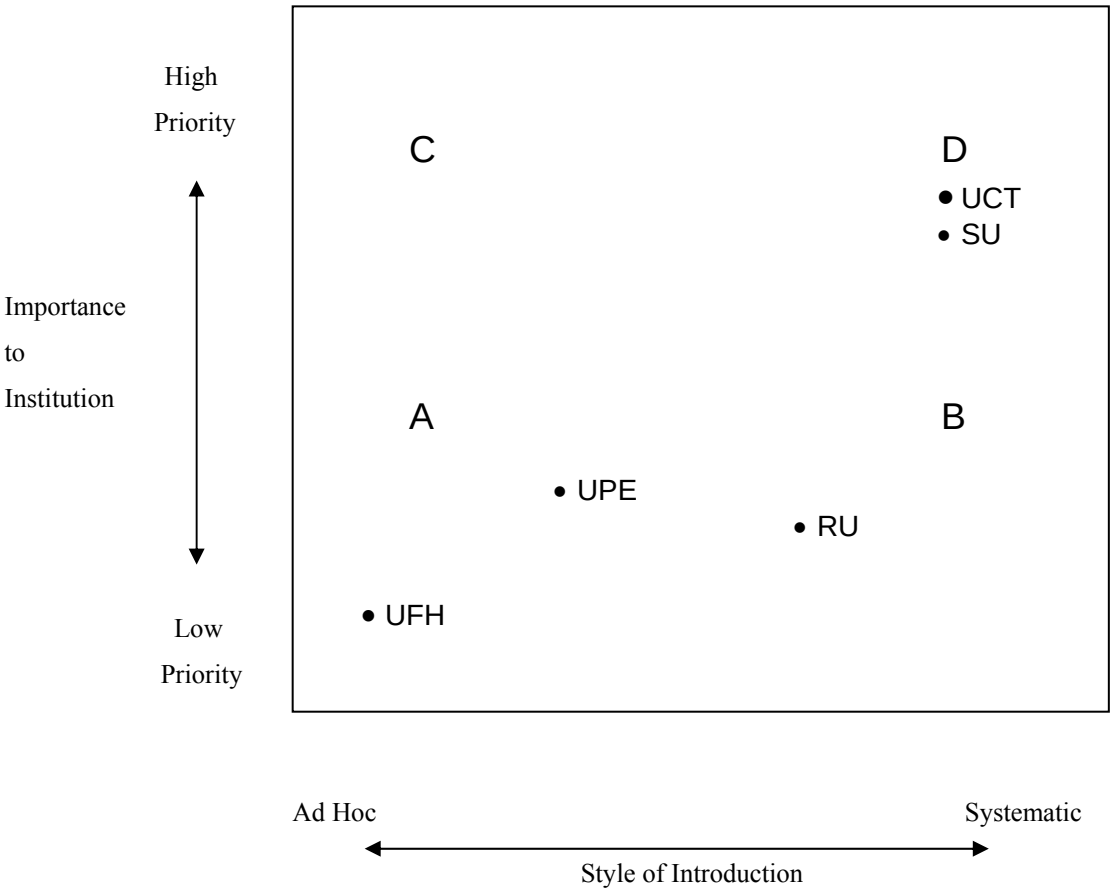
Table 42 *continued*

	UFH	**RU**	**UPE**	**SU**	**UCT**
Tourist destination	Rarely	Occasionally	National & international tourist destination	National & international tourist destination	Among the world's top-10 tourist destination cities
Natural endowments	In a bio-diverse ecosystem,	Farm land/ historic Settler town	Coastal scenery	Wine land terrain	Coastal & mountainous scenery
Economic activity	Subsistence farming	Commercial farming	Tourism: land & sea, game farms, port, real estate	Tourism, commercial farming, wineries	Tourism: land & sea, farming, fisheries, port, real estate
Historical significance of town/ city		1820 Settler post	1820 Settler post	Wine land centre	South Africa's mother city, seat of legislation
Was internationalisation a priority in 2001?	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Was there an internationalisation policy?	No	Under review	No, in formulation	Yes	Yes
Rationales	Moral	Cultural/ educational	Mainly economic, strongly market driven	Educational/ cultural	Economic & educational
Marketing and recruitment methods	None	No aggressive marketing	Strong marketing and recruitment drives in Europe. Make use of agents and own staff	No aggressive marketing	Targeted recruitment mainly in SADC and East Africa. Against the idea of agents.
Growth in student numbers	Very slow growth	No capacity To increase	Sharp increase	Steady increase	Steady increase

Table 43. Institutionalisation of Approaches to Internationalisation at Five South African Universities in 2001

INSTITUTIONAL APPROACH	UFH	RU	UPE	SU	UCT
Style of introduction	*Ad hoc*	Somewhat systematic	*Ad hoc*	Systematic	Systematic
Central/ marginal	Marginal	Marginal	Marginal	Somewhat central	Somewhat central
Importance to institution	Low priority	Low priority	High priority	Priority	High priority

Figure 24. The modified Davis model for institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation applied to five South African universities in 2001 by Rouhani.



Of course, the five institutions have developed in many respects since 2001 when this research was conducted. Apart from the changes at RU and UPE, the above pattern more or less remains. The Davies' model (1995) has been a practical conceptual framework to use in order to reflect upon the dynamics of internationalisation among these institutions.

11.3 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to provide a detailed cross-case analysis of the state of internationalisation at the five institutions. Having undertaken a comparative cross-case analysis, it emerged that each institution has had a unique history and circumstances which have shaped its path to internationalisation, as well as the more active approach it has or has

not adopted to internationalisation. These factors have contributed to the unique location of each institution in terms of the Davies model (1995) and its trajectory to internationalisation.

While the comparative data provide an understanding of the state of internationalisation at the five universities studied, they do not put a human face on that information. What is missing is a student voice or perspective that explains the factors that influenced the choice of a South African university destination. Chapter 12 will offer that perspective.

CHAPTER 12
VARIABLES WHICH AFFECT STUDENT MOBILITY TO SOUTH AFRICA

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to explore the variables that affect international student mobility to South Africa from the perspective of students. These variables are analysed in the context of international student enrolment trends within the South African higher education sector during the period 1994 to 2001. Another aim of the chapter is to explore the relevance of Altbach's (1998) push-pull model regarding the variables that affect the decision to study abroad and to extend the model in relation to the variables for student mobility to South Africa.

Following the Introduction, Section 12.2 examines international student flows globally and more specifically within South Africa. First, Section 12.2.1 provides an overview of the global international student market. Next, Section 12.2 analyses numerical data with respect to international student enrolments in South African higher education institutions in order to answer the questions 'Where do they come from?' and 'Which universities do they select?'.

Section 12.3 outlines variables associated with the decision to study abroad using the Altbach (1998) model as a framework. Next, Section 12.4 examines factors which affect student mobility to South Africa. This section is divided into two sub-sections. Section 12.4.1 focuses on the decision by international students to select South Africa as a host country while Section 12.4.2 analyses students' reasons for selecting specific universities with respect to the five case studies. Section 12.5 outlines a number of repel factors associated with studying in South Africa. The rest of the chapter attempts to link the variables associated with studying in South Africa to the conceptual framework discussed earlier in Chapter 3. In Section 12.6, two models are developed which help to expand Altbach's (1998) model and conceptualise the variables associated with studying in a host country in general. The chapter concludes with Section 12.7.

12.1.1 Methodological Note

This chapter relies on both quantitative and qualitative data. With respect to statistical data about international student enrolments, raw data were obtained from the Department of

Education and directly from institutions. These were complimented by data gathered from ten South African universities in an EPU (1999) study in which I was also involved. My experience suggests that in most cases, the data obtained directly from the institutions were more accurate and reliable than those provided by the Department of Education. Therefore, where possible, Department of Education data supplemented institutional data. In addition, that not all universities kept accurate records of international student numbers must be born in mind. Thus the figures provided should be taken as close approximations. The South African Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS) needs to take this into consideration with respect to improving its data gathering and analysis.

Qualitative data were all gathered directly by me. Interviews were conducted with students and student leaders – both local and international – as well as key staff members at each of the five universities. These staff and students were selected in consultation with the respective International Offices using purposive sampling as a guiding principle. The staff included both teaching and administrative staff such as the Deans of Students, Residence Wardens, Deans of Faculties, Heads of Departments, Professors and International Office personnel who either taught or advised international students regularly. The (international) students were purposefully selected in response to my request to interview senior international students as well as members of the Student Representative Council (SRC) and those serving on international student organisations. Further details of the student sample at each institution are given below.

As mentioned previously in the chapter about methodology (Chapter 4), the student interviews were conducted individually, in pairs or in small focus groups, while staff members were interviewed individually. Interviews were recorded on tape, transcribed and analysed as explained in detail in Chapter 4. The interview schedules and list of interviewees are attached in Appendices C and D respectively. For the sake of brevity, very specific excerpts from interviews have been quoted in this chapter.

At the University of Fort Hare, a sample of approximately 20 full-time, degree-seeking students were interviewed. These constituted three members of the SRC; five members of the International Student Desk, an organisation established by the SRC to assist international students; and a focus group of about 12 postgraduate (international African) students enrolled

for a postgraduate programme in Development and Policy Studies, the majority of whom were Zimbabwean.

In 2001, the number of international students at the University of Port Elizabeth was very small and almost all were undergraduate students. Thus, not too many students from which a good sample could be selected were available. Because the International Office was also relatively new, it was not able to recommend any students to be interviewed, other than a member of the SRC. Therefore, the student sample was identified by me in consultation with the SRC member and through my personal contact with international students. About ten degree-seeking students were interviewed including the newly appointed SRC portfolio holder for international students.

At Rhodes University approximately 20 local and international student leaders were recommended by the International Student Office at Rhodes University and interviewed. Excluding international students, the South African student participants at Rhodes University were recommended because of their interaction with many (postgraduate) international students through academic programmes or involvement as Student Society executive members. Approximately ten students were also interviewed at Stellenbosch University and at the University of Cape Town. These were mainly SRC executive members and a few senior (international) students and were recommended by the International Office at each institution.

12.2 INTERNATIONAL STUDENT FLOWS

12.2.1 The Global International Student Market

As stated previously (in Chapter 2), it has been estimated that in the 1980s, globally, at least one million students were studying at tertiary institutions outside their home countries (Altbach 1991). It was further estimated that by the year 2000, the number of internationally mobile university students would be over two million (Bowles & Funk 1996). Since the 1970s, foreign student numbers worldwide have been on the increase and reached about two and a half million in 2006[167]. A particularly rapid growth was noted during the 1990s; for

[167] Institute of International Education, Atlas of Student Mobility. www.atlas.iienetwork.org accessed on 13 November 2006.

example, the number of foreign students world-wide increased by 11.2% from 1991 to 1992 (Bowles & Funk 1996).

Nearly 70% of all international students come from less developed countries, and 80% of these students study in the OECD region (Wagner & Schnitzer 1991), in particular, in the USA, the UK, and Australia. The USA is the undisputed leading host country, with just over 30% (481 280) of the total international student market (Bowles & Funk 1996). In the early 1990s, there were about 180 000 African students engaged in study abroad (UNESCO, 1994).

In comparison to proportions of 10% for France and Belgium, 5% for Germany, 4.2% for the UK and 2.8%[168] for the USA in the early 1990s (Altbach 1991:307), international student representation at South African universities was relatively small[169] up to the early 1990s. However, South Africa's case is unique; having been a relatively unexplored territory to the international community during the time of apartheid, the country suddenly acquired immense potential as an emerging destination for international study with the ending of apartheid and the opening up of the country.

Table 44 provides comparative data regarding international students as a proportion of national higher education enrolment in selected host countries during the early 1990s. A number of deductions may be drawn from the statistics. First, although South Africa was a latecomer to the global international student market, in terms of proportional representation (2.1%), it surpassed countries such as Japan (1.9%), China (0.6%) and India (0.3%) that have much larger higher education systems and that have been among the top-ten host countries to international students. Second, if the same rate of growth in international student numbers is maintained, South Africa is likely to surpass countries such as the USA in terms of proportional representation[170] of international students.

[168] 3% according to the Open Doors 97/98 (*s.a.*) Report.
[169] In the 1990s, international students comprised 2-3% of total higher education enrolment. However this figure grew rapidly to 7% in 2001.
[170] In fact, growth in international student numbers was rather high, such that by 2001, international student proportions had risen to just under 7% of the total higher education enrolment (CHET 2003).

Table 44. International Students as a Percentage of National Higher Education Enrolments in Selected Host Countries: 1992

Country	International Students	Total Enrolment	Int. Students as % of total
Switzerland	24 412	89 031	27.4
Belgium	27 378	111 845	24.5
UK	88 141	468 095	18.8
France	139 963	1 246 989	11.2
Germany	1 116 474	1 539 463	7.6
USA	419 585	14 360 965	2.9
S. Africa	4 603	222 675	2.1
Japan	45 066	2 311 618	1.9
China	12 577	2 124 121	0.6
India	12 802	4 070 676	0.3

Source: From Davis (1995), except for data on South Africa which were obtained by the author.

12.2.2 International Student Enrolments at South African Universities

12.2.2.1 Proportion of national higher education enrolment

As stated earlier, since the birth of the new political dispensation, South Africa has become a popular destination for international students. For example, Bunting (1998), Rouhani and Kishun (1999) and Rouhani and Paterson (1996) have noted a sharp increase (25%) in international student totals at South African universities from 1988 to 1996 (in EPU 1999). Clearly this type of educational expansion invites closer examination, particularly in an era in which the forces of globalisation should be exploited to the advantage of developing economies such as South Africa.

In the 1990s, the number of international students at South African public, contact-mode universities grew rapidly from about 4 600 to 8 400. In 1999, there were 8 387 international students enrolled at South African public universities (Table 45). This constituted 2.4% of the 351 987 students registered at South African universities. This proportion has been on the increase from about 2% (4 603) in 1992.

Table 45. Growth in International Student Enrolments at South African Universities: 1992-1999

	1992	1996	1999
International student numbers	4 603	5 589	8 387
Total university enrolments	222 675	361 232	351 987
IS as a % of total enrolments	2.1%	1.5%	2.4%

Source: 1999 – Compiled from Department of Education raw data (March 2001), headcount figures and directly from institutions; 1996 – Rouhani (1998b); 1992 – Rouhani & Paterson (1996).

The above figure of 8 387 excludes international students registered at distance education universities (DEUs), namely, UNISA and VISTA. If one includes this cohort of 8 872, the total number of international students is then 17 259[171]. This constitutes 5% of the total university enrolments. By 2001, international students proportion had risen to just under 7% of the total higher education enrolment (CHET 2003), with 8% at universities and only 2% at technikons (Pillay *et al*. 2003). Thus, in relation to major host countries, South Africa would be ranked sixth after, Switzerland, Belgium, the UK, France and Germany, as indicated in Table 44.

12.2.2.2 Geographic origin of international students

The earliest available data (Rouhani & Paterson 1996) indicate that in the early 1990s, eight out of every ten international students at South African universities were from the 'rest' of the African continent, and at least 50% were from Southern Africa, namely, SADC countries. This indicates international student mobility between countries on the continent, with South Africa emerging as a regional academic metropole. This trend is supported by an EPU (1999) study[172]. In terms of geographic origin, in 1998, two-thirds (67%) of international students at South African universities came from the African continent, with the majority (62%) from the neighbouring SADC region. The second largest group (15%) is from Europe, followed by 11% from Asia and about 4% from the Americas, mainly North America. Students from Australasia, Oceania and South America constitute much smaller proportions. These trends

[171] The EPU (1999) study gives the number for 1998 at about 17 774.
[172] The EPU (1999) data were collected from the University of the Western Cape (UWC), the University of Witwatersrand (Wits), the University of Natal, the University of the Orange Free State, Rand Afrikaans University, Potchefstroom University, the University of Pretoria, Vista University, the University of South Africa, and the University of Durban Westville.

are in agreement with international trends with respect to the distribution of international students by region of origin and are illustrated in Table 46 (EPU 1999).

Table 46. Geographic Origin of International Students Registered at South African Universities: 1998

Origin	Proportion (%)
SADC	62
Other Africa	6
Europe	15
Asia	11
North &South America	4
Australasia/ Oceania	2
Total	100

Source: EPU (1999) based on data obtained directly from 10 universities.

Table 46 is expanded in Table 47, which provides the geographic origin of international students during the period 1996 to 1998. This shows a steady increase in the number of international students in the EPU (1999) sample from 8 506 in 1996 to 10 732 in 1998. In addition, Table 46 shows that the largest group of students is from the SADC region. The second largest student cluster hails from Europe, such as the Netherlands and Britain, which share a historical relationship with South Africa. Students from Asia and North America follow this. By contrast, students from South America, Oceania and Australasia constitute small proportions of international students. In this respect, the data are consistent with international trends regarding the distribution of international students by region of origin. This shows low sending rates for South America and Australia, but much higher sending rates for Asia, Europe and North America (EPU 1999).

Table 47. Geographic Origin of International Students: 1996-1998

REGION	1996	%	1997	%	1998	%
SADC	5 469	64.2	6 302	62	6 657	62
Other Africa	386	4.5	570	5.6	633	5.8
Europe	1 388	16.4	1 406	14	1 577	14.6
Asia	786	9.3	1 264	12.5	1 224	11.4
North America	290	3.4	340	3.4	406	3.7
South America	34	0.3	35	0.3	52	0.5
Australasia/ Oceania	153	1.7	168	1.6	183	1.8
Total	8 506	100	10 085	100	10 732	100

Source: EPU (1999) based on data obtained directly from 10 universities.

12.2.2.3 Distribution among South African universities[173]

A distinct pattern of international student enrolment may be observed among South African public universities – contact and distance modes – first with respect to the historical division of universities according to race, and second, with respect to language. Data for 2001 indicate that just over a half (51%) of the students were registered at the distance education universities (DEUs), namely, UNISA and Vista, 43% at historically White universities (HWUs), and a small proportion (6%) were at the HBUs (Table 48).

The DEU proportion of 51% is in contrast to the national enrolment proportions which indicate that contact tuition is the preferred mode of study for local students. In 1999, of the total South African higher education enrolments (564 000), 46% of the students were at contact universities and only 19% were at distance education universities (CHE *s.a.*). It would seem obvious that distance education could be pursued as an option if universities want to recruit more international students without reducing access for local students. For contact mode institutions, the data are tabulated in Table 49.

[173] In this section, only one set of data is used. No other study has been conducted on international student distribution among South African universities to which my data could be compared.

Table 48. Distribution of International Students Among South African Contact and Distance Education Universities: 1999

	Number	% of total
HEUs*	4 805	28
HAUs*	2 612	15
HWUs* – subtotal	7 417	43
HBUs	970	6
Total: contact mode	8 387	49
DEUs	8 872	51
Total	17 259	100

Source: Calculated from raw data obtained from the Department of Education in 2001 except for * which was obtained directly from the institutions.

Table 49. Distribution of International Students Among South African Contact Universities: 1999

	Number	% of total
HEUs*	4 805	57
HAUs*	2 612	31
HWUs – subtotal	7 417	88
HBUs – subtotal	970	12
Total	8 387	100

Source: Department of Education (2001), except for those indicated with *.

First, the broad profile of distribution which emerges is that the majority of international students were enrolled at the HWUs. In 1999, 7 417 or 88% of international students were registered at these institutions, compared to 970 or 12% at the HBUs. This is in line with previous trends of 69% in 1992 (Rouhani & Paterson 1996) and 88% in 1998 (Rouhani 1999) at the HWUs. It is therefore evident that the international student influx has been on the increase at the HWUs.

Conversely, it may be deduced that the HBUs have become further marginalised as a result of globalisation. However, the declining international student enrolments at HBUs parallel the decline in local student enrolments. The HBUS experienced a sharp and severe decline in local student enrolments of 20% between 1995 and 1999. In the same period, the historically

white Afrikaans universities experienced the highest growth (39%), while UNISA also experienced a negative growth rate of 16% (CHE *s.a.*).

Second, a greater proportion (57%) of international students attend historically English universities (HEU) as opposed to 31% at historically Afrikaans universities (HAU), this was the case in the past. Previous studies indicate that a HEU:HAU distribution of international students was in the region of 3:1 in 1992 (Rouhani & Paterson 1996) and about 2:1 in 1998 (Rouhani 1999). Therefore, that the international student enrolment trends among the historically English and Afrikaans universities are still in favour of HEUs may be concluded. This trend may be attributed to language of instruction and institutional cultures.
From the above discussion, the following conclusions may be inferred: First, the number of international students at South African public universities increased steadily in the decade of the 1990s. For contact mode universities, the numbers increased from about 4 000 in 1992 to 8 400 in 1999. Thus, the numbers have increased twofold over the last decade. Second, distance education is the preferred mode of study for 51% of international students. If one includes the distance education universities, the numbers of international students increased to about 17 300. Therefore, distance education may be pursued as an option if the higher education sector aims to increase access to international students without reducing access to local students. Third, among contact mode institutions, with respect to the distribution between HBUs and HWUs, the majority (88%) of international students were registered at the HWUs. Fourth, within these institutions, the international student distribution is in favour of the HEUs.

12.2.2.4 Diversity: International students as a proportion of institutional enrolment

One significant indicator of campus diversity and internationalisation is international students as a proportion of institutional enrolment. Table 50 indicates that among the HEUs, Natal and Wits universities had the lowest proportion of international students, while Rhodes University had the highest proportion (21%). This figure is relatively high; in fact, in this respect, Rhodes University is an exception, not just among South African universities, but even internationally. This is one of the reasons why it was not aiming to recruit more international students. UCT (12%) and Wits (5%) were ranked second and third respectively among South African universities in terms of international student diversity. These trends are attributable to

historical factors, namely, their geographic locations, curriculum offerings and institutional profiles, as were outlined in Chapters 6 to 10.

With respect to international students as a proportion of institutional enrolment, Table 51 indicates that the average proportion (2%) was much lower for the HAUs, with a maximum of 5% for Stellenbosch, 3% for the University of Pretoria and only 1% for RAU, UPE and Potchefstroom. Given the fact that both the universities of Stellenbosch and Pretoria are among the top research institutions in the country, it is interesting to see that in terms of international student proportions they were on par with Natal (4%) and Wits (5%). However, the lower enrolment trend at Afrikaans universities was not unexpected, since most international students are English speaking.

Comparing Tables 50 and 51, the average proportion for HEUs was 8%, four times higher than the 2% for HAUs, which suggests that on the whole, HEUs had a more diverse international student population than the HAUs. This trend can most probably be attributed to the medium of instruction and institutional cultures at these two groups of institutions.

For the HBUs (Table 52), international students remain low as a proportion of total enrolment and are comparable to HAUs. The exception is the Medical University of South Africa (MEDUNSA), which due to its specialised curriculum offerings, attracts students from the SADC as well. With a proportion of 9%, MEDUNSA had the third highest international student diversity indicator among South African universities.

Overall, the institutions with the lowest proportion of international students were UPE and Potchestroom – among the HAUs – each with 1%, and the HBUs, University of Zululand, University of the North and Vista, each with under 1% respectively. The average proportion for the HEUs was 8%, four times that of the HAUs which was 2%. For the HBUs the proportion was 3% and 6% for DEUs. This indicates that the HEUs were the most popular choice for international students in South Africa[174]. The figures also indicate that the HEUs have the most diverse student population on their campuses.

[174] as opposed to those who study by correspondence and who may be outside the country.

Table 50. International Students as a Proportion of Institutional Enrolment at Historically English Universities (HEUs): 1999

University	International students (I.S.)	Total enrolment	I.S. as % of total
Rhodes	1 141	5 522	21
UCT	1 857*	15 139*	12
WITS	857*	16 980*	5
Natal	950*	21 729*	4
Total	4 805	59 370	8

* Obtained directly from the institution.
Source: Department of Education (2001).

Table 51. International Students as a Proportion of Institutional Enrolment at Historically Afrikaans Universities (HAUs): 1999

University	International students (I.S.)	Total enrolment	I.S. as % of total
UPretoria	789*	26 723*	3
Stellenbosch	856*	18 248	5
UFS	433*	10 789	4
RAU	163*	19 047	1
UPE	200*	17 020	1
Potchefstroom	171*	17 367	1
Total	2 612	109 194	2

* Data obtained directly from institutions.
Source: Department of Education (2001).

Clearly, while some institutions such as Rhodes University have reached the 'ceiling' as far as international student proportions are concerned, others must increase their intake should they wish to improve diversity. Of course, this needs to be viewed against the broader recruitment of local students within the recommendations of the National Plan (DoE 2001), the emerging shape and size of the South African higher education landscape in general, and more broadly, South Africa's commitments to the SADC and NEPAD.

Table 52. International Students as a Proportion of Institutional Enrolment at Historically Black Universities (HBUs):1999

University	International students (I.S.)	Total enrolment	I.S. as % of total
MEDUNSA	337	3 774	9
UWC	313	9 453	3
UDW	157	8 083	2
UNIZULU	152	6 192	<1
UNorth	11	10 238	<1
Total	970	37 740	3

No data was provided by the Universities of North West, Transkei, Venda and Fort Hare. Thus the above total is an underestimate for HBUs.
Source: Department of Education (2001).

In addition, the above trends indicate that the HBUs are not only disadvantaged because of dwindling enrolment from local students, but they are further at a loss with respect to international student enrolments. Hence their failure to adopt student-friendly policies has marginalised them further as potential role players in the international arena. Some consequences of this are lack of diversity and loss of potential revenue from international students.

With respect to the DEUs (Table 53), UNISA has a fairly diverse international student population and was the third most diverse (7%) in relation to other South African universities. This may be attributed to UNISA being one of the world's ten largest distance education institutions and reaching beyond many borders, even during the apartheid years. UNISA is likely to increase its market share of international students after its merger with Technikon South Africa, which will expand its profile.

The EPU (1999) report has undertaken detailed statistical analyses of other trends in international student enrolments such as main fields of study, level of study, and gender. Therefore, these aspects were not addressed by this research.

Table 53. International Students as a Proportion of Institutional Enrolment at Distance Education Universities: 1999

University	International students (I.S.)	Total enrolment	I.S. as % of total
UNISA	8 858	119 388	7
Vista	14	27 093	<1
Total	8 872	146 481	6

Source: Dept of Education (2001).

12.3 VARIABLES THAT AFFECT THE DECISION TO STUDY ABROAD

Earlier in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3), the 'push-pull' theories of migration that attribute the causes of migration to a combination of 'push factors' that impel people to leave their home countries, and 'pull factors' that attract them to the host country were introduced. Examples of neo-classical economic equilibrium theories were mentioned and criticized as being essentially individualistic and ahistorical. In this section, an example of a push-pull model that was proposed by Altbach (1998) regarding variables that affect the decision to study abroad by Third World students is used. This model is expanded in Section 12.6.

The factors that contribute to the selection of host country by international students are numerous. This is evident from a typology of international student mobility, which builds on decision-making theories of mobility that were advanced by Altbach (1998). He links mobility to positive and negative factors associated with the place of origin, positive and negative factors associated with the place of destination, intervening obstacles, and personal factors. Through this framework, Altbach presents a push-pull analogy and suggests personal factors and opportunities for personal advancement as the principal factors that give rise to international student mobility. These factors, presented in Table 51, draw on motivational elements such as available opportunities, motives, expectations and incentives to account for student mobility.[175]

In discussing Altbach's model (Table 54), the current research confirms that the push factors hold true in the case of international students from (Southern) African countries. This applies more especially to points 2, 4 and 6 and somewhat less so to point 1 in the table above. Many

[175] This paragraph is an excerpt from Rouhani & Cross (2002).

students from SADC countries study in South Africa because particular courses and programmes are not offered in their countries due to a lack of resources and skills. For this group, several other factors strengthen the arguments to study in South Africa. These include concerns about the quality of professional degrees in SADC countries, concerns about the quality and mode of instruction at higher education institutions, budgetary constraints faced by SADC countries in promoting higher education, and poor research infrastructure and low research output (EPU 1999). In addition to the above variables, other factors pertain which motivate student mobility to South Africa. These are discussed in Sections 12.4 and 12.5. It will be observed that while the Altbach (1998) model above attributes the variables affecting the decision to study abroad to personal factors, my model explores the role of wider structural factors in the process.

Table 54. Variables Affecting the Decision to Study Abroad by Third World Students (Altbach, 1998)

Key variables pertaining to home country (push factors)	Key variables pertaining to host country (pull factors)
1. Availability of scholarships for study abroad.	1. Availability of scholarships to international students.
2. Poor quality educational facilities.	2. Good quality education.
3. Lack of research facilities.	3. Availability of advanced research facilities.
4. Lack of appropriate educational facilities and/or failure to gain admission to local institutions.	4. Availability of appropriate educational facilities with likely offer of admission.
5. Politically uncongenial situation.	5. Congenial political situation.
6. Enhanced value (in the market place) of a foreign degree	6. Congenial socio-economic and political environment.
7. Discrimination against minorities.	7. Opportunity for general international life experience.
8. Recognition of inadequacy of existing forms of traditional education	

12.4 FACTORS WHICH AFFECT STUDENT MOBILITY TO SOUTH AFRICA

12.4.1 Selecting South Africa as a Host Country

In this study, when students were asked, "Why did you come to study in South Africa?", two sets of responses emerged. One set of responses came from long-term, degree-seeking students, mainly of African origin, and the other from occasional, semester study-abroad students, mainly from Europe and the USA. Their motivations to study in South Africa had different rationales. In the five universities investigated in my case studies, the following responses were noteworthy. These themes emerged from the student interviews and are summarised in Table 55.

The variables identified in Table 55 pertain to socio-political factors, the higher education system and broader societal factors. As was mentioned in Chapter 3, the birth of a new democratic dispensation in 1994, the subsequent wave of change, and South Africa's role in NEPAD and the African Union, influenced student perceptions and their selection of South Africa as a host country. South Africa is a member of influential international organisations and regional bodies and networks such as the Commonwealth. In the recent past, South Africa established diplomatic relations with over 164 countries and joined more than 70 international organizations.[176] South Africa is further playing a leading role in the Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Co-Operation (IOR-ARC) and the SADC, the Non-Aligned Movement, and more recently NEPAD. As such, South Africa is well placed to boost its international image and to use this as a means of attracting international students. This is of particular interest to degree-seeking students from many African countries that are dwarfed by South Africa's technological, economic, and socio-political 'super-power' status on the continent.

[176] Rouhani and Kishun (1999).

Table 55. Variables Associated with Selecting South Africa as a Host Country for Higher Education

Key variables pertaining to SADC home country (push factors)	Key variables pertaining to South Africa (pull factors)
1. Systemic problems of higher education in many African countries. 2. Limited financial support for students[178] 3. General socio-political instability, civil unrest/war, famine, etc.	1. Current climate of political change and relative stability[177] 2. South Africa's position of leadership within NEPAD and global integration. 3. The challenges of living in a multicultural society. 4. Availability of advanced research facilities. 5. Relatively good higher education system. 6. Relatively cheaper fees compared to those in the UK, Europe or the USA[179]. 7. Opportunities for social interaction and tourism.

As was mentioned in Chapter 5, many African countries, including those in the SADC, suffer from systemic problems with respect to higher education. Higher education institutions have been in disarray due to financial crises, lack of facilities and resources, the shortage of academic personnel, lack of access to academic literature, and lack of advanced research facilities. Access to higher education is limited due to the high demand for the limited number of institutions. Further, programmes at higher education institutions are often disturbed or interrupted due to political unrest. Certain programmes may also not be offered due to their specialized nature.

[177] Rouhani and Kishun (1999).
[178] According to the EPU (1999:32) Report, "A further means of promoting international study involves donor support and scholarships. Here most financial support comes from foreign donors who support North American or European students and promote student exchanges and study abroad programs". Locally, the National Research Foundation (NRF) allows grant-holders to allocate bursaries to international doctoral and postdoctoral students. Several universities, including Rhodes University and the University of Pretoria, also award and administer scholarship programs that target international students from SADC counties. In addition, several SADC countries such as Botswana pump a great deal of foreign aid into study abroad opportunities and subsidise the institutional costs of initiatives aimed at improving their local skill base. In this regard, many African students study on full-cost bursaries in South Africa at low costs.
[179] c.f. Rouhani & Kishun (1999) and EPU (1999).

In addition, a number of African countries such as Zimbabwe, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Angola, Sudan, Ethiopia, Djibouti and Somalia are recovering from years of civil war or have instable political economies. For many African countries, including those with relative stability, the number of school leavers far surpasses the opportunities for access to higher education. For example, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda and Burundi are sending students to South Africa in greater numbers for this reason. In particular, Botswana has been sending large numbers of students sponsored by its government. Increasingly, more students from these countries are seeking access to South African higher education.

These factors were succinctly summarised by four students, a Kenyan student at Rhodes University, a Zimbabwean student at the University of Fort Hare, a Namibian student at the University of Port Elizabeth, and a Zambian student at the University of Cape Town:

> You will find that many people go out of the country [i.e. Kenya] because of the [higher] education system. It is a bit messed-up, and there are strikes and political activities there, so that is why my parents told me to go here [i.e. South Africa] so at least you can do your degree without interruptions (Interview, Chairman of East African Student Society, Kenyan male student, RU 2001).

> This programme which is offered at Fort Hare, Masters in Social Sciences and Policy Development, is not offered in most universities in Zimbabwe, so that is one of the reasons why I came to South Africa (Interview, MA candidate in Social Sciences & Policy Development, Zimbabwean male student, UFH 2001).

> In comparison [to South African universities], even the least of universities, their standards of education are much better than our university because we only have one university [in Namibia] and it is a new university (Interview, senior BSc student, Black Namibian female student, UPE 2001).

> The University of Zambia is run by politicians you know. So by the time we had to go back [for lectures], the students rioted for 7 months. There is a lot of time after that you may go for another two months [without lectures]. So I was supposed to have graduated in 2000 but a lot [of unrest] happened then. So I decided to look elsewhere, to other places to complete my studies (Interview, SRC Vice President for International and Postgraduate Students, 3rd year BSc, Zambian male student, 2001).

On the other hand, the South African higher education system[180] is relatively well-established and resourced and offers internationally competitive qualifications through both conventional contact tuition as well as distance education[181]. In addition, both university- and technikon-stream programmes[182] allow for diversity in career paths. Further, South African higher education institutions offer programmes in professional and specialized fields such as Medicine, Dentistry and Engineering, which many African countries do not offer. Furthermore, South African degree programmes are likely to have a greater relevance value to situations and conditions in African countries.

The change to democracy was another incentive drawing students to South Africa:

> Why am I in South Africa? It was my dream to be here so that I may know whether South Africa has got peace and so forth. So I think I am now living in that (Interview, Honours in Development Studies candidate, Zimbabwean male student, 2001).

Another important factor is the internationally competitive price of higher education in South Africa. For example, the median tuition cost for a three-year Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree in Australia for an international student is approximately $A40 000.[183] This compares with approximately £20 000 in the United Kingdom and $40 000 for a public university in the United States. The median cost for a three-year BA degree in South Africa is less than US$ 10 000. In addition, SADC students[184] pay the same fees as local South African students, which are much cheaper than if they were to study overseas in Europe or North America. As such, it is possible to provide reasonably good quality education in South Africa to a far greater number of students from Africa at a fraction of the cost associated with study in the United Kingdom, United States or a country such as Australia. Although fees have been relatively lower than those in developed countries, that they are higher than those in most African countries, whose currencies are weaker in relation to the Rand, must be noted. As the

[180] South Africa is believed to have the most advanced higher education system on the continent according to the National Commission on Higher Education (1996).
[181] Tuition by contact, distance, and a combination of both modes is offered through programmes such as telematics by some institutions of higher education in South Africa. The University of South Africa (UNISA), one of the largest ten mega-universities in the world, specialises in distance education programmes.
[182] University-stream programmes are considered to be more theoretical whereas technikon-stream programmes have more practical applications in the work place.
[183] http://www.studyinaustralia.gov.au
[184] For example, at UPE, SADC students pay approximately R12 000 ($2 000) per annum for a BA degree, whereas study abroad students pay about R34 000 ($ 5 500).

Rand gains strength on international currency markets the flow of student traffic to South Africa is likely to be affected.

For the SADC and students from other African countries, study in South Africa offers proximity to their home countries, African culture and the *ubuntu*[185] ethos. As one Fort Hare student put it:

> I thought it wise to come to South Africa because it was near my home. If I were to stay in America maybe it would take me two years before going to Malawi whereas if I was in South Africa, I can easily go to Malawi (Interview, member of International Student Desk, 2nd Year Traditional African Music candidate, Malawian male student, UFH, 2001).

SADC countries are part of a common customs union and form a regional bloc. Further, in terms of the SADC's (1997) Protocol on Education and Training, SADC students pay the same tuition fees as local South African students. Availability of financial support from international donors such as the DAAD and governments are added incentives.

On the other hand, for students from Europe and North America, South Africa is a "land of adventure, with lots to see and do" (Interview, male student, UPE 2001). This is an attraction, especially for overseas students who combine studying with sightseeing as academic tourists. Rouhani and Kishun (1999) also confirm that studying in South Africa offers the best of both worlds to both African and European students. The former can combine living in Africa in a familiar cultural context with obtaining education comparable to European standards at a fraction of the cost.

Although the cost factor may not be a consideration for European (exchange) students, Rouhani and Kishun, (1999) suggest that it would be difficult to believe that these students would travel so far in search of quality. In this vein, one evaluation of study opportunities at the University of Cape Town has suggested that some international students are sceptical about the comparable quality of educational standards in South Africa (CIES, 1998). Because this view is not uncommon among students from Europe and North America, a more plausible explanation is that international students from Europe and North America are here to gain firsthand knowledge of contemporary South African life and society. Indeed, that the biggest

[185] It is commonly believed that all Africans are united by a common human ethos known as *ubuntu*, in other words, 'people are people through others'.

pull factor for international students from Europe and North America is the wave of social and political change that has swept the country in the wake of the birth of democracy and the opportunity to gain firsthand experience of this is probable (EPU 1999). This was illustrated by a doctoral student at Stellenbosch University:

> I didn't know anything about South Africa, and it is very different. It is not like Europe, it is not like America. I wanted to know different cultures. It is an interesting country because [of] the political situation, the changes and political changes (Interview, PhD in Psychology candidate, 2001).

12.4.2 Selecting specific South African higher education institutions

In Section 12.3.1 it was stated that in this study when students were asked "Why did you come to study in South Africa?", two sets of responses emerged. One set of responses came from long-term, degree-seeking students, mainly of African origin, and the other from occasional, semester study-abroad students, mainly from Europe and the USA. Their motivations to study in South Africa had different rationales. This chapter focuses on the responses of African international students, in particular those from the SADC, because this group constitutes the majority of international students enrolled at South African higher education institutions.

Students had different motivations for selecting specific South African universities. Their responses were different in the case of institutions with and without International Offices and also depended on the size and capacity of the institutions and their reputations as seats of learning. Further, the geographic location of the institution was a deciding factor.

An institution may be selected by international students for any number of the following factors, which are given in no particular order of preference. A variety of needs are evident among students, depending on their goals and country of origin. For some, academic excellence is the priority. For others, a combination of 'work and play' is a consideration. Still others, in particular the short-stay students, give the cultural and international experience prominence. One needs to distinguish between students who seek long-term and short-term study, as well as among those who originate from the African continent and those from Europe and the USA. The research indicates that students who register for degree programmes consider academic excellence and curriculum offerings as priorities. Usually the latter tend to be those from the African continent. The costs of a university education are also

a deciding factor, especially for self-funding students. For most occasional students, especially if they are here for a year or less, either as fee-paying or exchange students, cultural exchange and academic tourism are important considerations.

The reputation of an institution as a seat of higher learning that offers globally competitive programmes as exemplified by the calibre of its alumni is a major consideration for international students in selecting a host institution. For example UFH is associated with educating some African leaders and statesmen such as Nelson Mandela and Robert Mugabe. The choice of curriculum offerings is another factor, especially for degree-seeking students; for example, UFH has certain programmes with an African focus, UCT has a medical school, and RU offers one of the best programmes in journalism on the African continent.

The institutional culture is another consideration. In this regard, some African students expressed comfort or a sense of 'feeling at home' in Afrocentric institutions such as UFH, whereas some European students preferred UCT or SU due to a combination of language, culture and pedagogical factors.

The geographic location and the size of the university are also deciding factors for students. While some students preferred smaller institutions in small towns with few social distractions, for example UFH in rural Alice or RU in Grahamstown, other students preferred larger universities, such as UCT, that are located in cities with greater recreational facilities and night life, such as Cape Town. Yet others prefer the safety of a university town such as Stellenbosch with its unique setup. Others prefer to combine sightseeing and 'fun in the sun' with their academic life. For this group of mainly short-stay students, the choice of university is determined by the university's proximity to natural attractions such as the sea, for example, UCT or UPE.

Availability of financial aid to students is another pull factor. Financial aid may include sponsorships by the institution or being earmarked by donors for specific institutions, for example, bursaries from the Zimbabwean government for study at UFH, or in-country-in-region scholarships by the DAAD. Other pull factors include the cost of living, tuition and accommodation fees, levels of crime and the availability of public transport to and from the institution of higher learning. The cost of living and university fees are generally lower in smaller institutions such as UFH and in towns such as Grahamstown as opposed to larger

institutions such as UCT in Cape Town. In addition, institutions in smaller towns are favoured over those in cities due to lower crime levels; for example, Rhodes and UPE are preferred to WITS due to lower crime levels in these areas. However, public transport in smaller towns is not as accessible as it is in larger cities, although the advantage of Grahamstown and Stellenbosch is that most amenities are within walking distance of the universities.

The motivations discussed above are outlined below, first as extracts from student interviews for each institution and are then summarised in a list at the end of the section.

12.4.2.1 The University of Fort Hare

Fort Hare's historic reputation as an institution which has educated African leaders and its rural location with few distractions appeared to be two major attractions to degree-seeking African international students, as elaborated by the SRC Deputy President:

> From what I gather, I was just taking myself as from Lesotho, I heard a lot about this country; my Prime Minister was a student here as a leader and Nelson Mandela was a leader here. Every time I wanted to come to South Africa, I just wanted to come to Fort Hare because I think it produces good leaders, and I just thought maybe if I can come here, I am going to be a good leader, I am going to be a very good student.
>
> Then others who have been asking, they wanted Fort Hare because it is far removed from cities, and they feel it can be a very good place to study and they have learnt a lot about it. They are also attracted by the historical part of it – that Fort Hare is having some good leaders in the African National Congress, not only in South Africa and in Lesotho and Zimbabwe and other countries.
>
> When they [African international students] come to the SRC, and when we ask them "Why did you come here?", they say, "I just came here because I heard about Fort Hare a lot being a historic university". And then again of course they are from big cities, they just want to experience the rural place and Fort Hare is amongst those universities which is away from cities, they want a quiet place… it is a good place to study, there isn't a lot of noise and everything (Interview, SRC Deputy President, Honours in Communication candidate, Mosotho[186] female student, UFH 2001).
>
> I think its the historical thing about Fort Hare, its more like you are exposed to more Africans here and you have got so many African leaders here (Interview, member of International Student Desk, LLB candidate, Mosotho female student, UFH 2001).

[186] A person from Lesotho is known as a Mosotho.

Other African international students chose to study at Fort Hare due to specific degree programmes with an African perspective that are not available elsewhere:

> I came to Fort Hare because I knew of the Music Department being very much concentrating on traditional African music. So I am not actually doing Western music. I was interested in the African music, and I know that Fort Hare has a very good reputation, and it is all historical. That is what gave me an interest in coming to study at Fort Hare (Interview, member of International Student Desk, 2nd Year Traditional African Music candidate, Malawian male student, UFH 2001).

> I came to Fort Hare because the university where I was in Pittsburg, wanted me to learn African Theology. Among the many universities that we enquired [about] in Africa, Fort Hare was on the map and people recommended it. Some of the leaders who came from Fort Hare were mentioned. That encouraged the sponsors and people at the university where I was. So upon hearing that, I had no choice but to come to Fort Hare (Interview, member of International Desk, Honours in Theology candidate, Malawian male student, UFH 2001).

Other reasons for studying at Fort Hare were its African character and nearness to home country, in particular for SADC students:

> You are exposed to a bit more Africans here and you have got so many African leaders here. I think the environment here, it is sort of cool and slow; other than [that,] Johannesburg and Lesotho are nearby (Interview, LLB candidate, Mosotho female student, UFH 2001).

> Maybe I didn't mind coming [to Fort Hare] because it was closer to home. I mean it is nearer than going to some other places (Interview, postgraduate Development Studies candidate, Zimbabwean female student, UFH 2001).

A majority of Zimbabwean students had come to Fort Hare because they had received scholarships from their government specifically for study at Fort Hare as part of a Presidential agreement. This points towards the importance of broader structural factors in determining one's host institution:

> I came here on a scholarship, and Fort Hare was the only place where I was supposed to study if I were to be part of that scholarship. It covers everything, even entertainment allowance. It is specifically Fort Hare because there was a special agreement between our President [Robert Mugabe] because he was a former student of this place, so that is how the scholarship came about (Interview, MA in Social Sciences & Policy Development candidate, Zimbabwean male student, UFH 2001).
> I got a scholarship from the Zimbabwean government (Interview, postgraduate Development Studies candidate, Zimbabwean female, UFH, 2001).

Some students considered the lack of distractions outside the campus in Alice as an added pull factor:

> I find it cool here. It is conducive for learning, no night-life around. I mean you are focused on your studies, you won't think of anything other than studying (Interview, B.Com candidate, male student, UFH 2001).

Two comments point out the role of social networks in choosing a host institution:

> Well, for myself, I had applied to Botswana. So when my friend said he had applied to Fort Hare, and he had been accepted, I think it was just peer pressure, "Why not come with us?"…So I came, but it is a nice place (Interview, LLB candidate, Mosotho female student, UFH 2001).

> Myself, I was admitted to two universities, one in the USA and the other in Canada. But when I was waiting for my time to go to Pittsburg, I met one of the lecturers who is a Malawian but is a lecturer here. So when I was telling him about my career, he said that Fort Hare is also one of the universities which is very much conducive in this study of African traditional music. So immediately I applied. He had to take my application to the administration, and I thought it wise to come to South Africa (Interview, member of International Student Desk, 2nd year Traditional African Music candidate, Malawian male student, UFH 2001).

12.4.2.2 The University of Port Elizabeth

The students interviewed had both positive and negative comments about UPE with respect to their reasons for selecting UPE as a host institution:

> It was for me to speak another language like English…I really recommend it to most of my friends to come and study [at UPE]…Since I have been to UPE, I know what UPE is like and I don't want my children to be there (Interview, 3rd year Architecture candidate, Israeli male student, UPE 2001).

> Basically tuition fees are cheaper than other universities. I applied to UCT and it is quite expensive so I decided to come to UPE. That is why I ended up here, but I didn't know anything about UPE… it was actually my last resort (Interview, senior BSc candidate, Black Namibian female student, UPE 2001).

> I applied as an international student, but there wasn't really any difference in being an international student other than getting a red 'international' stamp on our student cards. That is all (Interview, 4th year Architecture candidate, Black Namibian female student, UPE 2001).

12.4.2.3 Rhodes University

All interviewees at RU had positive things to say about it as an institution of higher learning. For example, the Chairman of the Debating Society, echoing what many international students had told him, said that he had selected RU because of its small size and safer environment:

> I do [enjoy life here at Rhodes], I really do. I couldn't think of a nicer university to be at. I wouldn't have changed it. It is very small: it is closely-knit so you are always meeting new people, foreign students as well as local students. It is a very close-knit, very good-spirited university as opposed to say, WITS or UCT, one of the big ones.
>
> The size of the university I think is the biggest pull you get. It is very easy to get a support system and a safety net around your self very quickly. Another really nice aspect of the university is it is one of the safer ones in the country as best I understand it, which is not to say it is entirely safe, but not as much violent crime in Grahamstown as a whole, not that much violent crime on campus.
>
> So those I think are the two major marketing points, and also, the quality of education you get here is also nice because the university is so much smaller, you know, our classes are smaller. You get more personal time with lecturers. So, on all fronts I think it is a very good university (Interview, MA in Politics and International Studies candidate, South African male student, RU 2001).

The Toastmasters[187] Executive Member was impressed by the high academic standards as well as the residential life on campus:

> Our campus life is incredible. Rhodes has a very high academic standard, the residence is nice; you can have a single room which is a very big plus. I live with two Zimbabweans and one of them said that if you are coming to a university in South Africa and you are coming from Zim, everyone comes to Rhodes because it is so well known there for being a good university, having a great campus life, high academic standards and everything else (Interview, South African female student, RU 2001).

In addition, the Rotaract[188] Executive Member was drawn to RU because of its high educational standards and location in a small town:

> Rhodes is an open society and has a good reputation in terms of education so they [international students] feel even if they come and study in Africa or South Africa they are coming to an institution which has got a strong

[187] Toastmasters is an international organisation that promotes skills in effective communication and leadership.
[188] Rotaract is a subchapter of Rotary International for youth. At the time, the RU Rotaract Society had 210 members of whom approximately one quarter were international students (Interview Rotaract Executive Member from Zimbabwe, RU, 2001).

> educational basis. But also I think Rhodes, although it is in a small town and out of the way, a lot of people who come here, it is a good opportunity to meet people in a small environment, in a more intimate environment, but at the same time, people are here from everywhere (Interview, Indian-Zimbabwean male student, RU 2001).

Further, the Chairman of the East African Student Society confirmed that the above reasons also informed his selection of RU:

> Many East African students are at UCT, but most of them are starting to prefer Rhodes because Rhodes at least, it is a small number compared to UCT where you are just another statistic…Apart from the smallness, it is a quiet environment for students. There is something you develop here at Rhodes that you want to stay… I would say the people and the environment itself, the location is good (Interview, Kenyan male student, RU 2001).

Furthermore, the Residence Warden added:

> I often wonder why international students choose us [i.e. RU] because we are sort of in the middle of nowhere. It is this tiny little campus. The students that I have spoken to have done a lot of their research over the Internet, and if you look at our website and the photos that are on there, it is a beautiful campus and possibly, they like the idea that it is small. They won't be lost in a huge city. They will be able to get to know everybody and find their way around. You know, maybe it is scary enough going to a foreign country in another continent and the thought of this homely environment, maybe that is what it is (Interview, Ms M Rautenbach, Residence Warden, RU 2001).

Finally, a member of the Student Representative Committee and the International Student Portfolio holder highlighted the resources available at RU, its small size, and the lack of distractions in Grahamstown as pull factors:

> Yes, I would recommend them [other students] to come here [to Rhodes]. If they want to have a great study environment, I would advise them to come here because I have been to places like UCT, and when I was at UCT, it was just too big. I went to a law lecture; there were 500 of us, and you just become a face or just a student number, whereas here my lecturer knows me on a one-on-one basis. I can go talk to him or my tutors.
> And Rhodes is just a beautiful study environment. Libraries are there, we get maybe three books for one author, you can always find access to their computers, everything. It just provides one of the great study environments here. And there aren't too many distractions like going to various clubs and you know, I would recommend people to come here.
>
> Grahamstown is rather small whereas if you are in Cape Town you have got 50 clubs to choose from and you would want to go to all of them. So you won't concentrate on your studies more. You would be like "Oh, tonight I am going there and tomorrow night I am going there", and it is just that there are too

> many of them (Interview, Law candidate, Namibian and Zimbabwean female student, RU 2001).

12.4.2.4 Stellenbosch University

Other than for its academic reputation, most international students like to attend SU because of its safety, the cosy and convenient university-town atmosphere, and its appeal to tourists. These pull factors were voiced by a SRC member and the International Student Advisor, and echoed international students' sentiments:

> It is convenient, it is a beautiful town. It is smaller and is less overwhelming than UCT, for example, but it is close to Cape Town and the ocean and everything else and the mountains (Interview, SRC member in charge of international students female, SU 2001).

> Safety and security on campus is fine. That is one reason why students tell you they come here. They are aware of that. They are aware that Stellenbosch is a university-town. It is not a university in a city.

> Stellenbosch is a university town; it becomes more like a village. You know people on campus, off campus. When you are buying something [in town], you know this is your professor. Also it is a tourist town, it is a historical town; it has the wine lands and is near to Cape Town. There is so much going on in the town, and it is such an attractive place to stay. Because the town centres around students and tourists in a way and if you are an international student, you are fine. It is the perfect place for somebody to come to (Interview Mr Khau Mavhungu, International Student Advisor, International Office, SU 2001).

In addition, the services provided by the International Office provide a value-added dimension:

> The most important other factor is our International Office. Our office is the most established I can say in South Africa. I have been to UCT and other offices. We have a separate office that deals with almost all the issues of international students, unlike other universities. Like for instance UCT, you phone enquiring about an application of a student. The International Office will not know because that is dealt with within the mainstream. But at Stellenbosch you can be sure that if you just phone or make an enquiry today, there is always someone to deal with your enquiry (Interview Mr Khau Mavhungu, International Student Advisor, International Office, SU 2001).

> And I think we have a very efficient International Office which makes things a lot easier for students coming here and takes care of everything basically. So I think we have a reputation (Interview, SRC member in charge of international students, female student, SU 2001).

12.4.2.5 The University of Cape Town

Most students interviewed were rather positive towards studying at UCT:

> Studying overseas is very expensive, so I was looking for a place away from home and a better place to study, but again, not too different, sort of, I actually wanted to complete my degree within Africa. That is one of my greatest ambitions to complete my degree at an African university. So I came to South Africa, I looked around at different universities and UCT; just the prospectus "striving to be a world-class academic university" sort of captured me. The fees are not too expensive as overseas…I love Cape Town, it is a great university; you know, there are a lot of resources at this university compared to universities in Africa. It is like the Taj Mahal of universities in Africa you know (Interview, SRC Vice President for International and Postgraduate Students, 3rd year BSc candidate, Zambian male student, UCT 2001).

So was a former SRC President:

> Well, there is the attraction of Cape Town itself which I think is very positive. I think Cape Town is quite known as a beautiful city, the beach and all those attractions. UCT I think has got quite a good reputation as an institution with a high academic standard, has produced top quality leaders and so forth, and that seems to be an attraction and then current students. There is a strong word-of-mouth thing because we don't really do international marketing. I think it's a mixture of the reputation with the city and generally good experiences people have had in the country and here (Interview Mr J September, IAPO staff member and former UCT SRC President, 2001).

Even a Rhodes student had something positive to say about Cape Town:

> If I was to come from a big city overseas I would much rather choose to go to Cape Town than Grahamstown. Cape Town is a more hip and happening place, it is more like other cities overseas. When you come to Grahamstown you are sort of stuck; it is a small place. We only have 4 800 students on this campus, whereas UCT probably takes about 4 000 to 5 000 first years (Interview, Rotaract Executive Member, male student, RU 2001).

The findings of Section 4 with respect to the reasons given by (degree seeking) international students at UFH, UPE, RU, SU and UCT for selecting these specific universities are summarized below. These reasons may be grouped into micro and macro factors, the micro factors being attributed to personal factors, family, friends and social networks, while the macro factors are associated with broader structural issues such as government scholarships:

i. Reputation as a 'world class' institution and the calibre of alumni.

ii. The curriculum options and scholarly expertise.

iii. Geographical location of the institution and the characteristics of the town or city.
iv. The institutional culture and size of the institution.
v. The availability of financial aid for international students from their home country.
vi. The cost of living and tuition fees.
vii. Proximity to their home country.
viii. Role of friends and relatives or social networks.

12.5 REPEL FACTORS

In addition to the above push and pull factors, a number of factors which mitigate against international students studying in South Africa have also been identified, for example, in the EPU (1999) Report. Many of these factors also emerged in this study and were corroborated by findings presented at the 2003 IEASA conference held in Cape Town. I refer to these as issues of concern to international students. These issues include crime levels and the prevalence HIV/AIDS in South Africa, the rise in the value of the Rand, increases in tuition fees, lack of funding for international students, limited student services in general and accommodation in particular, student governance issues, lack of integration with local students and hints of xenophobia, and the need for language courses.

For example, the high *crime statistics* in South Africa have emerged as a deterrent to international students, as elaborated by a UCT staff member and a UFH international student:

> Some of the African students say they have these high expectations of South Africa because of South Africa's image within the rest of the continent and when they get here, you get robbed. You go to the Police Station and the treatment is exactly the same as you got at home, where it is like, "O.K. so they stole your cellphone and hi fi. We have got murder and rape to deal with!" (Interview Mr J September, IAPO staff member and former UCT SRC President, 2001).

> Maybe there is some sort of insecurity you know, there is just too much violence in South Africa. When we go out there to King Williamstown or East London, even outside the [Alice] campus, a few weeks ago someone died, a student was killed. So we are not really free, and besides, I have had a personal experience when I went to King Williamstown sometime ago, some actually snatched my cell phone (Interview, postgraduate Development Studies candidate, Zimbabwean female student, UFH 2001).

In addition, the *rise in the value of the Rand* on international currency markets coupled with *increases in tuition fees* have had a negative impact on South Africa as a destination for international study. Further, the *HIV & AIDS* pandemic cannot be ignored. Along with crime in South Africa, the HIV & AIDS pandemic is the focus of much reporting internationally, creating a limited and negative perception of the country. A real concern about the pandemic's effect on international student recruitment and wellbeing on campuses is expressed.

With respect to the *lack of funding opportunities* and the economic conditions of countries in the region, the Dean of Students at UCT stated the following:

> Many of the students from the SADC countries, I mean if you look at the turmoil in many of the SADC countries and the difficulties with foreign exchange and you know just the economic situation there, it makes it very difficult for students to get the funding they need to study at UCT. Now UCT's policy, the financial aid policy, does not include international students (Interview Dr L Kaunda UCT 2001).

With respect to *student services*, to ensure adequate services are available to all students and not to expand international student enrolments too quickly is important. This point was emphasized by the Dean of Students at UCT:

> This year Botswana, for example, sent whole batches of students to various institutions at short notice. We battled to accommodate them and these kinds of agreements when they are made, I think that there needs to be a lot of consultation about whether the system can handle the added pressure, not just as an academic means but services…that you have got the appropriate services that you can offer (Interview Dr L Kaunda UCT 2001).

At UCT and UFH, SADC students and other African students observed that they were not being recognized as fully-fledged international students, in comparison to overseas students, even though they were in need of additional guidance and services. Perhaps this is due to the fact that SADC students pay the same fees as local students, whereas overseas students pay higher fees either as study abroad students or as exchange students for whom special services are arranged. Increasingly the need for special services and orientation for all international students, whether from Africa or overseas, is being recognised, and thus services for international students are becoming more inclusive of SADC students as well. An impression often exists amongst South African students that international students receive better treatment than them. On the other hand, international students often complain that Student

Affairs Divisions do not cater for their needs, and they are thus, in turn, disgruntled. An example from UFH illustrates the delicate nature of student service provision:

> The other problem is that in the hostels, the university management put some people who are called Hostel Representatives, and they are the ones responsible for the day-to-day life there, so whenever you are there as an international student, maybe they forget you are an international student and most of the time, they tell you, "You are a foreigner", that you are not in your own country, that you don't have a right to complain about anything and if I say, "OK, my door is broken", the hostel will take a very long time to report it to the people who are responsible for the maintenance of that door. Whenever you try to complain your complaint is not going to be looked upon because you are not speaking the same language with the Hostel Representative, so that is the other problem because of not being able to understand one another, not being recognized as an African because when you go into Africa, we regard South Africa as our second home, because it is not in Europe, it is in Africa (Interview, member of International Desk, Honours in Theology candidate, Malawian male student, UFH 2001).

It is however clear that all students should be treated equally and be given the same quality service that takes the needs of the various student constituencies into account (IEASA 2003). *Accommodation* policies are just one potential source of discord, for example, if international students perceive that they are treated as second-class citizens or are perceived as receiving preferential treatment:

> Misunderstanding and hostility between international and local students were perpetuated by housing policies that favour international students. Housing policies are also often seen as a stumbling block to integration and do not appreciate the value of diversity. Inclusivity and a respect for diversity should be encouraged through housing policies that do not separate international and local students from each other (IEASA 2003).

An example from UFH illustrates the necessity of providing equitable housing for all students:

> At times, we really feel that we are [discriminated against] especially when we came here, and we were given residences, one of the hostels which had been closed for three years. So when we wanted to move, there is a preference for postgrad students, they actually give them better residence halls, we wanted to move to better residences and they actually give them better halls, they tell them. We wanted to move to better residences and they actually refused. But we could find them giving residences to people who spoke Xhosa. We really feel it [ie. the discrimination] and at times they are actually speaking Xhosa when they know you don't know Xhosa (Interview, postgraduate Development Studies candidate, Zimbabwean female student, UFH 2001).

Even at UCT with its enormous resources and infrastructure, finding student accommodation can become a major problem, as outlined by two staff members:

> A big problem for us is accommodation. We have close to 18 000 students and only enough beds for 4 500. That is not even a third, I think, of the students in res. So that is a big problem. It is a problem for all students, but especially your first-year international student; if you don't get into residence you are going to have a hard time when you get here (Interview Mr J September, IAPO staff member and former UCT SRC President, 2001).

> A lot of students, we are not able to provide accommodation in the first year for everyone. So our international students who have never been to Cape Town, when they come here, if they are not in residence, it means now they must start looking for accommodation in the Cape Town area. We try and provide assistance, give them addresses of people we know, but it is very hard (Interview Dr L Kaunda, Dean of Students, UCT 2001).

The need to provide *student governance* structures to include international students also needs to be addressed:

> Student leaders [at UCT] felt that it was important for all SRC's to consider International Student Portfolios. Through this portfolio international student issues would be mainstreamed. The tension between whether only international students could fill this portfolio and whether a South African student could effectively represent international student needs is an issue for further discussion (IEASA 2003).

At UCT, a member of the SRC was responsible for international students. Under the portfolio of Vice President: International and Postgraduate students, he was trying to "organize forums to discuss xenophobia, and to lobby on behalf of the international students with problems they experience"[189], such as accommodation and study permits. Similarly, at UPE, a member of the SRC was asked by the International Office to help set up an International Student Society.[190]

Despite the relatively low international student numbers and a lack of international students diversity at UFH, a student governance structure, the International Desk, had been formed in 2000 which was operating under the aegis of the SRC. It was instituted by the SRC as the overall structure representing all international students through which international student

[189] Interview with SRC Vice President for International and Postgraduate Students, 3rd year BSc male student from Zambia (2001).
[190] Interview, UPE SRC white male student member, 5th year Architecture (2001).

problems are voiced and solutions sought. This was over and above individual student societies such as Zimbabwe Students Society (ZIMSOC). In 2001, its membership consisted of international students from SADC countries such as Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia and Zimbabwe, from which the majority of (African) international students at UFH originate. However, some members of the International Desk voiced their concern that although the International Desk "is a structure, it was not operative", it could meet "only through the call of the SRC Vice-President" and it did not have a "legal standing" because it was not mentioned in the SRC constitution. Despite these 'growing pains', the establishment of a structure similar to the International Desk is an idea which other South African universities may adopt in order to improve student governance.[191]

Lack of integration with local students is another area in need of attention. To foster understanding amongst and between students is important:

> Student leaders felt that relations between international and local students are often strained due to various misunderstands and stereotypes. Campus environments are often such that interactions between these groups are not encouraged. This is however also a phenomenon amongst international students who often don't interact with each other due to issues of race, class, nationality, etc. A need thus exists for programmes that will encourage interaction between and amongst all students (IEASA 2003).

The need for student integration emerged at UFH, UPE, and UCT, where the Dean of Students explained:

> I think that [i.e. lack of integration] is a national issue rather than just an institutional issue which we all have to grapple with. We need to be more open-minded, and it is a pity that the students are more receptive to the Semester Study Abroad students from the US than from neighbouring African countries, which is a shame because I think South Africa needs to be very reaching out to the neighbouring countries which are undergoing tremendous upheaval (Interview Dr L Kaunda 2001).

Further, xenophobia[192] at South African universities has also been identified by Shindondola (2002) as well as by IEASA (2003):

> Xenophobia was identified as one of the biggest issues facing the education sector in the internationalisation agenda. Student leaders discussed this at

[191] Interview with members of the International Desk at UFH (2001).
[192] In the preface to a recent publication edited by Finlayson and Slabbert (2005:9), Wilmsen notes that the authors "warn that xenophobia is a growing concern in the country, and stereotypical perceptions about immigrants and migrants are now commonly held to be true".

> length giving historical perspectives to the problem and relating this to perceptions of students from especially African countries. The students agreed that xenophobia is a form of discrimination and should thus be treated as such by all institutions.

Racial discrimination and *xenophobia* emerged as issues on some campuses such as SU and UFH and to a lesser extent, at RU and UCT:

> The African international students feel a little bit marginalized in terms of like how we do things in South Africa generally and particularly at the historically white institutions…(Interview Mr Khau Mavhungu, International Student Advisor, International Office, SU 2001)

> Yes, there is that [discrimination]. Most of the time African international students feel that South African students in general are not that much welcoming; they always have this attitude towards African students and they always feel superior. They use this talk-down approach…You also find concerns in our campus that African students will always feel that the local students discriminate against them racially…mostly you find just racial issues that are not really politically correct… You meet a person and immediately it is more about "You don't belong here! When are you going back home? " In a way that immediately makes you feel unwelcome, you feel like you can go home (Interview, Laura, International Student Organisation, SU 2001).

> The African international students and the black local students – what I can say is that when it comes to being together in the sense that we are all African, but then we tend to separate ourselves and there is more like the South African students don't like the African international students in the sense like "Why are you coming here? Why don't you stick to your own country?", and it is more like a xenophobia that exists (Interview, SRC member, Law candidate, Namibian and Zimbabwean female student, RU, 2001).

> We have been experiencing a lot of xenophobia on campus against SADC students…Yes, before I came to the office [of the SRC], there has been a lot of problems regarding xenophobia, (Interview, UFH SRC Deputy President, Honours in Communication candidate, Mosotho female student, 2001).

The existence of xenophobia at UFH as claimed by students is corroborated by documentary evidence: "There are often complaints of xenophobia by foreign staff and students…" (UFH 2000a:18).

In particular, African international students at UFH and UCT have experienced xenophobia in a number of incidences. This emerged during student interviews at UFH and UCT. For example, local students and sometimes staff speak to non-South African Black students in the

local languages such as Zulu or Xhosa. African international students are also called names, for example, 'Makwerekwere'[193] or called by their tribal names:

> When people regard you as a person from outside countries, they would just say, "OK, I don't want to help", not at university, but students at large, when we are interacting amongst ourselves. They just say, "I cannot do this because she is Mosotho", or just call our names, "Hey, you Mosotho" (Interview, SRC Deputy President, Honours in Communication candidate, Mosotho female, UFH 2001).

> When I came here [to UCT] last year, before I got to know some of the catch words, someone said 'Makwerekwere'. When I found out what that means, somebody told me "It means African", but then I said "I was called African by another African, what sense does it make?", you know. So when I investigated I found out more about that word and then what I get from that is that South African students view themselves as being South Africans. South Africa is supposed to be just South Africa and then there is Africa outside South Africa, and they are South African and we the rest, are Africans, that's it. So that one word is, has the greatest problem you know, but in general, xenophobia, yes, it's a big problem, but not for all students, more for South African students, but it is there, it exists (Interview, SRC Vice President for International and Postgraduate Students, 3rd year BSc candidate, Zambian male student, UCT 2001).

African international students at UFH were also aware that local students perceived that "They have come to take our jobs":

> I don't think they [local students] think they are going to get any benefits from them [African international students]. They fear them, because I have heard some people commenting informally or playing that, "You guys coming from your countries are going to take our work here". They are having the view that when we come to South Africa we are going to take their positions and work (Interview, SRC Deputy President, Honours in Communication candidate, Mosotho female, UFH 2001).

Further, African international students at UFH were accused by local students of receiving preferential treatment from lecturers. This is due to the fact that the majority of these (postgraduate) international students have to perform well if they are to retain their bursaries.

[193] This is a pejorative term used by Black South Africans to refer to Blacks from other African countries. It is "an expression of xenophobia and is held to derive from an imitation of the sounds of foreign African languages. These sounds are supposedly incomprehensible to South African and are consequently labelled as meaningless gibberish devoid of communicative capacity; they are thus debased to the level of animal sounds, suggesting that those who speak the languages in which they occur are sub-human" (Wilmsen in Finlayson & Slabbert 2005:10).

This does not undermine the fact that many of them are probably outstanding students[194] to begin with, and have to work even harder in order to qualify for financial assistance.

> I think generally the international students are doing much better than the local students because we really work hard. Probably it is because we are on scholarship, and we know that if we fail we have to fund our own way, so we really work hard (Interview, postgraduate Development Studies candidate, Zimbabwean male, UFH 2001).

African international students at UFH had also experienced ethnic/ tribal rivalries, for example, Zimbabwean students being told, "Zulu culture is superior to Ndebele culture"[195].

Similarly at UPE, a Black Namibian student had another interesting race-related experience not uncommon to other South African campuses, which is an indication of just how deep race-related issues have become ingrained in South Africans:

> You know, when you get to know different students [at UPE], they differentiate very much between black and white, and from my point, I have not grown up like that, and for me it was all the same. I went to a multiracial school. From home that was basically how you were brought up that everybody was the same. You didn't look at colour, you looked beyond it. The first two years it was a very dominant thing that I experienced, that it was wrong for, especially for black student, to see that you got along more with the white students than you got along with them. So they thought that there is something wrong with you and that you are trying to be like white students instead of being with the black students. It was small things, like the way you dress or even the way you speak. If you speak with a strong accent there is definitely something wrong with you! (Interview, 4th year Architecture candidate, Black Namibian female student, UPE 2001).

Perhaps, a need exists to encourage greater integration and interaction among international and local student through student governance structures such as societies in order to alleviate racial tensions and conflicts on campuses. This was pointed out by an SRC member at UPE, where there was some conflict between local black students and a large contingent of international African students mainly from Botswana:

> I do think however, there is not enough interaction between the international students and the local students…As part of my responsibilities, we try and bring the international students and UPE students together…and there is

[194] The fact that postgraduate African international students perform better than local students was also confirmed at SU: "These postgraduate students are handpicked people, especially when the governments are involved. They are handpicked and so they are sharp, and they set an example in the class" (Interview with Prof L van Huysteen, Dean: Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry, October 2001).
[195] Interview, UFH postgraduate Zimbabwean female student enrolled for Development Studies (2001).

> actually a bit of friction between the Batswana students and local students. There is not as much interaction here as one would actually like, there is more friction than interaction between them…I think the Batswana students say that the Xhosas think they are better than the Batswana students and I think vice versa because the Batswana students think that they are better than the Xhosa students (Interview, UPE SRC member, 5th year Architecture candidate, White male student UPE 2001).

Although these would not be termed 'repel' factors, nonetheless, the issues discussed above are a cause for concern among international students, especially those from other African countries. These issues need to be addressed if South Africa is to embrace its African neighbours and, in return, be embraced by them, and all the more so if it aspires to play a leadership role within NEPAD.

Another area of concern was the *lack of language courses* for students whose mother-tongue or second language is not English, for example, students from Francophone Africa, the Far East or even the Middle East. Comments from the Dean of Students at UCT and two UPE students illustrate the need for language courses:

> The students that come from French-speaking countries perhaps experience the most difficulty and also from the Far East. At UCT, we do not have a foreign language facility to deal with those issues. When we admit students, we admit them on the basis that they have studied English, and they can cope with the academic demands and so beyond that, we don't make any special provision. So it is quite a constraint for most of them… I have always insisted that we need to seriously look at this problem if we are going to admit students who don't meet this language requirement. We need to provide support otherwise we are letting them down (Interview Dr L Kaunda, UCT Dean of Students, 2001).

> When I came here in 2000, I did not speak English before. So when I came it was very hard for me. It was like two weeks, three weeks I did not understand anything that was going on. It was just people speaking, talking. After two or three weeks, I said, "OK guys, it was nice to meet you. I'm flying home!". And after that, I studied more and more English, and this is the first year that I could study (Interview, 3rd year Architecture candidate, Israeli male student, UPE, 2001).

> In the Architecture department a lot of Israeli student study and their knowledge about architecture is very good, but their main problem in the beginning of the year was actually speaking the English language and writing articles and stuff (Interview, SRC member, 5th year Architecture candidate, UPE 2001).

Some institutions such as UCT have opted out of having language courses due to lack of capacity, while others such as UPE have since then introduced language courses specifically for Chinese students. The above national and institutional 'repel' factors or issues of concern to international students in South Africa are summarised in Table 56.

Table 56. Issues of Concern to International Students in South Africa (Repel Factors)

Sector	Repel factor
Law & order	Crime
	Institutional ignorance of (international) protocols governing refugee students
Race relations	Lack of integration with local students
	Xenophobia
Financial	Rise in the strength of the Rand on international currency markets
	Increase in tuition fees
	Limited opportunities for funding, especially for undergraduates
Academic programmes	Limited number of vacancies in programmes
	Lack of language courses for students whose mother-tongue is not English
	Medium of instruction[196]
Student services & governance	Exclusion from student governance structures
	Equitable provision of student services
	Need to extend international student services to SADC students
	Limited accommodation
	Limited opportunities for student work on campus
Health	HIV & AIDS' impact on international students
	Healthcare services and medical insurance
Home Affairs	Accessibility of Dept of Home Affairs offices and personnel

[196] For example, the medium of instruction for undergraduate programmes at Stellenbosch University is Afrikaans. This is a repel factor to international undergraduate students.

12.6 VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH STUDYING OUTSIDE ONE'S HOME COUNTRY – GOING BEYOND THE ALTBACH MODEL

This section attempts to link the theoretical discussion in Chapter 3 to the student perspectives referred to heretofore. Chapter 3 highlighted some theoretical explanations about immigration to South Africa in general and student movement from the SADC, in particular. One central argument was that migration and settlement are closely related to other economic, political and cultural links being formed between countries in the process of globalisation. That international migration – in particular, international student mobility which may be viewed as a form of short-term migration, possibly leading to long-term migration – must be seen as an integral part of contemporary world developments was suggested. A second argument was that the migratory process has certain dynamics based on social networks which are at its core (Castles & Miller, 1998:46).

Using the above theoretical frameworks, it is proposed here that while Altbach's (1998) 'push-pull' model has provided some explanations for other contexts and attributes the decision to study abroad to individuals and their families, international student mobility to South Africa is more appropriately explained by broader structural factors such as the economics of labour migration and migration systems theory. Whereas Altbach's model views individual students and their families as the decision makers, the new economics of labour migration takes into account the dynamics of the global capitalist economy. Further, migration systems theory is more holistic and takes into account the influence of both micro and macro structures in the decision to move to another country.

Having analysed some student perspectives for selecting South Africa as a destination for higher education in this chapter, the decision to study in South Africa – in particular by degree-seeking students of African origin – is evidently influenced by a variety of broader issues than were stated in Chapter 3 (Castles & Miller 1998) such as social, demographic, environmental and political factors in the home country; opportunities for migration to the host country; the existence of social networks between the two countries; and legal, political, economic and social structures and practices which regulate migration and settlement. These issues go beyond individual choices

In addition, as was stated in Chapter 3, the role of international relations and the states of both sending and receiving areas in organising or facilitating movement is also significant (Bohning 1984; Cohen 1987; Dohse 1981; Fawcett 1989; Manfrass 1992; Mitchell 1989). For example, SADC student mobility to South Africa is facilitated because these students pay the same fees as local students. This is due to the South African higher education sector operating within the framework of the SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and Training. As noted in this chapter the majority of Zimbabwean students at the University of Fort Hare were sponsored by their government. These are two examples of broader regional forces influencing student flows.

On the basis of the above discussion, some push and pull factors more specifically associated with the decision (by African degree-seeking students) to study in South Africa have been summarised in Table 57. These enable one to extend the push and pull forces in Altbach's (1988) model. The variables are grouped into five main categories pertaining to the global, the national or country, the higher education sector, the specific institutional, as well as the family and individual levels.

The push-pull model provides a limited framework for understanding why students, especially from SADC and other African countries, come to study in South Africa. One needs to consider 'repel factors' as an added dimension to the model. To put it another way, these repel factors may be viewed as push forces, internal to the host country and its higher education system. The decision to study in a particular country and higher education institution is affected by a combination of push, pull and repel factors. The relationship between these complex variables is illustrated in Table 57.

The combination of push, pull and repel factors is slightly different for long-term degree-seeking (African) students as compared to short-stay students from overseas. For degree-seeking students, regional and home country variables are likely to provide stronger push forces while higher education variables, informal networks and employment prospects probably provide pull factors. On the other hand, international and intercultural variables in a developing context, as well as opportunities for travel and tourism provide stronger pull forces for short-stay students from overseas. These variables are summarized in Tables 59 and 60 for each group.

Table 57. Variables Affecting the Decision to Study in South Africa

Key variables pertaining to many African countries (push factors)	Key variables pertaining to South Africa as a host country (pull factors)
GLOBAL AND REGIONAL VARIABLES	
1. Isolation from the global community.	1. Global integration and international networks. 2. Regional and continental 'super-power' or metropole. 3. Membership of regional and continental networks. 4. Colonial, language and cultural links.
COUNTRY VARIABLES	
	5. New democracy, undergoing rapid transition.
6. Socio-political upheavals and economic instability.	6. Relatively stable socio-politico and economic climate.
7. Stipulations of multi-lateral and bi-lateral agreements.	7. Stipulations of multi-lateral and bi-lateral agreements.
	8. Geographical proximity to home country
	9. Culture and languages similar to home country.
10. Limited opportunities for extra-curricular activities and cultural exchange.	10. Opportunities for tourism and cultural enrichment.
	11. Legislation and policy framework welcoming towards international students.
HIGHER EDUCATION VARIABLES	
12. Higher education system in disarray.	12. Relatively advanced higher education system.
13. Budgetary constraints in promoting higher education.	13. Availability of appropriate educational facilities and provision.
14. Limited access to local institutions.	14. Fairly open access to diverse range of higher education institutions.
15. Preferred courses and programs not offered.	15. Diverse range of programme offering including professional fields.
16. Concerns about the quality of professional degrees and international recognition.	16. Professional degrees accredited and recognised by international institutions.
17. Concerns about the quality of instruction and delivery.	17. Relatively good quality of instruction and diversity of delivery modes.
18. Availability of funding to support access to international qualifications.	18. Internationally competitive fees.
19. Poor research infrastructure and low research output.	19. Existing research structures and medium to high research output.
	20. Membership of academic networks and consortia.[197]
	21. Limited opportunities for funding and scholarships.

[197] For example, through IEASA's collaboration with the Baden-Wuerttemburg Consortium of Universities in Germany, a number of South African higher education personnel have received training about the German higher education system. Through IEASA's collaboration with NAFSA and EAIE, South African higher education institutions were marketed in the USA and Europe respectively.

Table 57 ***continued***

Key variables pertaining to many African countries (push factors)	Key variables pertaining to South Africa as a host country (pull factors)
INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES	
	22. Perceived reputation of institution as globally competitive and calibre of alumni. 23. Scholarly expertise. 23. Scholarly expertise. 24. Geographic location e.g. rural or urban centre and access to facilities e.g. transport. 25. Institutional culture and size. 26. Existence of international office or similar service provider.
27. Existence of institutional agreements and linkages.	27. Existence of student exchange agreements and research partnerships.[198] 28. Opportunities for funding.
FAMILY AND INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES	
	29. Social and family network.

Table 58. A Model to Analyse Variables Associated with Selecting a Host Country and a Host Institution

Source	Push Factors	Pull Factors	Repel Factors
Global & regional variables			
Home country variables			
Host country variables			
General higher education sector variables			
Specific higher education institutional variables			
Informal Support networks			
Prospects for future migration & employment			
Travel and tourism			

[198] Many South African universities have established international exchange agreements and research partnerships since 1994.

Table 59. Variables Associated with Study in South Africa for SADC Students and Students from Other African Countries

Source	Push Factors	Pull Factors	Repel Factors
Global & regional variables e.g. NEPAD, SADC		X	
Home country variables	X		
Host country variables		X	X
General higher education sector variables	X	X	
Specific higher education institutional variables		X	X
Informal support networks		X	
International and intercultural experience		x	
Prospects for future migration & employment		X	

Key: X is a stronger force than x.

Table 60. Variables Associated with Study in South Africa for Short-Term European and North American Students

Source	Push Factors	Pull Factors	Repel Factors
Global & Regional variables e.g. NEPAD, SADC		X	
Home Country variables			
Host Country variables		X	X
General higher education sector variables		x	
Specific higher education institutional variables		X	x
Informal support networks		x	
Prospects for future migration & employment			
International and intercultural experience		X	
Travel and tourism		X	

Key: X is a stronger force than x.

12.7 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to provide an understanding of the reasons for international student mobility: first, to South Africa as opposed to any other country, and second to specific universities within the South African higher education sector. Another aim of the chapter was to evaluate the relevance of Altbach's (1998) push-pull model regarding variables that affect the decision to study in South Africa. Push-pull models of population migration, of which student mobility is a specific short-term example, appear to be inadequate for explaining international student mobility to South Africa.

Following the Introduction (Section 12.1), Section 12.2 examined international student flows gobally and more specifically within South Africa. Section 12.3 outlined variables associated with the decision to study abroad using the Altbach (1998) model as a framework. Next, Section 12.4 examined factors that affect student mobility to South Africa. This section was divided into two subsections. Section 12. 4.1 focused on the decision by international students to select South Africa as a host country, and section 12.4.2 analysed their reasons for selecting one of the five specific universities in this study. Interview transcripts were used to highlight the unique set-up at each of the five institutional case studies. Thereafter, Section 12.5 outlined a number of repel factors associated with studying in South Africa, and Section 12.6 attempted to link the variables associated with studying in South Africa to the conceptual framework developed in Chapter Three. To this end, two models were developed which help to conceptualise the variables associated with studying in a host country in general and in South Africa in particular.

The two conceptual models developed in Section 12.6 are a major contribution to the ongoing research about international student mobility. In this respect, while Altbach's (1998) push-pull model attributed the decision to study abroad to individual choice, the two latter models attribute the variables associated with studying abroad to broader social, systemic, structural or global variables. As it stands, the Altbach (1998) model, with its push and pull factors, is incomplete and needs to be supplemented by taking into account repel factors within the host country and the wider structural factors, including the effects and opportunities created by globalisation. In particular, this chapter explored the role of these broader systemic variables for degree-seeking (African) students as opposed to short-term exchange students.

That South Africa was uniquely situated to witness a major expansion of international student presence in 2001 is clear. Its high educational standards are widely recognized. Whereas much of the African continent has experienced political turmoil, South Africa has a stable and widely admired democratic regime. Huge international student "markets" exist that have scarcely been tapped, especially in the Persian Gulf, India and the People's Republic of China. A great deal of interest has been expressed by the United States with respect to sending students abroad on short-study programs, and a great deal of potential for the creation of custom-designed 'study abroad' courses exists. The natural beauty and diversity of the country make South Africa a "natural" short-term study destination.

On the other hand, of the five universities which constituted the case studies in this research, with the exception of UCT and SU, administrative structures to deal adequately with large numbers of international students were not, by and large, in place and are certainly not yet comparable to those to be found in Australia, Western Europe or the United States, the major "receiving" regions of the world. Moreover the perception of South Africa as being marred by high crime rates and the HIV & AIDS pandemic will negatively impact recruiting efforts. If South Africa wishes to improve service delivery to international students and thereby become a major host nation, these repel factors need to be addressed concertedly at the national level. Over and above targeting international students from overseas, South Africa cannot shirk its responsibility for developing the subcontinent through making its higher education system available as a resource to the continent.

CHAPTER 13
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

13.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter first reminds the reader of the aims of the research and the research questions. Next the findings emerging out of the research questions are presented and appropriate recommendations proposed. A brief summary of national student enrolment patterns and institutional disparities related to these enrolments is provided. Following an outline of the rationales and strategies for internationalisation of South African public higher education institutions, the current policies on internationalisation as well as regional and continental initiatives and responses to internationalisation are briefly analysed. The chapter concludes by highlighting the need for further research on the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa.

The primary *aim* of this research was to explore the responses of the South African public higher education sector to one dimension of internationalisation namely, international student influx, in the immediate post-apartheid period between 1994 and 2001. This entailed the following secondary aims:

i. Examining the background, status, rationales, models of, and approaches to internationalisation in selected South African public higher education institutions.
ii. Identifying and comparing internationalisation strategies at these institutions.
iii. Locating internationalisation trajectories within the context of the SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and Training.
iv. Determining the role of relevant national and international agencies in the process, for example, SAUVCA, CTP, IEASA, and the Departments of Education, Home Affairs, and Foreign Affairs.
v. Examining the role of (international) student formations in the process.
vi. Examining the relationship between internationalisation and South Africa's foreign policy and international relations.

In pursuit of the above aims, a number of research questions were formulated. The *central* research question was "How has the South African public higher education sector responded

to the challenges of internationalisation in the immediate post-apartheid period (1994-2001)?" This central question was formulated on the basis of the following foreground (i-iv) and background (v-vii) questions:

vii. What is the nature and extent of internationalisation at selected South African public higher education institutions?
viii. What are the rationales, strategies and approaches for the internationalisation of South African public higher education institutions?
ix. What 'pull' factors motivate international student mobility to South African public higher education institutions?
x. What are the current policies of public higher education institutions, the South African government, and other organisations regarding internationalisation?
xi. What regional and continental developments have a bearing on the internationalisation of public higher education in South Africa?
xii. What are the trends in the enrolment of international students at selected South African public universities and more broadly within the higher education sector?
xiii. How do these trends reflect or reinforce disparities between higher education institutions?

Question (iii) was addressed at length in Chapter 12. The findings to the other questions are summarised in this chapter although they are not presented in the same order in which the questions appear.

13.2 ENROLMENT TRENDS AND INSTITUTIONAL DISPARITIES

The growth in international student numbers and national enrolment trends were analysed in Chapter 12. A final summary and recommendations are provided in this chapter. Evidence from this research indicates that the most obvious manifestation of internationalisation in South Africa during the period 1994 to 2001 has been first, the rapid growth in international student numbers, and second, the setting up of International Office structures at some universities. The latter manifestation is elaborated in the Section 13.8 (Institutional Responses).

The *growth in international student numbers* was not as rapid at all institutions and has been alluded to in Chapters 6 to 11. To sum up, the trends indicate a number of significant findings. First, that the major direction of student traffic is a one-way flow into South Africa. Second, a dramatic growth in international student numbers at South African higher education institutions since the early 1990s is noted. Whereas in 1992 this figure was 4 603 (Rouhani & Paterson 1996), by 2002, it had increased to 46 687[199] (CHE 2004) and in 2006 it was estimated to be about 52 000[200]. Third, the "increase was of such significance that in 1999 the Department of Education commissioned a study[201] on the phenomenon" (Mabizela 2004). Fourth, the increase was most marked at older, historically White English universities, such as UCT, followed by Afrikaans Universities, such as SU. The historically Black universities, such as UFH, were marginalised in this equation. This distribution is explained in the section below.

In terms of *distribution of international students among South African public universities*, the largest number of international students was initially enrolled at older, residential, historically White English universities, followed by historically White Afrikaans universities, such as UCT, SU, UP, and UN, which also established fully-fledged International Offices. Later, this difference in numbers between HWE and HWA universities evened out. Second in line to these older, HWUs were smaller and younger HWUs, which set up either fully-fledged International Offices, as in the case of UPE, or International Office structures, for example, RU and PUCHE. Third, close to this group, were larger HBUs, such as UWC and UDW, followed by smaller and/or younger HBUs. Most of these two latter groups of HBUs either had very small International Office structures, such as an office staffed by one or two people working on a part-time basis (for example, UFH), or had no structure to cater to the needs of international students (for example, UNW). These findings are corroborated by earlier findings; for example, the EPU (1999:11) report states that: "International students are concentrated in a small number of residential universities (UCT, SU, WITS, UP, RU, and

[199] Whereas between 1996 and 1998, international students constituted 3% of university and 2% of technikon enrolments (EPU 1999), in 2002, these proportions had increased to 8% and 3% respectively (Mabizela 2004).
[200] Institute of International Education, Atlas of Student Mobility www.atlas.iienetwork.org accessed on 13 November 2006.
[201] In particular, the aim of the report was to determine the extent to which the South African higher education system is used by African countries and what policy options are available to the Department to make higher education "infrastructure available to other countries in Africa as part of a regional exchange programme" (EPU 1999:13).

UN) and in two main geographic regions, the Western Cape and Gauteng"; "very few international students register at historically disadvantaged institutions" (7).

In terms of *disparities among South African public higher education institutions*, the implications of these trends are that the HAIs could be further advantaged and the HDIs could be further disadvantaged by internationalisation if the current scenario prevails, in other words, if no intervention, guidance and assistance occurs by the state or other role players, such as IEASA or CTP/SAUVCA[202], for capacity building within HDIs. In support of the need for government regulation, Mampuru (2000:10) asserts that:

> There is a danger to be avoided. Internationalisation, where institutions are concerned, should not be a free-for-all process, lest it happens at the detriment of HDIs. Government has a responsibility to assist in capacitating HDIs so that they can take advantage of opportunities open to them.

The above finding upholds the argument presented in Chapter 3 that globalisation further marginalises the 'have-nots', in this case, those on the fringes of knowledge production, those in rural locations, and those in smaller, less known and less resourced institutions. Many HBUs appear to be on the peripheries of global knowledge networks and are likely to remain in this position if they ignore internationalisation as a strategic dimension. While not all South African higher education institutions can or should be international in the sense of catering to significant (more than 5%) proportions of international students, some institutions, with a little support and capacity building, may indeed, attract more international students should they aspire to do so.

However, given the historical disparities, the current higher education landscape is an uneven playing field, and individual institutions lack the capacity to go it alone on the path to internationalisation. This raises the question of competing interests: on the one hand, the perceived need to internationalise, and on the other, the need to improve access to tertiary education for South African students. In this respect, Mampuru (2000:10) raises a number of pertinent questions: "Are South African higher education institutions ready to embark on internationalisation? How differentiated is this level of readiness and to what extent does it reflect the history of inequality in the country? Should there be institutions whose focus

[202] Due to the merging of the university and technikon sectors, the CTP and SAUVCA amalgamated in 2005 to form HESA, which will represent the leadership of the merged higher education sector. At the time of commencing this thesis, SAUVCA and CTP were still in existence as separate entities.

should be on the national agenda of equity, redress and access?", in other words, not on international students. In support of this point, Kishun (in CHET 2003:4) notes that "There is a need to develop a proper regulatory environment if South Africa is to gain from the benefits of internationalisation". Similarly, Maassen (*ibid.* :13) confirms: "There is a need for a process of national negotiation/reflection among the key stakeholders with respect to what South Africa wants from internationalisation and how the system can benefit from it, or how it may even be threatened by it".

It is therefore *recommended* that a national working committee be set up to investigate all aspects of internationalisation at South African higher education institutions. Among its mandates would be to investigate "'Who is doing what?' as far as internationalisation is concerned in South Africa" (Mampuru 2000:10); frame a strategic master plan for internationalisation on a sectoral, national, regional (SADC), continental (African Union) and international level; coordinate the policies and activities of all role players in internationalisation; formulate a framework to "regulate the field" (Kishun in CHET 2003:4), including marketing the higher education sector as a whole; investigate how to provide support to those institutions which do have the desire to go about internationalisation in a more systematic way; and recommend how to provide opportunities for staff development and capacity building. In addition, it is *recommended* that IEASA be given a more prominent role, not just as a professional association, but in an advisory capacity to higher education institutions and to the Department of Education, for example, to assist them with developing strategic plans and implementing internationalisation. Alternatively, an international advisory portfolio should be created within the ranks of the CTP/SAUVCA[203] in order to address this need.

The need for a major internationalisation initiative can now be addressed, some ten years and more after the birth of democracy, given that the national transformation agenda has been substantially implemented and is less likely to dominate the higher education agenda to the same extent in the next ten years. In view of the growing, inescapable pressure from globalisation, national strategic planning is urgently required. It should come as no surprise that most higher education institutions and IEASA itself have strongly expressed their

[203] SAUVCA and CTP merged in 2005 to form HESA, Higher Education South Africa, which represents the joint university and technikon sectors.

dissatisfaction with the way in which both the Department of Education[204] and SAUVCA had *failed* to address internationalisation in a sustainable, concerted and holistic manner. Cognizant of these factors, SAUVCA (2004:3) has noted:

> Internationalisation is positioned as a pillar of SAUVCA's Leadership Initiative…Executives and managers of the universities represented [have] endorsed the need for a sectoral approach to internationalisation and the development of a sector-wide strategy to enhance the international dimension of South African higher education.

13.3 INSTITUTIONAL RATIONALES FOR INTERNATIONALISATION

As seen in Chapters 6 to 11, a variety of rationales for internationalisation motivate South African public higher education institutions. The arguments may be economic or political, cultural or pedagogic, and even moral. These rationales often coexist or overlap within one institution, although to different degrees, or predominate at one institution. For example, whereas the cultural/educational rationale predominated at SU and RU, the economic rationale predominated at UPE.

For smaller HBUs, such as UFH, the moral rationale is important, namely the moral obligation to accommodate fellow Africans from neighbouring countries which may lack the higher education resources and which assisted South Africa during the struggle against apartheid. In the case of smaller institutions, denying access to students from other African countries cannot be justified on the grounds that they lack the resources for international students. Further, these institutions cannot justify charging higher fees to students from African countries beyond the SADC.

In the absence of a national policy on internationalisation, the 'tone or sentiment' conveyed (by the Department of Education) is that whatever rationales are adopted by institutions, they need to consider at least three imperatives: first of all, South Africa's commitment to redressing past disparities and inequalities by adhering to the national transformation agenda of access, redress, and equity; second, South Africa's commitment to the SADC (1997) Protocol on Education and training; and third, her commitment to human resource development on the continent as expressed by the NEPAD initiative. The rationales for these

[204] This refers to the Division for Higher Education, the Chief Directorate for Higher education Policy and its Directorates for Policy and Development Support, as well as International Relations and Policy.

three national, regional and continental imperatives have been primarily moral and political, not economic.

Given their relative autonomy, institutions have prioritised these rationales differently, caught as they are between the imperatives of 'cash' and 'commitment'. On the one hand is the need to increase income – and international students can be used to serve this purpose – on the other is a moral commitment to diversity and the international community while meeting the needs of the national transformation agenda. Different stakeholder viewpoints are voiced below.

National priorities take precedence for Mampuru (2000:8) who notes that "the South African higher education budget is already extended beyond its means. Having to fund international students from an already exhausted budget would constitute a rather tall order". Thus, in the absence of other forces, internationalisation should not constitute a financial burden for the already burdened higher education system. However, from an entrepreneurial perspective in support of the economic rationale, Jooste (in CHET 2003:5) raises the question, "Is a focus on 'development' politically sustainable, when internationally the focus is on gaining economic benefit from internationalisation?".

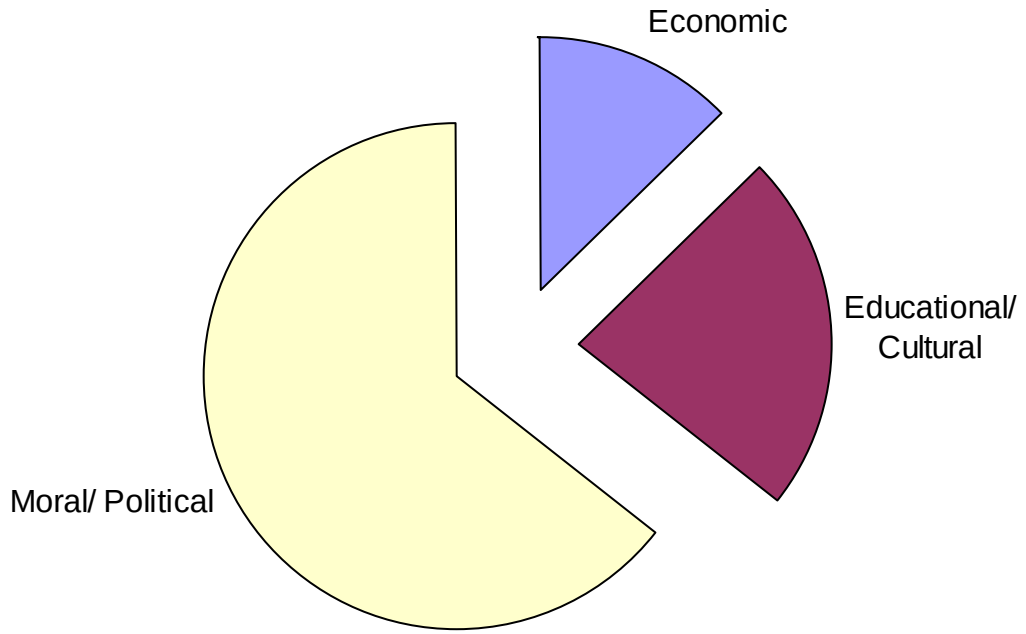
On the other hand, broader *regional* and *continental* issues highlight the need for the moral rationale. "South Africa cannot open access to its higher education institutions, only to those with financial muscle. Concessions have to be made for the poor from around the region, in particular, SADC" (Mampuru 2000:8). This is due to four reasons. First, South Africa's moral 'debt' to other African countries that supported the exile community through the apartheid years; second, its commitment to human resource development on the continent; third, the critical role it is expected to play in regenerating the higher education system of the continent; and fourth, its role as one of the five[205] countries leading NEPAD and the African Renaissance.

These rationales for internationalisation of South African higher education carry different weights for the government and higher education institutions. The interplay between the rationales for internationalisation is contrasted below. Figure 24 indicates that the

[205] The other four countries are Nigeria, Senegal, Algeria and Libya.

moral/political rationales dominated the government' agenda, whereas Figure 25 indicates that economic considerations dominated the agenda of some HWUs, such as UPE.

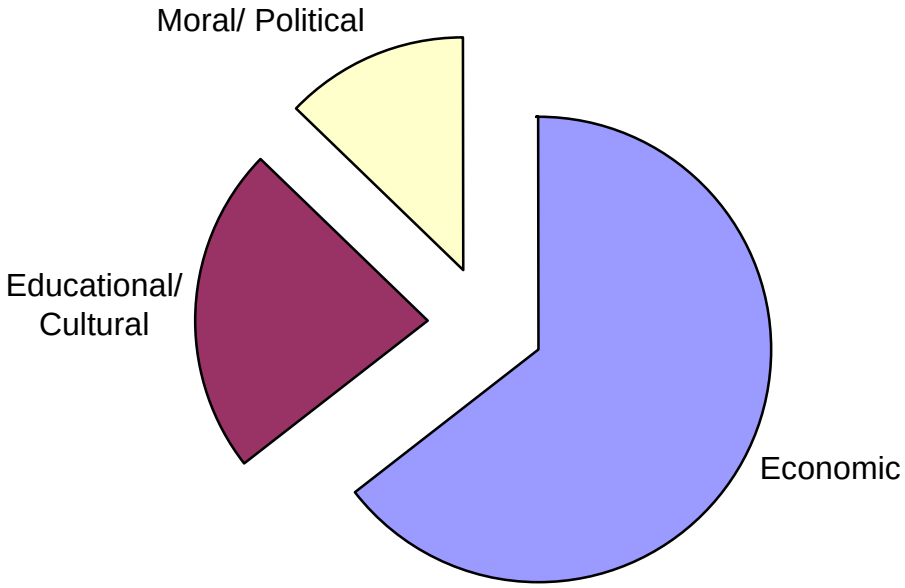
Figure 25. Rationales for internationalisation for the South African Government.



The illustrations in Figures 25 and 26 indicate a *mismatch* between the government's rationales for internationalisation and those of most South African historically White universities with large numbers of international students. While the moral and political rationales predominate for the government, the economic and educational/cultural rationales predominate at a number of HWUs, although not in the same order.

Again, for different universities (comprising the case studies in this research), these rationales carry different weights as illustrated below, and indicate that not all universities are motivated solely by profit. For example, similar to the priorities for the government (in Figure 25 above), the moral and political rationales are prioritised at UFH. However, the educational and cultural rationales predominate at RU and SU (Figure 27), whereas the economic rationale is a priority at UPE (same as Figure 25). For UCT the three rationales seem to be equally important (Figure 28).

Figure 26. Rationales for internationalisation at some South African HWUs.



At present, the lack of a policy framework is enabling for those institutions with financial means and expertise on internationalisation, whereas it is very disaffirming for those HDIs which lack these resources. In the near future, in the absence of government policy and capacity building on internationalisation and support from international donors, these policy tensions are likely to persist and HAIs are likely to gain from internationalisation, not just financially, but by becoming partners in global exchange networks that will strengthen their position as global role players in the international arena. This scenario illustrates the arguments raised by various authors (Beerkens 2003, Hoogvelt 1998, Radhakrishnan 2003) in Chapter 3 that globalisation favours the strong over the weak.

Figure 27. Rationales for internationalisation at Stellenbosch and Rhodes Universities in 2001.

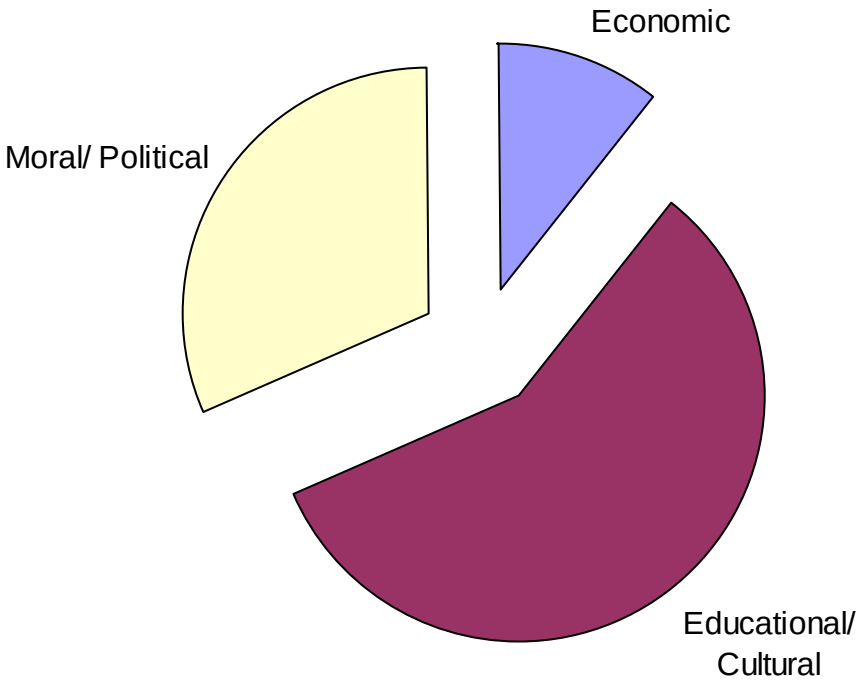
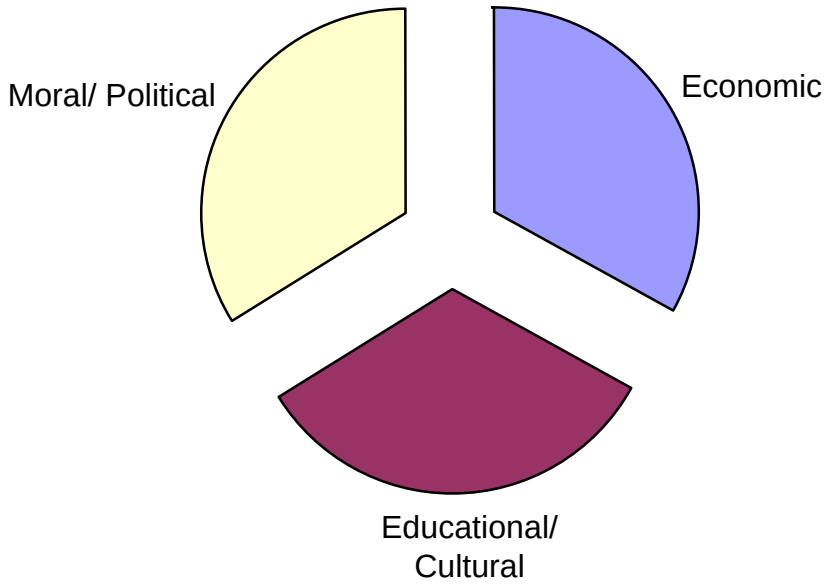


Figure 28. Rationales for internationalisation at the University of Cape Town in 2001.



13.4 INSTITUTIONAL STRATEGIES TOWARDS INTERNATIONALISATION

This issue was explored at length in Chapters 6 to 11. The most evident strategies have been the recruiting of international students, setting up International Offices, and marketing higher education institutions internationally. Towards these goals, a number of marketing and recruitment strategies have been adopted. These differ according to the institution, the student market, and the region of the world. The goals also differ depending on whether the students are degree-seeking or occasional students.

For example in East and Southern Africa, high school students and school leavers are recruited directly in their home countries by school visits or through career fairs and exhibitions. These are degree-seeking applicants. Whereas UCT markets itself in this manner in East and Southern Africa and is vehemently against the use of agents, UPE relies heavily on agents in East and Central Africa for marketing and recruitment[206]. Further, UPE makes use of agents in Scandinavia and is exclusively dependent on them in China, mainly due to the language factor.

Most Chinese students (at UPE) initially enrol for a (semester-long) language course, and then apply for degree studies, whereas the majority of students from Europe and North America enrol as occasional students. The occasional students may be 'free-moving', 'study abroad' and exchange students. The 'free movers' pay full fees, whereas 'study abroad' and exchange students' fees are determined by the terms of the exchange agreement between the South African and home institutions.

The exchange students are informed about South African universities through their home institutions, thus only minor marketing is necessary by South African institutions for this group, whereas for the free-moving occasional students, the Internet appears to be the main (silent) marketing tool. That email and Internet are more accessible to European and North American students than for those from many African countries, where even the postal system

[206] UCT views it as unethical to use agents. This view is shared by some South African universities. The reliance of UPE on agents reflects its market-driven rationale for internationalisation, and is a clear indication of the different value systems espoused by the different International Offices and by implication, the institutions. While it is possible to find reliable agents, this is not always the case and comes under the spotlight when there is a mismatch between student expectations and the reality of the South African institution. This mismatch was more prevalent among Chinese students at UPE.

is not reliable, must be noted. Thus, ICT, such as email and the Internet, is the tool most widely used for the marketing of South African universities, where ICT is available, followed by the direct marketing of institutions by international office personnel, the use of agents in some cases, and initiatives by IEASA to market the South African higher education sector.

Promotional material heavily advertises the location of some South African universities in coastal towns, such as Cape Town, Durban and Port Elizabeth that are major tourist attractions, and promotes idyllic 'postcard shots' of these cities in order to recruit fee-paying occasional students that are frequently known to come to South African higher education institutions as 'academic tourists'. These marketing tactics often overshadow the academic and administrative shortcomings of some South African universities such as UPE.

Another strategy for internationalisation has been the setting up of International Offices or 'one-person' offices to provide the services required by international students and to deal with their paper-work and administrative needs. This was also explored in Chapter 6 to 11. One interesting finding is that student numbers grew more rapidly at institutions where independent International Offices with a full staff complement were set up. Understandably, these institutions had the machinery to cope with the specific needs of international students. This is particularly evident in the case of UPE where international student numbers grew from about a few hundred to over 1 200 in a four-year period. This rapid growth took place despite the fact that prior to 2005, UPE was considered to be a small, provincial, mainly undergraduate university. In addition to the establishment of an International Office, this growth may be attributed to the strong profit-driven founding rationale for internationalisation at UPE and the marketing strategies adopted by the International Office. However, as was pointed out in Chapter 8, rapid growth in international student numbers is not necessarily the best indication of an institution's success in internationalisation although it may be the most visible. Further, aggressive marketing and recruitment should not be undertaken in haste lest the quality of education be compromised in the process.

A third marketing strategy has been to target international exhibitions and career fairs outside South Africa. Institutions participated in these fora either as individual institutions or as a group. IEASA has been the main force behind marketing the South African higher education sector in Europe and the USA through participation in the EAIE and NAFSA conferences and exhibitions respectively. However, it should be pointed out that:

> The fact that the South African government does not fund the promotion of South African higher education internationally, is a problem, since this could be one of the many earners of foreign income, as it is in Australia. Currently, higher education institutions themselves bear the burden of marketing international education. This exacerbates the inequalities among South African institutions, since many HDIs do not have the funds to promote international education in their institutions (EPU 1999:20).

Towards the goal of marketing South Africa as a destination for higher education, what is conspicuous by its absence is an organisation such as the British Council or DAAD in South Africa. At present IEASA to some extent under the banner of "Study SA", is fulfilling this role. However, far more could be achieved if IEASA were to be given greater power and recognition, for example, as a HESA structure. Therefore, it is *recommended* that higher education institutions tread cautiously and avoid growing international student numbers too rapidly. Seeing internationalisation merely as a 'cash cow' could show South African higher education institutions without adequate international student services up in a bad light and is nothing short of opportunistic academic entrepreneurship that, in the long run, will tarnish the good reputation of South African higher education institutions as a whole. If the Department of Education or SAUVCA had in place a 'watch-dog' unit or *ombudsman*, it could monitor and evaluate internationalisation at South African higher education institutions and regulate the field, as recommended earlier in this chapter.

13.5 CURRENT POLICY ON INTERNATIONALISATION

At the institutional level, only a handful of South African public higher education institutions had or have a policy on internationalisation. The range of existing policies were analysed in Chapters 6 to 11. Very few institutions actually had any written policy on internationalisation in 2001. For those that did, the policy was more of a vision or a blue-print than clearly articulated guidelines. Finally, while policies might stress the need to form 'African connections', in fact, the majority of HWUs partnerships were and are with European institutions (EPU 1999).

At the national level, in 2001, the Department of Education at least outlined a framework to facilitate international student access to South African higher education institutions, even if this is far from being a comprehensive national policy. Among the issues addressed (DoE 2001; *Sunday Times* 11 March 2001) were the following: streamlining procedures for

obtaining work and study permits with the Department of Home Affairs; finalising policy on subsidisation of SADC and all international postgraduate students; exploring the possibility of a uniform additional levy for SADC students; and recruiting more master's and doctoral students as well as academic staff from Africa who will provide role models[207] for local students. Currently universities receive the state subsidy for SADC students; however, institutions charge differential fees and levies.

Revised national guidelines on the admission of international students to South African higher education institutions were introduced in 1995. These specified that exceptions were made for undergraduate and pre-diploma applicants if the intended fields of study were not offered in their home countries. Previously, these students could not be easily admitted. The Department of Home Affairs left the admission of international students to the discretion of respective institutions. Briefly, a major challenge at government level is policy alignment between all departments involved in international staff and student mobility issues.

The need for national policy and coordination between and among government departments is supported by Dr Kishun, the IEASA President (in CHET 2003:4), who states that a need "to develop a proper regulatory environment if South Africa is to gain from the benefits of internationalisation" exists, as well as for the

> co-ordination of activities between the different Ministries of government, namely Foreign Affairs, Home Affairs, Trade and Industry, and Education. Many higher education institutions experience bottlenecks in their efforts to recruit international students, some of which were the consequence of immigration laws (*ibid.*).

The lack of inter-sectoral co-ordination and policy on internationalisation at the national, sectoral and institutional levels are echoed in a SAUVCA (2004:2) position paper:

> Clearly, a targeted sectoral approach requires collective strategy and action. Yet up to this point, sectoral and institutional stances on internationalisation have not always been aligned…
>
> While internationalisation of higher education is increasingly a reality at institutional level, it is fair to say that, until now, the initiatives undertaken

[207] Due to the inequalities of the apartheid system, most (senior) academics and researchers at South African higher education institutions have been white males, thus providing no role models for local black students. Some institutions such as UCT have introduced programmes to employ more African academics from the continent.

> have been piecemeal and *ad hoc,* and have not accessed more far-reaching possibilities available to South African higher education..

Developing a policy framework on internationalisation is the focus of a forthcoming study[208] by McLellan who argues that since "internationalisation is a complex and intricate process", a broad and comprehensive policy that covers all aspects of the internationalisation of South African higher education is not feasible at present, but that a short and concise policy framework is more appropriate to serve as a guide for future development. He advocates that after defining internationalisation in the South African context, the following nine broad issues should be considered by South African higher education authorities regarding a national policy on internationalisation: legitimation, student mobility, government and policy harmonisation, higher education institution harmonisation, regional and continental development and the role of internationalisation in it, marketing of South African higher education internationally, quality assurance, redress and equity, economics, and finally finance and trace in internationalisation of higher education (McLellan 2006:188).

13.6 REGIONAL AND CONTINENTAL INITIATIVES

Within the SADC region, the most significant development regarding the flow of international students to South Africa is the signing of the SADC (1997) Protocol that facilitates access of SADC students to South African higher education institutions. The SADC Protocol introduced the following measures: a minimum quota of 5% of admissions in all higher education institutions are to be reserved for SADC students; agreements on harmonisation, equivalence and eventual standardisation of entrance requirements; the need to facilitate credit transfers from one institution to another in the region; the harmonisation of academic calendars of universities to facilitate student mobility; ensuring that within ten years from the signing of the Protocol that all SADC students to be treated as home students for the purposes of fees and accommodation; and facilitating movement of students from the region for the purposes of study, research and other pursuits related to education and training.

However, these recommendations have led to problems at the implementation level. The spirit of the SADC (1997) Protocol, to promote student flows within the region, is not

[208] McLellan is pursuing a PhD on "Internationalisation policy and the transformation of the higher education sector in South Africa".

happening. Currently, the student flow is one way into South Africa. Pertinent questions have been raised, for example:

> What strategies can institutions develop to meet the SADC protocol requirement that at least 5% of students in all institutions in South Africa should come from the SADC region?
>
> The SADC Protocol stipulation that SADC students should pay the same fees as South African students has raised some issues. Who pays for the special or additional services that higher education institutions offer SADC students? If SADC students cannot be charged an additional levy for these services, then they are being funded by the fees that local students pay, since the South African government does not subsidise SADC students (CHET 2003:5).

Other regional developments in addition to the SADC (1997) Protocol are South Africa's commitment to development of the continent and the positive effects of international cultural and academic exchange on South African students. While the EPU (1999:23) report pointed out that "Of fundamental current importance are questions around the approach South Africa should adopt toward regionalism and internationalisation", SAUVCA (2004:2) went further to point out that:

> South African higher education's approach to internationalisation must reinforce its social and public value for the nation; and must also be synchronised with and supportive of, its regional and continental relationships and their particular purposes. Critically, internationalisation and regionalisation are interlinked processes.

South Africa's contribution towards human resource development in Africa has been indelibly shaped by historical factors and is largely unregulated. This requires redress through the establishment of regionally specific programmes that are funded by governments and involve scholarship funding for students.

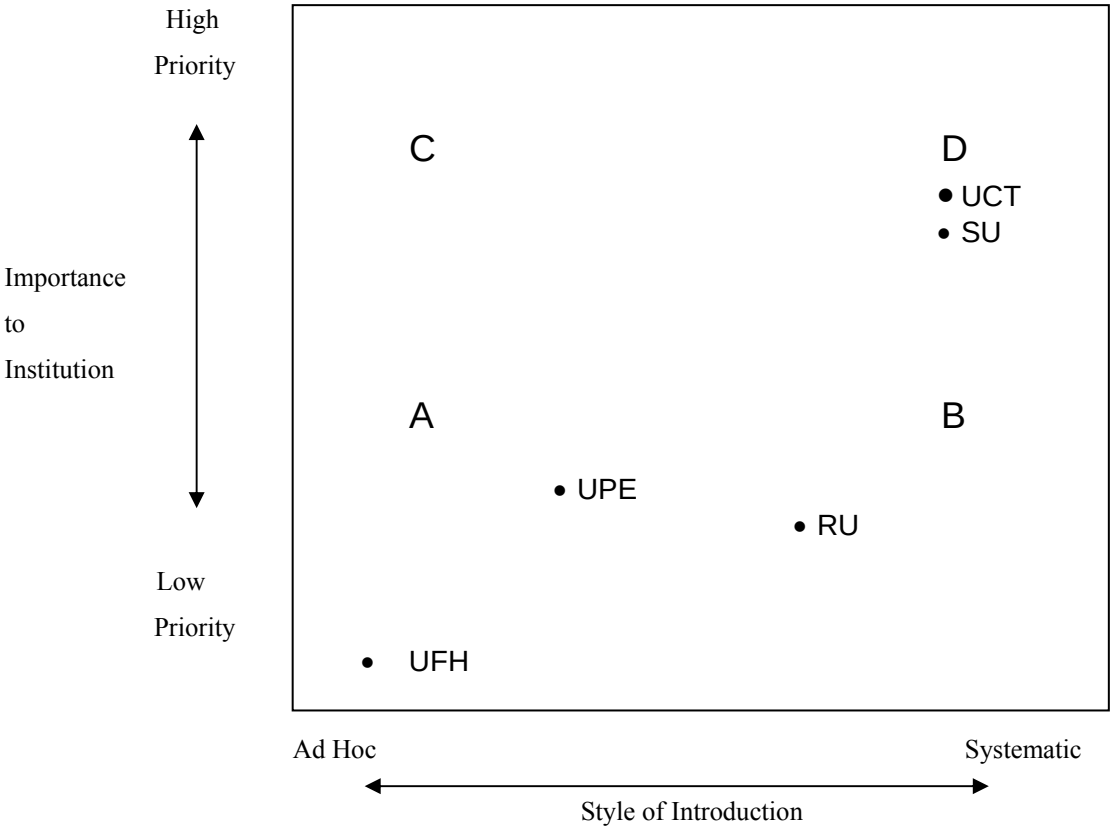
It is *recommended* that a clear need exists for a central admissions office and for educationally linked government-to-government and university-to-university bilateral and multilateral agreements, as well as more institutional partnerships with business organisations and a regionally focused internship scheme. The South African government and the business sector should spearhead partnership formation with African higher education institutions. Further, that a transcontinental 'clearing house' be set up to advise governments, students and donors about higher education opportunities in South Africa is recommended. This advisory structure could be set up jointly by the Association of African Universities in collaboration with NEPAD and the African Union and would operate through HESA in South Africa.

13.7 INSTITUTIONAL APPROACHES TO INTERNATIONALISATION

The approaches of selected South African public universities to internationalisation between 1994 and 2001 have been varied and may best be summarised in terms of two variables, namely, importance to the institution and style of introduction of internationalisation. These responses were illustrated in the modified Davies (1995) model in Chapter 4, Chapters 6 to 11 and are elaborated again below.

For some South African public higher education institutions, internationalisation had a high priority and was introduced in a systematic manner. UCT and SU were among the first universities to set up an International Office and had a strategic plan for internationalisation by 2001. Although UPE had identified internationalisation as a priority, the means to achieving internationalisation were somewhat less systematic at the time of the research and while the International Office was emerging and a strategic plan was being conceived. For others, although internationalisation was somewhat of a priority, it was developed in a more systematic manner, for example, at RU. A small minority, for example, UFH, although aware of the global significance of internationalisation, lacked the resources to embrace it. For a last group of institutions, internationalisation was and is not a priority, in particular given the (national transformation) challenges faced by many smaller institutions, mainly HBUs. Figure 29 illustrates the placement of each of these universities on the Davies model.

Figure 29. The modified Davis model for institutionalisation of approaches to internationalisation applied to five South African universities in 2001 by Rouhani.[209]



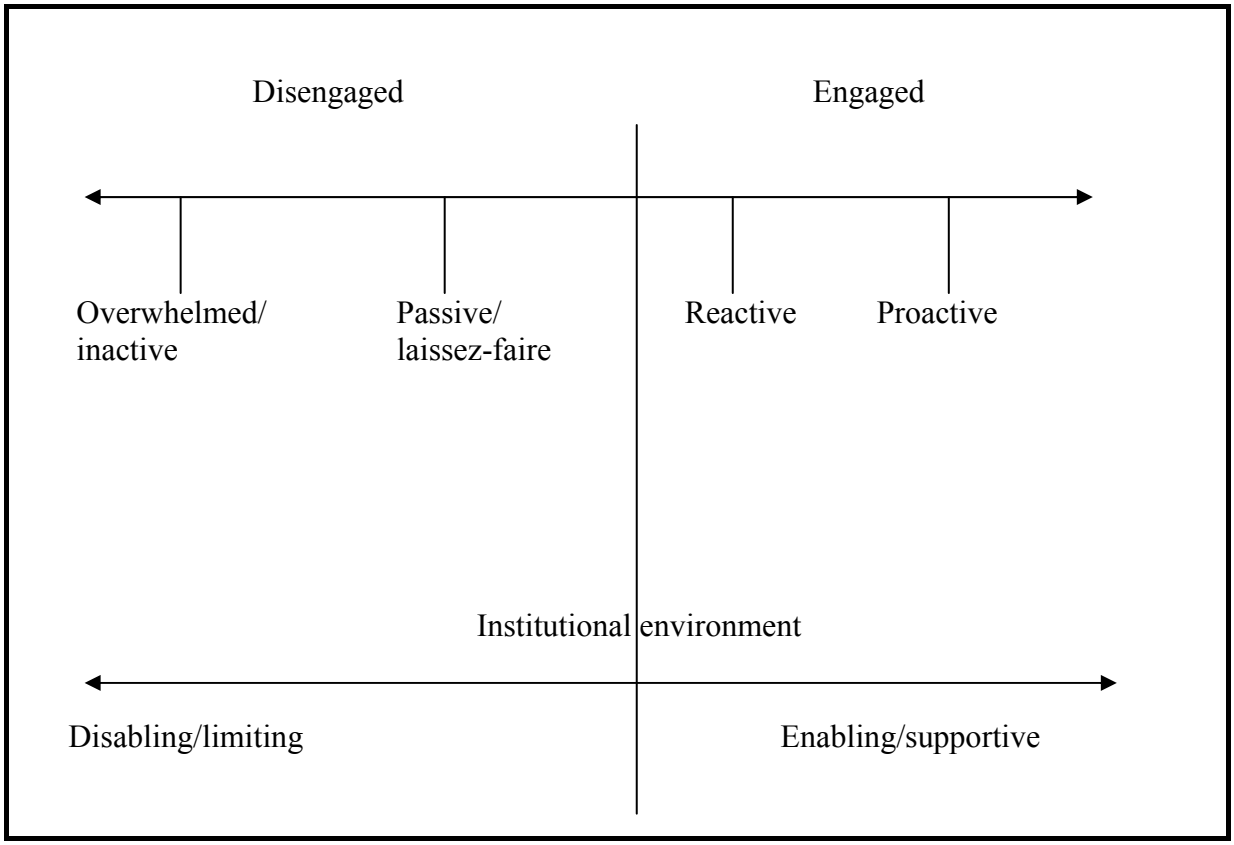
13.8 INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSES TO INTERNATIONALISATION

Although the initiatives taken by selected South African public universities in reaction to the demands of internationalisation vary greatly, four major categories of response may be identified. These may be called the proactive, reactive, passive and inactive responses (Figure 30).[210] The first two responses pertain to institutions which have decided to engage with internationalisation, while the latter two pertain to those institutions which have disengaged from internationalisation, either by commission or omission.

[209] Note: There are no lines to demarcate clearly between various types of institutions as falling within one or other of Davies' cells, A, B, C or D. The only point that can be made is that some institutional approaches have been more systematic than others, and internationalisation has been more of a priority to some than others. Institutions may be subjectively located somewhere along the two 'scales' but are in a continual process of shifting. They cannot be fitted neatly into 'boxes' as in the original Davies model. However, at the time of my research, my subjective impression was 'mapped' as above. Needless to say, the present state of affairs is somewhat different from the above picture.

[210] Rudzki (1995; 1998) has also identified pro-active and reactive models of internationalisation.

Figure 30. Institutional responses to internationalisation.



The *proactive* universities are those that view the international student influx as a positive development. They have tried to manage and exploit this not only as a source of additional income, but also as a means of increasing student diversity on campus. Further, other dimensions of internationalisation, such as inter-institutional links and partnerships and staff development have been encouraged. Their responses are characterised by a planned, long-term, aggressive drive towards internationalisation. For these institutions then, internationalisation is a means for becoming more globally competitive or 'world class' institutions. Of the universities examined in this thesis, UCT and SU fit within the proactive category.

The *reactive* institutions, on the other hand, appear to have no long-term plans in place. They do not have a concerted plan or a vision of how they want to benefit from internationalisation. Their responses are usually arrived at in reaction to a situation such as the arrival of a group

of students or delegation of faculty from universities abroad. In 2001, UPE[211] was among this group.

A third group are those who have adopted a *passive* or laissez-faire approach. For them, internationalisation may be a distant reality of which they would rather not be a part. However, they are happy to make use of any opportunities if these opportunities are not too taxing on their systems.

The last group of institutions are those which see internationalisation as an added burden and have decided to *disengage* themselves from the process. *Overwhelmed* by national and institutional agendas for transformation and redress, and lacking the capacity to deliver, they are unable or unwilling to cope with additional demands. Internationalisation is not part of the reality of these institutions. A large group of HBUs, such as UFH, fall into the latter categories. They are institutions which, deliberately or not, are oriented to the local environment and for which the international dimension remains incidental, individual or, at best, consists of a combination of unrelated activities, projects and programs.

If one scans the South African university landscape, it is evident that most of the proactive institutions have framed enabling institutional policies to facilitate international student access. To begin with, internationalisation forms part and parcel of the strategic plans of the institution. Second, the formation of an International Office has facilitated the processing of international students. Third, these institutions have structures in place which can address campus socialisation issues such as integrated or separate residence facilities for international students. Despite the fact that some institutions, such as UCT, UN and UPE, charge international students higher fees, this move has not prevented the increase in international student enrolments at these institutions. This is mainly due to the fact that on a global scale, these fees are still lower than those in the UK, Australia or the USA. In addition to catering for the normal international student, UCT and UN, for example, have short-term 'study abroad' groups of US students who are an excellent source of income.

[211] Since 2001, when this research was conducted, UPE has become more pro-active, for example, by establishing a dedicated International Office and formulating an internationalisation policy, among other things.

In terms of institutional environments, whereas the actively engaged institutions operate within a supportive or enabling institutional environment, the disengaged institutions are inhibited by disabling institutional cultures. In particular, most HBUs are not equipped to internationalise, given the historic disadvantages which still weigh heavily upon them.

13.9 FUTURE RESEARCH ON INTERNATIONALISATION

Research into internationalisation in South Africa is still in its infancy and much remains to be done. It is therefore recommended to add the following needs to any future research agenda. It is important to understand and assess the financial and social benefits that accrue to South Africa as a result of international student inflows; this will be a major undertaking. A need also exists to identify mechanisms for marketing South African public higher education institutions in a coherent and systematic manner. Evaluating the future human resource needs within the SADC and the potential role of the South African public higher education institutions in addressing those needs and assessing the cost implications of providing access to increasing number of students from the SADC region and treating them as home students will be necessary.

As a vital component of the internationalisation effort, a data bank on international students enrolled at South African higher education institutions will be required. The existing Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS) is not well adapted to collecting and analysing data on international students in South Africa (SAUVCA 2004). Previously, the EPU (1999:6) report had noted that "Serious attention should be given by the Department of Education to address data weaknesses on international students". To this end, public higher education institutions should, in addition to SAPSE expectations, be required to provide annual information on international students with respect to field and level of study, students' career plans, country and region of origin, and residence status in South Africa. However this demand would require additional administrative capacity at most institutions which are operating under stringent budget conditions.

Other issues with respect to international students which stem from a lack of comprehensive data include the following according to CHET (2003): The number and proportion of international students who remain behind in South Africa and who do not return home upon completing their studies; whether South Africa is a net exporter or importer of students; the

proportion of students who are in South Africa as a result of individual initiative as opposed to coming here through bilateral government agreements; the 'ghettoisation' of international students on campuses and their integration into South African student life; the issue of xenophobia[212] on campuses; the extent to which curricula at South African higher education institutions are relevant to international students; whether student organisations take the issue of internationalisation seriously, to the extent of setting up offices or portfolios dealing with internationalisation issues; and the socio-economic status of the students coming to study in South Africa.

From the foregoing account about the need for accurate data on international students, it is evident that a great deal of further research is required in the area of internationalisation of higher education in South and Southern Africa. Because South Africa is a new comer to the global village of higher education internationalisation, in common with other parts of the world, it also suffers from "a *lack of comprehensive documentation*" in the areas of research about international student mobility and international education (Teichler 1996a:338, emphasis in original). One implication of this lack of documentation is a need for researchers with the appropriate research skills and theoretical backgrounds to debate the issues. I concur with Teichler that internationalisation of higher education is a highly specialised sub-field of higher education, and a need exists "to ensure that it is not completely subordinated to a larger thematic context, *but that it also really addresses the characteristics of the specific theme*" (Teichler 1996a:343, emphasis in original).

It is therefore *recommended* that the reliability of the data passed on to the Department of Education by institutions be improved. To design a new system for reporting and recording data to replace or refine HEMIS may be necessary. "This would assist with decisions such as evaluating whether all institutions have the capacity to internationalise, whether all should internationalise, and the implications for access, redress and equity" (Mampuru 2000:10). Further, it is *recommended* that specific research projects on internationalisation be commissioned by the Department of Education and other stakeholders, such as the IEASA and HESA.

[212] This issue has been probed by Shindondola (2002).

13.10 CONCLUSION

The increasing flow of international students to South Africa has brought new challenges and opportunities for the higher education sector and institutions, which are caught between two countervailing necessities. On the one hand is the need to address the demands of institutional and systemic transformation. On the other is the attempt to come to grips with the pressures of internationalisation and globalisation. Given the legacy of long-term isolation from the rest of the world, most of these institutions were unprepared for the rapid influx of international students in the 1990s after the birth of the new South Africa.

While the historical advantage of White institutions initially gave them the edge over their historically disadvantaged counterparts in attracting a greater number of international students, over and above that historical advantage, institutions that saw the advantages of internationalisation and decided to exploit them in a systematic manner have advantaged themselves even further. UCT and SU are prime examples of universities benefiting from a commitment to internationalisation. On the other hand, institutions such as Fort Hare, which have a rich legacy as the 'crucible of African leadership' need to market themselves much more effectively as such, and so convert their unique historically disadvantaged legacy to their advantage[213]. Alongside the national trend of student flows towards HWUs and technikons, most HBUs may also consider growth in international student numbers as a significant means for supplementing their incomes. This will require careful planning and the allocation of adequate resources, both internally and from outside funding agencies. By and large, student services in the HBUs are not equipped to deal with a large influx of international students, since many HBUs have no enrolment plan, and do very little international marketing.

In internationalising, public higher education institutions are going it alone with very uneven results and practically no guidance from the national agencies. For example the differential fees charged to international students vary a great deal and have the potential for abuse (profiteering) or shortfalls. This issue and others need to receive the attention of all

[213] In the same vein, the University of the Western Cape, which is by no means short of partnership agreements with overseas institutions and in 1999 had more international students than some historically white institutions, has not managed to exploit this advantage effectively.

stakeholders with respect to articulating a vision and designing a strategic internationalisation policy framework and plan with clearly stated objectives, realistic budgets and provision for outcomes assessment. These stakeholders would include the Departments of Education, Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, and Trade and Industry; HESA and its sponsors; and research agencies such as the NRF, MRC and the International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA). For the South African higher education sector to become part of the global community, the question to consider is no longer "To internationalise or not?" but "How to internationalise most effectively?". The leadership of South African universities have clearly understood the urgency of the situation:

> SAUVCA … must give shape to a view of internationalisation that emanates from an understanding of higher education as a public good with ethical and social responsibilities both to the nation and to other – especially African – countries. A collaborative approach built around external and internal alliances, rather than profit or competition motives, is long overdue (SAUVCA 2004:2).

Faced with the increasing worldwide competition for talented international students and recognising the very real economic and societal benefits that accrue to the receiving countries, a number of countries have implemented national policies that promote internationalisation. Australia has, with great success, led a major marketing campaign that is grounded in a most generous *Australian Scholarships* program. Starting in the 1990s, the United Kingdom initiated a concerted programme of branding and marketing its universities, and of providing the prestigious *Chevening Scholarships*, funded at about 30 million pounds per annum, and supporting 2,300 students from 150 countries each year. Canada, for its part, is eager to create a *Knowledge Advantage* – a very ambitious national programme, to form the best-educated, most skilled and most flexible workforce in the world, a programme that includes financial support for foreign students.

The need for the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa is all the more urgent given its history. Internationalisation may be viewed as a countervailing force to isolation, to those years in which the country was cut off from commerce with the world. It is through internationalisation that old wounds can be healed, and a new generation of students can be given the exposure to cultures, societies and systems different from their own. They need to be equipped to understand, work with, and where appropriate, resist the forces of globalisation. They will play a major role in helping the nation to become a global role player and fulfil its commitment to developing the continent. Internationalisation may be viewed as

a transformative elixir for South Africa and its neighbours in their embrace of the world and the building of a new world order.

> Ton Christ est juif. Ta voiture est japonaise, ta pizza est italienne et ton couscous algérien. Ta démocratie est grecque. Ton café est brésilien, ta montre est Suisse, ta chemise est indienne, ta radio est coréenne, tes vacances sont torques, tunisiennes ou marocaines. Tes chiffres sont arabes, ton écriture est latine.
>
> Et…tu reproches à ton voisin d'être un étranger!
>
> [Anonymous. Post Card commonly found in France. "La terre est un village. Editions Maurice Juan]
>
> Your Christ is a Jew. Your car is Japanese, your pizza is Italian and your couscous Algerian. Your democracy is Greek. Your coffee is Brazilian, your watch is Swiss, your shirt is Indian, your radio is Korean, your vacations are Turkish, Tunisian or Moroccan. Your numbers are Arab, your writing is Latin.
>
> And yet ...you reproach your neighbour for being a foreigner.

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APPENDIX A: THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY

During August 1992, the leaders of the member countries of the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC), formed in 1980, signed a treat at the SADCC Heads of State Summit in Windhoek, Namibia, whereby the organisation was transformed into the Southern African Development Community (SADC). The SADC Treaty aims to build a community of nations which together, are politically and economically strong enough to compete in the world marketplace. Through regional cooperation and integration, the SADC aims to provide balanced economic growth and development and political stability and security for all its member states. The process of regional cooperation has been developing into to a loose association of states, united in their struggle against colonialism and apartheid, has grown into a major regional actor, aiming to achieve regional integration as a means of bettering the lives of the peoples of the region.

South Africa was admitted as the 11th SADC member on 29 August 1994 and the total membership of the organization now stands at 14 states. The SADC's headquarters are based in Gaborone, Botswana, and the SADC's working languages are English and Portuguese.

SADC Member States

Angola	Botswana
Congo, Democratic Republic of	Lesotho
Malawi	Mauritius
Mozambique	Namibia
Seychelles	South Africa
Swaziland	Tanzania
Zambia	Zimbabwe

Source: The Southern African Development Directory. 2000 Edition.

APPENDIX B: THE STATES OF SADC

Official name of country	Capital	Date of Independence	Head of state (Dec. 2001)	Form of government	Official languages
Angola, Republic of	Luanda	11 November 1975	President Jose E. dos Santos	Unitary Republic	Portuguese
Botswana, Republic of	Gaborone	30 September 1966	President Festus Mogae	Unitary Republic	English, Tswana
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	Kinshasa	30 June 1960	President Joseph Kabila	Unitary Republic	French
Lesotho, Kingdom of	Maseru	4 October 1966	King Letsie III	Constitutional Monarchy	English, South Sotho
Malawi, Republic of	Lilongwe	6 July 1964	President Bungu wa Mutharika	Unitary Republic	English, Chewa
Mauritius, Republic of	Port Louis	12 March 1968	President Sir Anerood Judnauth	Unitary Republic	English, French
Mozambique, Republic of	Maputo	25 June 1975	President Armando Emilio Guebuza	Unitary Republic	Portuguese
Namibia, Republic of	Windhoek	12 March 1990	President Hifikipunge Pohamba	Unitary Republic	English
Seychelles, Republic of	Victoria	26 June 1976	President James Michel	Unitary Republic	English, French-Kreole
South Africa, Republic of	Pretoria Cape Town'	31 May 1910	President Thabo Mbeki	Quasi-Federal Republic	English **
Swaziland, Kingdom of	Mbabane	6 September 1968	King Mswati III	Absolute Monarchy	English, Siswati
Tanzania, United Republic of	Dar es Salaam	9 December 1961	President Benjamin Mkapa	Quasi-Federal Republic	Kiswahili, English
Zambia, Republic of	Lusaka	24 October 1964	President Frederick Chiluba.	Unitary Republic	English
Zimbabwe, Republic of	Harare	18 April 1980	President Robert Mugabe	Unitary Republic	English

Notes: *Pretoria is the national administrative capital and Cape Town the seat of Parliament; the Constitutional Court sits in Johannesburg, the Supreme Court of Appeal in Bloemfontein. **According to the 1996 Constitution, South Africa has 11 official languages: Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, North Sotho, South Sotho, Siswati, Tsonga, Tswana, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu.

Source: McGowan, P. J. & Nel, P. Eds. 2002. Power, wealth and global equity: an international relations textbook for Africa. (2nd ed.). Cape Town: UCT Press.

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

No part of these interview schedules may be used without the permission of the author

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR OR DEPUTY REGISTRAR: INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

1. What is your view regarding international students coming to study at your institution?
2. How do you relate national challenges in higher education to those posed by the presence of international students at your institution?
3. What is your institutional vision and mission regarding international students?
4. What indicators has your institution identified towards internationalisation?
5. How do you locate international student movement within your institution's strategic plan?
   5.1 Is it identified as a priority?
   5.2 Why?
6. What rationales does your institution have for internationalisation?
7. What institutional strategies and approaches has your institution adopted towards internationalisation?
8. Does your institution or International Office have a specific policy relating to international students or internationalisation, and more specifically regarding the following aspects:
   8.1 Specific programmes for international students?
   8.2 Services for international students?
   8.3 International students from overseas?
   8.4 International students from Africa?
   8.5 International students from SADC?
   8.6 Fee structures for international students?
   8.7 An international student quota?
9. Do you see any conflict between localisation/massification and internationalisation?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE DIRECTOR OF THE INTERNATIONAL OFFICE OR EMERGING OFFICE

1. Please give a brief history and background of the International Office at your institution.
2. What are the major functions of your Office?
3. What is the organogram of your Office and the roles and responsibilities of each staff member?
4. What are the lines of command between you and the university management?
5. How has the International Office grown and expanded since its inception?
10. What is your view regarding international students coming to study at your institution?
11. How do you relate national challenges in higher education to those posed by the presence of international students at your institution?
12. What is your vision and mission regarding the movement of international students to your institution?
13. What indicators have you identified for your institution towards internationalisation?
14. How do you locate international student movement within your institution's strategic plan?
    - 14.1 Is it identified as a priority?
    - 14.2 Why?
15. What rationales does your institution have for internationalisation?
16. What institutional strategies and approaches have you adopted towards internationalisation?
17. Do you have any specific strategies to attract a greater number of international students?
18. Does your institution or Office have a specific policy relating to international students or internationalisation, and more specifically, regarding the following aspects:
    - 18.1 Specific programmes for international students?
    - 18.2 Services for international students?
    - 18.3 International students from overseas?
    - 18.4 International students from Africa?
    - 18.5 International students from SADC?
    - 18.6 Fee structures for international students and its relation to the state subsidy
    - 18.7 An international student quota?

18.8 Funding for international students?

19. Where do the majority of your international student population originate from? Can you explain this?
20. What are the major fields of study of your international students?
21. Are most international students degree-seeking or occasional students?
22. Do you offer any Study Abroad Programmes or Summer Schools for incoming international students? What are the advantages of this?
23. Where do you accommodate international students?
24. What is the view of the academics regarding international students at your institution?
25. How do local students view international students? Do you have any strategies to integrate international and local students?
26. Do you see any conflict between localisation/massification and internationalisation?
27. What sort of responses have your international students had from the Department of Home Affairs for visa renewals?
28. How does your Office facilitate this process?
29. Where do you see your Office heading in five years' from now?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DEANS OF FACULTIES OR SCHOOLS

1. How do you perceive the presence of international students in your faculty?
2. What is the view of your faculty regarding international students?
3. What special needs do the international students have, for example, language?
4. What measures has your faculty created to cater for their special needs?
5. What are the major programmes for study by international students in your faculty? Can you explain this?
6. In general, how do international students perform as compared to local students?
7. What are the advantages and disadvantages of international students to your faculty and institution?
8. How may local students benefit from international students?
9. Is there any faculty-based funding for international students?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE DEAN OF STUDENTS

1. What is your view regarding international students at your institution?
2. What are your responsibilities with respect to international students?
3. Do you provide any specific services to international students?
4. Where are international students accommodated?
5. How has the presence of international students affected staff-student relations on campus?
6. How has the presence of international students affected student relations on campus?
7. Have there been any incidents of conflict between local and international students?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE STUDENT ACCOMMODATION OFFICER OR WARDEN

1. What is your view regarding international students at your institution?
2. How has their presence on campus affected the provision of accommodation to local students?
3. What type of accommodation is available for all students on campus, for example, postgraduate, single-sex, self-catering?
4. What type of accommodation is reserved for international students?
5. Do most international students live on or off campus?
6. What guidelines inform allocation of accommodation to international students at your institution?
7. How do the international students get on with local students in the university accommodation?
8. Have there been any incidents of conflict between local and international students?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EXECUTIVE MEMBERS OF THE STUDENT REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL (SRC)

1. What is your opinion with respect to international students at your institution?
2. Does the SRC have a policy regarding international students?
3. Why do you think international students come to study at this institution?
4. Do you think they are limiting opportunities for local students?

5. Do you think local students can gain anything from their presence?
6. Is the SRC doing anything to limit international student access to this institution?
7. Is the SRC doing anything to encourage the integration of local and international students?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SENIOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

1. Why did you not pursue your studies in your home country?
2. Why did you decide to come to study in South Africa?
3. Before coming to South Africa, what were your three biggest concerns?
4. Why did you choose to study at this university?
5. Which other universities did you apply to, and why did you not go there?
6. What were your expectations of this university? Have these been met?
7. What is your impression of the way in which this university views and treats international students?
8. Upon arrival in this town, what was your first point of contact with the university?
9. Was the student orientation programme adequate?
10. What is your impression of the quality of academic staff and programmes offered here?
11. How do the local South African students interact with you academically and socially?
12. So far, what is the highlight of your stay here?
13. Have you had any negative experiences on or off campus, for example, being mugged?
14. What type of accommodation are you in? Is it adequate for your needs?
15. What is your opinion of the services available to international students e.g. medical, counselling, sports?
16. In your opinion, how can this institution attract more international students?
17. Would you recommend this institution to other students from your home country and why?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EXECUTIVE MEMBERS OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT FORMATIONS

1. In your opinion, why do international students come to study in South Africa?
2. Why do they come to study at this institution?
3. Does this institution offer any incentives to attract international students?
4. What mediating role does your association play for its members?
5. What major concerns have international students raised regarding their experiences at this institution?
6. What channels do you follow in addressing these concerns?
7. In your opinion, how do local students feel about the presence of international students on this campus?
8. Would you recommend that other international students come to study in South Africa?

APPENDIX D: LIST OF INTERVIEWEES

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE, 22–23 AUGUST 2001

POSITION	NAME
Lecturer: Dept of Development Studies	Ms Priscilla Monyai
Dean: Faculty of Agriculture & Environmental Sciences	Prof Jan Raatse
Director: PR & Marketing (Former Director: International Relations)	Mr M Mnyatheli
SRC Deputy President	Ms Sekhothali Lerotholi
SRC International Desk	5 international students
Student Focus group	8 Zimbabwean Masters students
Residence Manager	Mr B Sixaba
TELP & Acting International Office Coordinator	Mrs P Sobahle
Dean of Students	Mrs L Ngalo-Morrison
ICC -Vision & Governance	Mr J Ruthnam
ICC Coordinator	Dr B Walter
Director: PR & Marketing	Mr M Mnyatheli

UNIVERSITY OF PORT ELIZABETH, 2000–2002

POSITION	**NAME**
Acting Director: International Office, & Director COAD	Prof Havenga
International Office Director	Dr Nico Jooste
Student Admin Manager	Mr Thomas Kungune
Director: UPEAP	Prof Snyders
Head of Department Architecture	Prof Theron
SRC Rep	Mr Mark Taylor
Student Focus group 1	3rd year Architecture - Israeli, male
	4th years Architecture – Namibian, female
	2nd year BSc – Namibian, female
	5th year Architecture SA, male. Chairman: International Student Society
Student Focus group 2	US European German
Students	2 Somali, 1 Israeli –
Students	3 occasional German students

RHODES UNIVERSITY, 4–5 OCTOBER 2001

POSITION	NAME
Registrar	Dr Stephen Fourie
Residence Warden	Ms Maureen Rautenbach
SRC Member	Tendai Gwisayi
Chairperson: East African Student Society	Anonymous
Rotaract: Chairman & Secretary	Anonymous
Chairperson: Toastmasters	Ms Margo Beard
Dean: Faculty of Science	Prof Terry
Dean: Faculty of Humanities	Prof McDonald
Senior international students (Focus group)	Anonymous

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY, 18–19 OCTOBER, 2001

POSITION	NAME
Head: International Office	Mr Robert Kotze
Director: PR& marketing	Mrs Susan van der Merwe
Dean: Agriculture & Forestry Sciences	Prof Leopold van Huysteen
Coordinator: Services (Housing) International Office	Ms Petronella Gous
PhD Student, Spanish	Carmen Puente
Dean: Arts & Social Sciences	Prof Izak van der Merwe
International Office: Socio-cultural Programme & Students Africa Interest Group (SUSAIG)	Ms Laura Eady & Mr Khau Mavhungu
Dean: Law Faculty	Prof James Fourie
SRC Office	Ms Yvonne Malan

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN, 16–17 OCTOBER 2001

POSITION	NAME
Head: International Academic Programmes Office (IAPO)	Mrs Caz Thomas
IAPO: Student Officer	Mr Jerome September
Deputy Dean: Humanities	Mr Britt McLaghlan
Dean: Health Sciences	Prof Anwar Mall
DVC Planning	Prof Malaza
Dean of Students	Dr Loveness Kaunda
Baxter Residence Warden	Ms Charmaine Davids
SRC President	Mr Moses Magotsi
SRC: International Affairs	Wane Msiska
Taxi Services for International Students	Steve

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, 2001

POSITION	NAME
Chief Director: Higher Education Policy Development & Support	Dr Molapo Qobela
Directorate: Higher Education Policy Development & Support	Dr Pamela Dube
Director: International Relations	Mr Ghaleeb Jeppe
Director: Higher Education Policy Development & Support	Ms Nazeema Mohammed
Directororate: Higher Education Policy Development & Support	Mr Makhukhu Mampuru

DIRECTORS OF INTERNATIONAL OFFICES AT VARIOUS UNIVERSITIES AND TECHNIKONS, 1999–2002

POSITION	NAME
DVC: Student Affairs, Peninsula Technikon, Cape Town	Mrs V Tanga
Director: International Office Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, Potchefstroom	Dr Jacques van der Elst
Director: International Office, University of Natal, Durban	Dr Roshen Kishun
Assistant Registrar: Administration, Cape Technikon, Cape Town	Mr Derrick Carstens
Director: International Office, Wits University, Johannesburg	Mrs Sharon Edigeji
Registrar: Mangosotho Technikon, Durban	Mr Mike Naidoo
DVC: M L Sultan Technikon, Durban	Mr Anand Chetty
Acting Director: University of Durban-Westville, Durban	Mr Prem Ramlachan
Vice Rector: Research & Institutional Planning, PE Technikon, Port Elizabeth	Prof Brian Wells

IEASA EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, 2001

POSITION	NAME
President	Dr Roshen Kishun
Vice President	Ms Caz Thomas
Executive Member	Dr Stephen Fourie
Executive Member	Mr Robert Kotze
Executive Member	Mrs Sharon Edigeji

APPENDIX E: CHARACTERISTICS OF UNIVERSITY EFFORTS IN THE FOUR QUADRANTS

A. AD HOC – LOW PRIORITY	B. SYSTEMATIC – LOW PRIORITY
• Small amount of business • Reactive to external: linkages mainly individualised • Little policy development • Unclear ground rules; financial management organisation focus • Weak data, undeveloped performance indicators • Not institutionalised • Underdeveloped personnel support and quality assurance	• Small business, but precisely identified and targeted in clear framework • Related to internal strengths and external opportunity • Niche marketing • Small number of meaningful agreements • Accurate financial arrangements • Accepted within institution • Explicit ground rules and targeted support and quality arrangements • Clear organisational focus
C. AD HOC – HIGH PRIORITY	**D. SYSTEMATIC – HIGH PRIORITY**
• Considerable business across a range of groups, countries, categories • Poorly conceptualised: policy deficiency, low coordination • Knee-jerk responses at various levels: developed tensions between levels • Ill-focused marketing: unsubstantiated rhetoric • Wide diversity in practice and quality arrangements • Unclear connections with other organisational processes • Little pay-off analysis	• Clear mission and priorities: followed through; well conceptualised policy • Sound business analysis • Large volume of work in many countries, categories • Relevant support framework for finance, personnel, curriculum, quality, incentives • Investment • Dedicated organisational structure, creative tension with units • Good intelligence and data • Stable structure

Source: Davies, J. L. 2003. International reviews. In: Smout, M. Ed. Internationalisation and quality in South African universities (pp. 49-72). Pretoria: South African University Vice-Chancellors' Association.