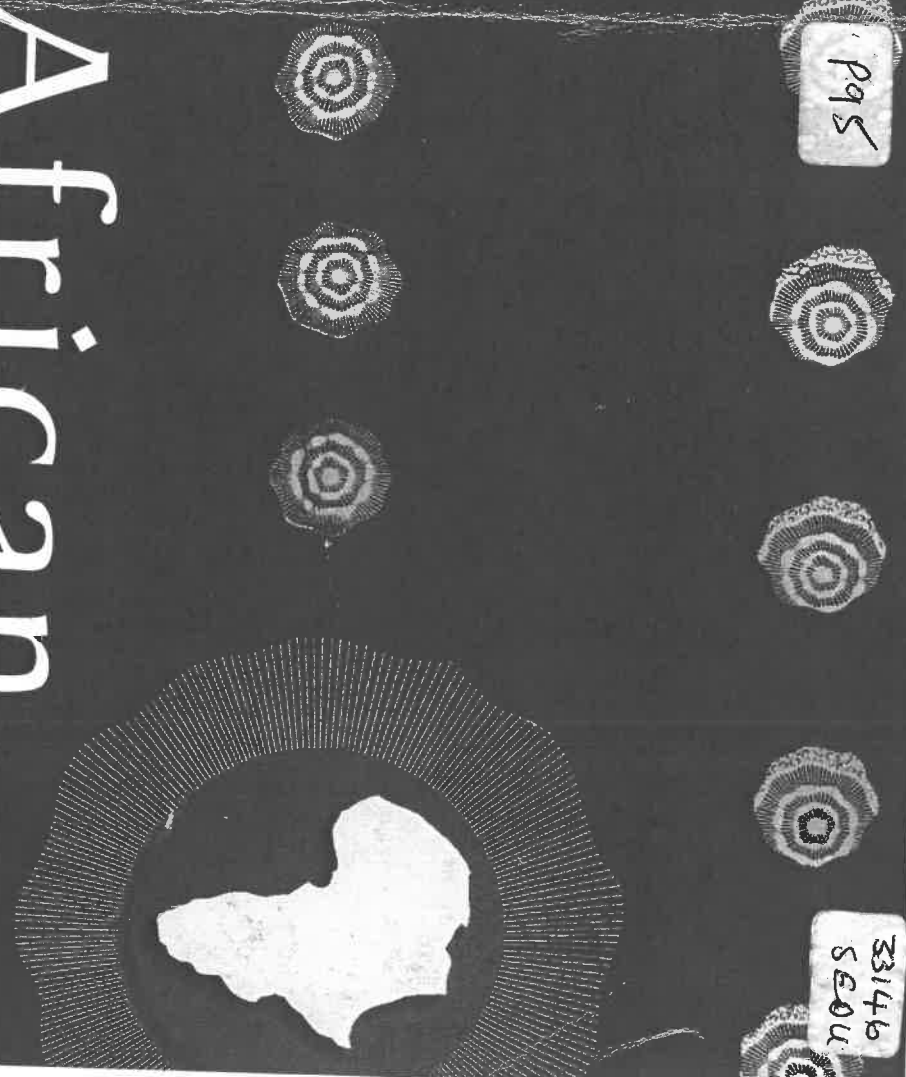


African Universities in the twenty-first century

Edited by • Paul Tiyambe Zeleza and Adebayo Olukoshi

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**AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES
IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY**

Volume I

Liberalisation and Internationalisation

Edited by

Paul Tiyambe Zeleza and Adebayo Olukoshi



CDAHE

**COUNCIL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF
AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION**

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Contents

Acknowledgments.....	vii
Notes on Contributors.....	viii
Introduction: The Struggle for African Universities and Knowledges Adebayo Olukoshi and Paul Tiyambe Zeleza	ix
Part I	
Liberalisation and Privatisation	
Chapter 1 Policy Responses to Global Transformation by African Higher Education Systems Teboho Moja	1
Chapter 2 Neo-Liberalism and Academic Freedom Paul Tiyambe Zeleza	21
Chapter 3 Private Higher Education in Africa: Six Country Case Studies Beverley Thaver	42
Chapter 4 Can Student Loan Schemes Ensure Access to Higher Education? Meagan Van Harte	69

Chapter 5	Public Universities, Private Funding: The Challenges in East Africa	
	Chacha Nyaigotti-Chacha	94
Chapter 6	Academic Dilemmas Under Neo-Liberal Education Reforms:	
	A Review of Makerere University, Uganda	
	Quintas Oula Obong	108
Chapter 7	The Market Model of Financing State Universities in Kenya:	
	Some Innovative Lessons	
	Frederick Muryia Nafukho	126
Chapter 8	The Impact of Cost-Sharing Policy on the Living Conditions of	
	Students in Kenyan Public Universities: The Case of Nairobi and	
	Moi Universities	
	Dinah Mwinzi	140
Chapter 9	The Cost-Sharing Dilemma in Nigerian Universities: Empirical	
	Lessons for Policy Adjustment	
	Isaac N. Obasi and Eric C. Eboh	157
	Part II:	
	Technology and Academic Exchanges	
Chapter 10	Creating E-quality in Africa: Networking for Learning	
	Maria A. Beebe	187
Chapter 11	Curriculum (Co)Development with African Universities: Negotiating	
	Power/Knowledge Dynamics Across Two Digital Divides	
	Pearl T. Robinson, Paula Aymar and Steve Cohen	209
Chapter 12	Toward the Globalisation of Tertiary Distance Education in Africa	
	Gbolagade Adetunmbi	218
Chapter 13	Vanishing Borders and New Boundaries: Student and Staff Mobility	
	and the Internationalisation of South African Higher Education	
	Michael Cross and Sepideh Rouhani	234
Chapter 14	Return to Sender: Using the African Intellectual Diaspora to Establish	
	Academic Links	
	Uwenn E. Ite	250
Chapter 15	Building on the Past: African and American Linkages in the 21st	
	Century	
	Cassandra R. Veney	263
Bibliography	281

Vanishing borders and new boundaries: Student and staff mobility and the internationalisation of South African higher education

Michael Cross and Sepideh Rouhani

Introduction

With the formation of a democratic government, South Africa has experienced an increasing influx of international students to South African higher education institutions. These inflows are mainly from neighbouring African countries; the rest of the continent with a relatively small proportion from Europe and North America. Precipitating this trend is the realisation that privileging training delivered either in the home country or in another developing country could offer new possibilities in building capacity within developing countries and bring about a balance between North-South and South-South inter-institutional co-operation. This chapter explores how higher education institutions have responded to the challenges posed by international students in South Africa. It indicates that the responses of higher education institutions to the influx of international students have been varied. They range from those that perceive them as offering an opportunity for addressing survival issues within a national and global context and have adopted an accommodationist approach, to those that have not expressed any interest in foreign students. The former have adopted a pragmatic approach and have or are in a process of developing a foreign student policy, the necessary infrastructure, and are also keen to address related curriculum issues. The latter do not perceive internationalisation as a priority, and appear to be overwhelmed by local transformation and transitional issues. In most of these institutions internationalisation is not yet perceived as a strategic issue in higher education and, with few exceptions, has been dealt with through ad hoc measures.

The argument pursued in the chapter posits two central propositions. First, we suggest that in contrast to the European and North American experience, like many other African developing countries, the South African model of internationalisation in higher education is rooted in the colonial history and the colonial bonds established with the colonial power. The implication is that a new conceptual framework is required for understanding the nature and the complexities of the internationalisation process in South Africa. Second, it is also argued that for South Africa to become a major role player in international education - a worldwide trend - a change of attitude and a paradigm shift are required, both at the national and institutional levels, to balance North-South and South-South strategies in the human resources development programmes of the region. Problematic as it appears to be, the strategic dimension of internationalisation should be recognised. Consistency and alignment is required between government policy concerning student mobility and institutional practices. Higher education institutions need to approach internationalisation as part of their mission and strategic focus. Further, without a national policy on internationalisation, the opportunity for these institutions to become global role players will be rather limited, particularly given the strategic position that South Africa is expected to play in the region and the rest of the continent, and within the context of the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD). The present reality is that generally internationalisation is not yet perceived as a strategic issue in higher education and, with few exceptions, it has been dealt with through ad hoc measures. The chapter provides a historical background for internationalisation in South Africa and outlines key patterns of international student enrolment. It discusses the rationales for internationalisation in South Africa in contrast to the European and American experiences. Finally, it provides an interpretation of some of its manifestations.

Internationalisation in South Africa: An Emerging Research Area

Our interest in the internationalisation of higher education as a research field is informed not only by policy imperatives but also by the lack of a research tradition related activities are still to be generated. Only two relatively comprehensive studies concerning student and staff mobility, driven by policy concerns, exist. The first study was part of the Southern African Migration Project, with a focus on international students at South African universities and technicians. The second study was undertaken by the Education Policy Unit at the University of the Western Cape for the Department of Education (EPU 1999). It represents perhaps the first attempt at providing a framework for a policy concerning international students in the post-apartheid South Africa (Mampela 1999). This study had two related objectives: (i) to determine the number of students and staff from

have now established linkages or consortia with overseas partners (AED).² Linkages in this case are intended to take advantage of expertise at US institutions and provide the means for two or more linked institutions to address broad-based problems, share resources, and engage in joint activities related to their missions. Ironically, no reference is made in the project outline or their agreements about matching these linkages with regional linkages let alone wider national networks.

International Student Mobility: The Legacy

Initial manifestations of internationalisation, before the twentieth century, assumed a rather incidental and individual character: the wandering scholar and student, the 'Grand Tour' in search for models, fame of reference and ideas, the student flows from South to North.³ International student mobility in South Africa started from the late nineteenth century with the emergence of the first African matriculants in their struggle for access to educational opportunities. One of these was Davidson Dengo Jabavu, son of John Jabavu. Dengo Jabavu travelled to Birmingham at the end of the century in search of higher education not yet available for Africans in the country. After graduating he went in a Grand Tour to Tuskegee, Alabama, in search for a model of African education for Black South Africans. John Dube followed similar steps and brought a new dimension to African education in South Africa. According to D D Jabavu, it was once estimated by the Cape Department of Education that between ninety and a hundred black matriculants had gone to America from the Cape Colony for education during the period 1898–1908 (Cross 2000: 223–258). Native education was shaped through an exchange of ideas between colonial officials, the American intelligentsia, visiting studies and lectures being delivered at Yale and Columbia universities.

Throughout the apartheid era, the international flow of students, mainly from South Africa to the North, remained the main manifestation of internationalisation. In the region, only white students, mainly from ex-Rhodesia and ex-Southwest Africa, attended higher education institutions in South Africa on a regular basis. Rhodes University has been consistent in accommodating students from ex-Rhodesia/Zimbabwe. Limited numbers of African students were given access to the University of Fort Hare. Because of the sanctions and general isolation of South Africa, it was not until the 1990s that South Africa began to benefit from 'technical assistance and development co-operation', an area that had become the most dominant international programme since the 1960s in the developed world.

Current Patterns of International Students' Enrolment: Where They Come From, Where They Go and What They Do

In 1996, there were 5,589 international students⁴ enrolled at South African public universities. This number increased to 11,975 in 1999, which represents an increase of 1.5 percent of the total university enrolments to 5.1 percent over a period of 3 years (DOE 2001; Rouhani 1999; Rouhani and Paterson 1996).

The figure of 11,975 excludes international students registered at the distance education institutions (DEUs), i.e. UNISA and VISTA (DOE 2001). If one includes this cohort of 8,872, the total number of international students is then 20,833. Approximately half or, more precisely, 52 percent, of these students were registered at the historically white universities (HWUs), 43 percent at the distance education universities (DEUs), namely UNISA and Vista, and a small proportion of 5 percent were at the historically black universities (HBUs). A distinct pattern of international student enrolment may be observed with respect to the historical division of South African universities.

The majority of international students are enrolled at the HWUs. In 1999, 10,991 or 92 percent of international students were registered at these institutions, compared to 970 or 8 percent at the HBUs. This is in line with previous trends of 69 percent in 1992 (Rouhani and Paterson 1996) and 88 percent in 1998 (Rouhani 1999) at the HWUs. It is therefore evident that the international student influx has been on the increase at the HWUs. It must be noted, however, that the reduced number of international student enrolments at HBUs reflects the same trend with respect to local student enrolments: The HBUs have experienced a sharp and severe decline in student enrolments of 20 percent between 1995 and 1999. Second, there is an almost equal proportion (46 percent) of international students divided between the Historically English (HEU) and Afrikaans universities (HAU). This was not the case in the past, though the distribution of international students between these two kinds of institutions was in the region of 3:1 in 1992 (Rouhani and Paterson 1996) and about 2:1 in 1998 (Rouhani 1999). Most international students are registered at the University of South Africa. The second largest cluster registers at historically advantaged universities. Further, international students comprise about 3 percent of students at universities and less than 2 percent of students at technicons.

Generally, the majority of international students are registered for degree programmes, particularly Masters and Ph.Ds. Their preferred choices include Business and Economic Management, Engineering, Natural Science, Agriculture and Health and Medicine. As these programmes have good standing in historically white universities, the prospects of historically disadvantaged institutions benefiting from this emerging market will remain slim until mergers between the two become a reality.

Against this background, the following conclusions may be inferred. First, the number of international students attending face-to-face programmes at South African public universities has increased steadily from 4,603 in 1992 to 11,975 in 1999. Second, contract tuition is still the preferred mode of study for about 60 percent of international students. Third, the vast majority of international students, HEUs have an equal share of these students with the HAUs. However, the increase from 1992 to 1999 should not be overestimated. As Bruch and Barty put it, that is governed by complex factors (1999: 19). There are several factors that militate against the flow of students from the rest of the continent. First, the *capacity of South African host institutions* to receive international students is limited and uneven. Very few international students register at historically disadvantaged institutions. As the EPU study indicates, international students are concentrated in a small number of residential universities (UCT, Stellenbosch, Wits, Pretoria, Rhodes, and Natal) and in two main geographic regions (The Western Cape and Gauteng/Pretoria) (EPU 1999: 11). Parallel to the influx of international students, historically advantaged institutions are overwhelmed by a massive migration of students from historically disadvantaged institutions looking for more marketable degrees. Although international students in South Africa comprise less than 3.55 percent are in distance education, the level of 5 percent of home students stipulated for SADC students could easily be reached in the most competitive institutions if the spread of choices remains unchanged.

Second, besides institutional capacity, the presence of 'foreign' students² in South Africa has become a contentious issue in the eyes of their South African counterparts. The foreign clientele of South African tertiary institutions comprises two main categories: (1) students from the developed world and white students from the neighbouring countries; and (2) those from less developed African countries. The former constitute a small group. They can afford to pay their fees and are therefore not seen as a financial threat to and by the local students. Regarding the latter, the term 'foreign student' increasingly assumes negative connotations. It is redefined to focus on competition for scarce resources. A recent study on migration policy highlighted the following:

First, the issue of foreignness can be a source of tension between a section of black South African students and black students from neighbouring African South African students feel deprived and invoke their citizenship or South Africanness in the face of competition from foreign students who compete for local resources to make ends meet. They stress the foreignness of their competitors and seek to remove them from the equation. They even blame their deprivation on 'foreign' students who do not belong (Mampela 1999:1). The

of students and staff from other African countries, who have not suffered from Bantu Education, and are thus able to compete on merit for undergraduate, postgraduate and staff positions.

Second, there is a feeling among some international students that the Department of Home Affairs is pursuing a *policy of discouragement* with punitive immigration controls through host institutions, tinged with xenophobia to curb the influx of international students (Mampela 1999:2). These factors tend to create an emerging feeling of uneasiness about the prospects of studying in South Africa among school leavers who are familiar with the South African context. The challenge that higher education administrators face in this regard is to balance the recognition of the academic, cultural and financial benefits to be gained from international students and staff with the demands imposed on them by the legitimate demands of the citizenry to redress the devastating legacy of apartheid. They also have to manage creatively the xenophobic sentiments fed on perceived differences and feelings of deprivation supposedly caused by the presence of international students. This is one of the issues that a survey on campus climate being conducted at the University of the Witwatersrand aims to address in an effort towards promoting a healthier campus experience for all students.

Third, current policy privileging SADC students to study in South Africa implies subsidisation of these students by the South African government by allowing them to pay the same fees charged to South African students at the time when state subsidy is on decline. South African students from disadvantaged backgrounds are likely to be the main losers of this subsidisation policy. If the costs of subsidisation were removed for this reason, a substantial rise in tuition fees would certainly restrict the number of international students from the SADC countries and impose obstacles on the development of human resources in the region. The EPU study suggests a combination of bilateral and multilateral agreements between regional governments, higher education bodies and individual institutions and industry/businesses to underwrite the cost of some such exchanges in order to promote international study in the SADC region (EPU 1999:12). Examples of alternative solutions to this problem include the fellowships programme offered by donors (e.g. the Ford Foundation, the South Africa-Norway Tertiary Education Development Programme, etc.); the grant-holders provision of the National Research Foundation which includes SADC post-graduate students, and several scholarship programmes administered by individual institutions, which target international students.

Fourth, for historical reasons and driven by donor pressures South African higher education institutions have found it easier to establish links, agreements and partnerships with European and North American institutions. This has resulted in a two-way student and staff movement to and from western countries. As the EPU study has indicated, few South African students are studying in

other parts of Africa, and few international students from African countries have benefited from such agreements (EPU 1999:6).

Why do International Students Choose to Study in South Africa?

Although international student mobility is not a new development, it has gained momentum with the process of globalisation. Since the 1970s, the number of students seeking training outside their country of origin has been on the increase. It is estimated that in the 1980s there were at least one million students worldwide who were enrolled at tertiary institutions outside their home country (Altbach 1991:305; Bennel and Pearce 1998: 5).

A more recent estimate is that by the year 2000, this figure was closer to two million (Bowles and Funk 1996:35). The United States is the largest import country in the world, given the provision of various kinds of educational programmes, the existence of a great diversity of institutions, the relative openness of access to educational opportunities, the relatively well-established mechanisms for receiving foreign students, as well as the prestige of many American universities. With respect to countries of origin and destination, it is no surprise that traditionally the majority (70 percent) of these students are from the Less Developed Countries (LDCs) of the so called South, and 80 percent studied in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) group of 'Northern' nations (Wagner and Schnitzer 1991:277). However, more recently, with the emergence of a new world order and the advent of globalisation, other directions of student flows are emerging. Some have noted mobility within the Commonwealth (e.g. Bown 1994; Maxey, 2000; CEC and UKCOA, 2000), while South-South flows and North-South flows have also been on the increase. This highlights the fact that some developing countries are increasingly assuming the role of manpower development for other developing countries, a function that has previously been the province of developed countries. Within the African continent, South Africa is a case in point in this respect. Several studies have been done about the factors that contribute to international student mobility and typologies developed (Altbach 1998: 240). While the factors included in these typologies are universal, most of them are context-specific. In the case of South Africa, more empirical data are required to arrive at more appropriate typology. In Table 1, we summarise some of the key factors that both the literature on higher education in Africa and available data seems to point to.

Foreign Faculty in South African Higher Education

The USA, Denmark, and the UK have adopted an 'open-employment' policy towards foreign faculty who are employed on academic merit, and generally regardless of nationality and status. France, Italy and Japan have a 'closed-employment' approach in the sense that the employment of foreign faculty is

as regular faculty members at national and public universities, as 'Japanese nationality' is a prerequisite condition for the employment of public servants, and professors at national and public universities are considered public servants. In all cases, foreign faculty should display superior academic ability to their national counterparts in a particular field. In general, there are two main models in the appointment procedures for foreign faculty. One is the American-British model, in which the legal status of universities is a corporation autonomous from public authorities (central or local government) and the legal position of faculty is regarded not as public servants of government but employees of the university. This eases out the legal problems in the appointment of foreign faculty.

Table 1: Key Factors Pertaining to Home and Host Countries

Home country variables (pull factors)	Host country variables (push factors)
1. Preferred courses and programmes not offered	1. Competitive fees*
2. Concerns about the quality of professional degrees	2. Relatively stable political situation
3. Concerns about the quality of instruction and delivery	3. Geographical and cultural proximity
4. Budgetary constraints in promoting higher education	4. Availability of appropriate educational facilities and provision
5. Poor research infrastructure and low research output	5. Changing donor approach
6. Stipulations of multi-lateral and bi-lateral agreements	6. Congenial socio-economic and political environment
7. Political legacies (e.g. Fort Hare and Rhodes University)	7. Opportunity for general international life experience
8. The need to stimulate economic development in southern Africa	8. The relative strength of the higher education systems in southern Africa

Note: The EPU report indicates that the median financial cost for a three-year degree in Australia for an international student is approximately A\$80,000, which compares with 46,000 pound in the United Kingdom and roughly \$70,000 in the United States. The median cost for a three-year degree in South Africa is less than US\$30,000.

Another model is the so-called continental model as in France and Germany, where the legal position of the faculty is that of 'public servants' of central or local government, and the appointment of foreign faculty is made possible by the application of exception treatment (RIHE 1981:44). However, most countries seem to be converging towards an internationally open academic marketplace. Discrimination against foreign faculty is under attack based on the assumption that it is contradictory to the traditional concepts of the universality of knowledge and academic freedom. There is an increasing realisation that the presence of foreign scholars, like the presence of international students, assists greatly in the development of scholarship and cultural interaction in the receiving countries. Most importantly, the economic value of overseas markets for a range of education and training markets has offered an important alternative to the dwindling national budgets for higher education. It is estimated that the value of education exports from the UK in 1997 was over 9 billion pounds and in Australia, in the mid-90s, education services earned at least A\$20 billion per annum (Bennell and Pearce 1998: 3).

In South Africa, in response to the 'high skills' crisis facing the country and in line with equity concerns, the 2001 National Education Plan encourages the employment of foreign faculty, particularly from African countries, on a contract basis. The Department of Labour, the Department of Trade and Industry and the Public Service Commission share this approach. However, it will not be possible to pursue this strategy until employment policy is aligned with the immigration policy and the regulations of the Home Affairs Department. Currently, the employment of foreign faculty is subject to non-availability of a South African citizen in a specific field. There are however difficulties concerning work permits. Restrictions are still in place regarding the employment of international students. These can only be employed in areas that have a direct bearing on their studies, which excludes them from certain forms of employment offered by higher education institutions (Mampela 1999:18). These measures make perfect sense in that they seek to make more opportunities available to South African citizens. However, they could be interpreted as discrimination on the basis of nationality. More complications for both foreign faculty and students are the fact that the immigration legislation has not yet been finalised.

Almost two-thirds of foreign staff employed at South African higher education institutions come from Europe in contrast to the majority of international students who come from the rest of the continent. The EPU study shows that foreign staff from Europe are mostly male, hold a doctorate, and are employed at a senior level and at a historically white institution. Staff from SADC countries comprised only 10 percent of foreign staff at South African institutions in 1998. Less than 10 percent of other foreign staff members are from other countries in Africa (EPU 1999:6).

State and Policy Intervention

The most significant development regarding the flow of international staff and students in South Africa is the signing of the SADC Protocol, which facilitates access of SADC students to South African higher education institutions. The SADC protocol introduced the following measures: (1) a quota of 5 percent of admissions in all tertiary institutions to SADC students; (2) agreements on harmonisation, equivalence and eventual standardisation of entrance requirements; (3) the need to facilitate credit transfer from one institution to another in the region; (4) harmonisation of the academic years of universities to facilitate staff and student mobility; (5) ensuring that within ten years from the signing of the protocol all SADC students are treated as home students for purposes of fees and accommodation; and (6) facilitating movement of students and staff from the region for purposes of study, research, teaching and any other pursuits related to education and training (SADC 1997: 12-13). The Department of Education has now outlined its framework for an international student policy. In announcing its national plan for higher education, it stressed the need for addressing the following issues (DOE, 2001; *Sunday Times* 11/03/2001):

- Streamlining procedures for obtaining work and study permits with Department of Home Affairs
- Finalising policy on subsidisation of SADC (Southern African Development Community) and all foreign post-graduate students. Currently, all universities receive the state subsidy for these students; however, some institutions charge differential fees.
- Exploring the possibility of a uniform additional levy for SADC students.
- At present, each university charges its own levy to international students.
- Recruitment of more masters and doctoral students, as well as academic staff from Africa who would provide role models for local students.

Related to this framework is President Mbeki's vision of an African renaissance, as outlined in the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), which assigns a major responsibility to countries such as South Africa in the human resource development of the continent and positive effects of international cultural and academic exchange. A revised policy on the admission of international students to South African tertiary institutions was introduced in 1995. In terms of the policy, exceptions were made for undergraduate and pre-diploma applicants if the intended fields of study were not offered in their countries of origin. Previously these students could not be admitted. The Department of Home Affairs left the admission of international students to the discretion of the respective institutions. The only problem facing international students is the acquisition and renewal of study permits and visas, which requires several financial and repatriation assurances

and can be costly for some students. Briefly, a major challenge at government level is indeed the policy alignment between all departments involved in staff and student mobility issues.

Institutional Responses

Higher education institutions worldwide have responded to the challenges posed by student mobility by institutionalising programmes of internationalisation. This process, which includes the establishment of relevant government and institutional policies and logistics, has been referred to as 'internationalization', the teaching/training, research and service functions' of higher education institutions (Knight 1997:29). It is also seen as embracing 'a multitude of activities aimed at providing an educational experience within an environment that truly integrates a global perspective' (AUCC in Knight and de Wit 1995:15). Some higher education institutions and countries have adopted a more holistic framework with respect to those elements or activities linked to internationalisation, as opposed to focussing solely on the student mobility dimension. Other aspects of internationalisation include staff development, curriculum innovation and organisational change (Rudzki 1995). These are, however, beyond the scope of this chapter.

Proactive responses are from institutions that view the international student influx as a positive development. For the purposes of this discussion the term 'strategies' is used to characterise those initiatives, which are taken by an institution of higher learning to integrate an international dimension into research, teaching and service functions as well as management policies and systems (De Wit 2001: xvii). De Wit distinguishes two major categories of activities identified as key components of internationalisation: *programme strategies and organisational strategies*. The 'programme strategies' refer to those academic activities and services of an institution of higher education that integrate an international dimension into its main functions. 'Organisational strategies' include those initiatives that help to ensure that an international dimension, (embracing the activities discussed above), is institutionalised through developing the appropriate policies and administrative systems (De Wit 2001: xii). There are also strategies that take the process approach as their basis. They focus on the process of internationalisation as whole and not just on the programmes or organisation. Generally South African tertiary institutions have privileged organisational strategies at the expense of programme strategies. They place themselves on a continuum between doing nothing to internationalisation policy, and dealing with accommodation issues, but not very close from tampering with the curriculum to address the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. In terms of their institutional practice, the responses

of most South African universities may be grouped into three broad categories: (1) proactive, (2) reactive, and (3) passive.

Some universities have been relatively proactive and have tried to explore internationalisation not only as a source of additional income, but also as a means of increasing student diversity on campus and of adding new dimensions to academic scholarship with new domains for the institutional research agenda. Other dimensions of internationalisation, such as inter-institutional linkages and partnerships, and staff development have been encouraged. Their responses are characterised by a more planned, long-term, aggressive, drive towards internationalisation. For these institutions, internationalisation is sometimes a means of becoming more globally competitive or 'world class' institutions. A few institutions, such as the Universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch, Natal, Wits, Rhodes and Pretoria fall under this category.

Reactive responses come from those institutions such as Unizulu and Fort Hare that 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. A third set of responses is linked to institutions that have adopted a passive or *laissez-faire* approach. For them, internationalisation is a distant reality, one of which they would rather not be a part. However, they are happy to make use of any opportunities, if these are not too taxing on their system. Internationalisation is seen as an additional burden. Overwhelmed by national and institutional agendas for transformation and redress, and a lack of capacity to deliver, they perceive themselves as unable to cope with additional demands. A large group of HBLUs fall into this category. They are institutions, which, deliberately or not, are oriented into the local environment and for which the international dimension remains incidental, individual or at best consist of a combination of unrelated activities, projects and programmes. For these, internationalisation remains a strategy in itself, aimed at building or enhancing capacity to deal with national challenges without relationship with the functions of the institution. However, it appears that inter-institutional networking will be increasingly important factors in ensuring a role for these institutions in this global arena.

Apart from the limited number of institutions that have been more proactive in their approach to internationalisation, international offices are very poorly staffed and very few employees in these offices have been trained for this particular purpose. Information on South African higher education has been poorly disseminated and more extensive knowledge on these institutions is needed. More effort to provide information to foreign countries is absolutely necessary. However, it is our strong view that the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa cannot be accelerated merely by a change in legal provisions or some

development and consolidation of logistical and material conditions. While these measures are certainly necessary as a starting point, given the increasing xenophobic feelings in South African society, a great deal of education should accompany efforts towards internationalisation. If one scans the South African university landscape, it is evident that more proactive institutions have framed enabling institutional policies with respect to international student access. To begin with, internationalisation forms part and parcel of their strategic plans. Secondly, the formation of an International Office has facilitated the processing of international students. Thirdly, these institutions have structures in place that can address campus socialisation issues such as integrated or separate residence facilities for international students. Among the more progressive, attention is being paid to aligning the curriculum to the needs of students, local and international, and meeting the challenges of a globalising world.

Conclusion

The increasing influx of international students to South Africa has brought new challenges and opportunities to higher education institutions in the country. These institutions are caught between the need to address the demands of institutional and systemic transformation while trying to come to grips with the pressures of internationalisation and globalisation. Given the legacy of isolation from the rest of the world, most of these institutions were unprepared to meet the needs generated by a rapid influx of international students. In this regard, little evidence exists to indicate that they have responded earnestly to the challenge of promoting higher education on the African continent, or that South Africa is making an active contribution to human resource development in Africa. This applies equally to the small number of academic agreements and the declining proportion of citizens from SADC countries employed at South African institutions.

Whilst it may be argued that the historical advantage of some institutions initially gave them the cutting edge over their historically disadvantaged counterparts in attracting a greater number of international students, it is argued that, over and above that historical advantage, institutions which saw the advantage of internationalisation and decided to exploit it in a systematic manner, have advantaged themselves even further. For example, institutions such as Fort Hare, which have a rich legacy as being a site of production of intellectuals of the struggle against apartheid, could have marketed themselves more effectively, and thus turned around their historically disadvantaged legacy to their advantage. 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. In the final analysis, given the historical disparities in our higher education system, it is argued that to become a global role

players, South African universities need to approach internationalisation as part of their overall strategic focus.

Endnotes

1. For him, the export of higher education models in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, seen by some as an important manifestation of the internationalisation of higher education, is difficult to understand as such and is better seen as academic colonialism. The notion of knowledge as universal applied mainly to research and it did not presuppose action, on the contrary it assumed no need for action.
2. We use the term international students to refer to foreign students.
3. According to the Department of Home Affairs, a 'foreign student' is anyone who is not a South African citizen, not a permanent resident, or does not have diplomatic exemption.