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Internationalization of Higher Education: A South African Perspective

Abstract The evolution of South African universities continues to be shaped by both apartheid and more recent post-apartheid policies. Yet the South African university system is mainly an elite, low participation and high attrition system, offering a medium quality education. Moreover, there is uneven attention to the opportunities that internationalization might bring to South Africa. The paper explores South Africa's position in a global, African and regional perspective, and looks at post-apartheid trends in the internationalization of higher education. Finally, it provides an analysis, looking forward, of the essential conditions for more beneficial internationalization. This will include addressing “brain drain” and “brain gain,” global dialogue and mutual learning, and collaborative partnerships, marked by a common commitment to sound academic values, scientific integrity, ethics and social responsibility.

Keywords internationalization, higher education, South African perspectives

Introduction

Internationalization of higher education is inevitable for most universities in the world today. Every university wants to attract the best students from across the world for study and research. Universities are key drivers of globalization and internationalization, and conversely globalization and internationalization are

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significant drivers of change in higher education. The rationale for internationalization is greater connectivity in both cultural and social terms, increased economic development and competitiveness, shared knowledge building, and an inclusive, caring, prosperous and more cosmopolitan world. Internationalization cannot be divorced from wider geopolitical forces illustrated by power imbalances between northern and southern countries, which affect the nature of scholarship, knowledge generation and sharing.

The internationalization of higher education has implications for diverse policies and programmes being developed at regional, national and international levels, and national governments need to come to terms with this important phenomenon. It has to be recognised that internationalization has become an inevitable aspect of modern education, particularly at tertiary level, generating both opportunities and challenges. Internationalization has been part of the evolution of higher education in Africa from its beginning. Reviews of the history and political economy of African universities leave no doubt that the evolution of these institutions has been shaped by their colonial and post-colonial past, and since the 1990s, by the deepening democratization of African nation-states. Specifically, the evolution of universities in South Africa continues to be shaped by the country's colonial, segregationist, apartheid and recent post-apartheid policies, by historical backlogs, fiscal limitations and by the current policy shift to post-school technical and vocational education. The internationalization of higher education in South Africa should be explored from the perspective of South Africa's emphasis on democratic values intended to benefit everyone. Such an exploration should include reducing brain drain, undertaking collaborative research, sharing knowledge and resources, building mutual capacities and enhancing mutual economic benefits. Such an approach implies honesty, openness, responsiveness, common commitment, sound academic values, scientific integrity, appropriate ethics and social responsibility. The purpose of the study is thus to theorize internationalization of higher education, map the landscape of higher education in Africa, Southern Africa, South Africa and to explore South African perspectives on internationalization of higher education.

Methodology

This study is a literature review exploring South African perspectives on the internationalization of higher education. Exploratory and focused literature review and critical reflections of the authors were instrumental as key research approaches

in this research. Exploring, identifying, screening, summarising, and analysing were the major criteria used for the exploratory and focused literature review. A detailed search was made on internationalization of higher education, higher education in Africa, Southern Africa, higher education transformation in South Africa and South African perspectives on internationalization of higher education. Following the exploratory literature search a bibliography was prepared. Relevant literature for the study was reviewed with necessary summary and analytical approaches. Studies from de Wit (2002), Altbach (2004), Yang (2002, 2003), Knight (2006), McLellan (2006), Amdam (2009), and a few others were most relevant for the background study. These studies were instrumental for the exploratory literature review and helped to map the landscape of internationalization of higher education, higher education in Africa, Southern African. Studies from Cloete et al. (2004), Moja (2006), Pillay (2006), Sehoole (2006), Kishun (2007), Cross, Mhlanga, and Ojo (2011), Kotecha (2012), Razak (2012) and few others were most relevant for the focused literature review and they were taken for detailed review and analysis to map the landscape of higher education transformation in South Africa and South African perspectives on internationalization of higher education. Based on the understanding through the exploratory and focused literature review the authors further narrated their critical reflection and interpreted South African perspectives on internationalization of higher education. The study mainly depended on the data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) and the Department of Higher Education and Training, South Africa (DHET). And some of the data from other institutions such as the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Thomson Reuters, the International Association of Universities (IAU), the International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA) and Council on Higher Education, South Africa (CHE) were also useful for the study.

Internationalization of Higher Education

Globalization and internationalization are often considered synonymous and are used interchangeably. Maringe and Foskett (2010) note that although these two concepts share similar characteristics, they are not synonymous. They argue that internationalization is the strategic response of universities to globalization, while defining globalization is elusive (p. 1). It is however interesting to note the attempt of Yang (2003) to define globalization, drawing from Giddens,

Robertson, Scholte, Axford and Rosenau, who understand globalization as a “complex intersection between a multiplicity of driving forces, embracing economic, technological, cultural and political change” (p. 271).

Internationalization has been seen as increasing involvement in international trade (Welch & Luostarinen, 1988). Business dictionaries define internationalization in relation to commerce as the growing tendency of corporations to operate across national boundaries, and in relation to marketing and computing as an approach to designing products and services that are easily adaptable to different cultures and languages. The internationalization process begins with operations in neighboring countries and with countries in mutual trade agreements, which eventually expand. Internationalization process theory argues that firms tend to internationalize gradually, developing step-by-step from producing for the domestic market to exporting through agents and sales offices before becoming multinational by establishing production units abroad (Amdam, 2009).

The internationalization of higher education is a phenomenon where diverse policies and programmes are developed bilaterally, regionally and globally (Verger & Hermo, 2010). Luxon and Peelo (2009) refer to Jane Knight’s working definition which sees internationalization of higher education as a process of internationalization at the national, sectorial, and institutional levels, defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education. Altbach (2004) says that most of today’s higher education institutions are modeled on the 16th century European university. He observes that right from the beginning, universities have been and are global institutions and operated mostly with an international (global) language, content, people and environment and have thus been affected by circumstances beyond campuses and across national borders (p. 3).

The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and its role in accelerating the internationalization process follows logically. Under GATS international trade in services became more legitimized and regulated, for good or ill. GATS, a World Trade Organization (WTO) treaty, came into force in 1995. It identifies six tradable sub-sectors of education: primary, secondary, post-secondary, technical (vocational, university degree or equivalent), adult education and other education services.

The GATS agreement covers four modes of international supply of services: cross-border supply, consumption abroad, commercial presence and presence of

a natural person. According to OECD and UNESCO's (2005) guidelines for quality provision in cross border higher education, internationalization of higher education, also known as "cross-border higher education, includes higher education that takes place in situations where the teacher, student, programme, institution/provider or course materials cross national... borders... [It] may include higher education by public/private and not-for-profit or for-profit providers. It encompasses a wide range of modalities, in a continuum from face-to-face... to distance learning (using... technologies and including e-learning" (p. 7).

Jane Knight (2006) highlights four key regulatory roles of guest and host nations to ensure smooth internationalization: 1) licensing and regulation procedures for foreign providers, 2) quality assurance and accreditation for imported and exported education services, 3) funding protocols including operating grants, loans, subsidies and scholarships, 4) and qualification recognition and credit transfer systems. Knight also highlights two significant trends in cross border higher education, first a shift "from student mobility to programme and provider mobility," and second from "development cooperation to competitive commerce... (aid to trade)" (pp. 19–20).

Global Student Mobility 2025 forecasts that by 2025 there will be 7.2 million international students studying abroad (in 2000 there were 1.8 million). By 2025 students from Asia will represent 70% of the international students in the global market (an increase of 27% from 2000). China and India will be the key growth drivers generating over half the global demand in international higher education by 2025 (Böhm, Davis, Meares, & Pearce, 2002, p. 3). De Wit (2002) uses three terms to highlight the complexity of internationalization, namely international dimension, international education and internationalization of higher education, each referring to a specific phase. He uses three interrelated arguments in which, firstly, he sees the international dimension of higher education, prior to the 20th century, as more incidental than organized; secondly, he states that this international dimension as an organized activity, referred to in general by the term "international education," is a product of the 20th century introduced initially mainly in the US for reasons of foreign policy and national security; thirdly, around the end of the Cold War, this international dimension evolved into strategic processes, referred to as the "internationalization of higher education," increasingly linked to the globalization and regionalization of societies.

Implications of Internationalization of Higher Education

Internationalization of higher education creates both opportunities and challenges. For OECD and UNESCO (2005), the opportunities for cross border higher education include an increased supply of higher education, greater access for students, support for the knowledge economy, development of joint degrees, fusion or hybridisation of cultures, growing comparability of qualifications, an increasing role for the market-based approach, economic benefits for education providers, and diversification and generation of new academic environments.

There are challenges around quality of provision, with inequality of access leading to a two-tier system (what Monash offers in Malaysia is not of the same quality as its offering in Australia, with different content, fees and staff salaries). Other challenges include the growing problem of physical and virtual brain drain from developing to developed countries but also along other routes, homogenisation of culture, the weakening role of the state in establishing national policy objectives, the growth in market-oriented programmes such as business and information technology, and the decline in some liberal arts and pure science disciplines.

The OECD and UNESCO guidelines (2005) insist on the importance of protecting students from the risks of misinformation, low-quality provision and qualifications with limited validity. Cross border qualifications should be readable and transparent in order to increase their international validity and portability. Reliable and user-friendly information sources should facilitate this. Recognition procedures should be transparent, coherent, fair and reliable and impose as little burden as possible on mobile professionals. National quality assurance and accreditation agencies need to intensify their international cooperation in order to increase mutual understanding (pp. 9–10).

There are further paradoxical dimensions to the internationalization of higher education. Yang (2002) points out that mobility of students is often from south to north, while mobility of programmes is often from north to south. Varghese (2008) observes that Anglophone countries are successful in international higher education, given that English is a global language, and that most international programmes at institutions in non-Anglophone nations are offered in English to attract international students (p. 19). The US is a top destination, even given some slowdown after the imposition of the 9/11 visa restrictions. The US made

15.4 billion US\$ from educational services during the first quarter of 2013 (U.S. Census Bureau News, 2013), while in 2011, Australia's educational service exports accounted for 15% of its total service exports (Research Snapshot, 2011).

Daniel, Kanwar, and Uvalić-Trumbić (2005), defenders of trade in education, claim that internationalization of education helps create access, scholarships help meritorious students, and offshore campuses offer cheap foreign degrees. However Malaysia is an example of how enrollment in foreign universities has caused a drastic decline in enrollment in domestic universities (David & Wildemeersch, 2006). It is also interesting to note the fee structure in the United Kingdom, where international students pay more than those from Europe and local students pay less than either. As the United Kingdom is one of the most attractive destinations for international students, the fees for them are high.

In higher education studies, the Bologna Process has been seen as a model for regionalization and internationalization (Verger & Hervo, 2010). This process helped Europe to create a common higher education space, which helps for easy degree comparison, yet did not homogenize the system, though there were attempts to harmonize the Anglo-Saxon and German models. One of the other important developments is the growing global convergence of the higher education curriculum (David & Wildemeersch, 2010). Altbach (2004) observes that business, technology and biotechnology are globally homogeneous, while the humanities and social sciences are nationally based, although foreign methodological influences are present. While acknowledging the substantial benefits of the internationalization of higher education, it is necessary to pay attention to potentially adverse unintended consequences, so as to alert higher education institutions to the need to ensure that the outcomes of internationalization are positive and reciprocally beneficial to the higher education institutions and the countries concerned (IAU, 2012).

There are economic, political, social and cultural aspects to the internationalization of higher education. Economically, there is an estimated multibillion dollar potential in international higher education (Jiang & Carpenter, 2014, p. 56). Politically, higher education is used as an instrument of national globalisation policy (Marginson & van der Wende, 2007, p. 10). Socially, learning mobility helps better bilateral understanding and culturally it helps to acquaint students with "other cultures, to acquire linguistic skills and to gain social and cultural intelligence" (David, 2010, p. 86). Knight (2006) proposes that if more aid-oriented initiatives on learning and research cooperation emerge,

they will present new opportunities. On the other side, she argues that commercial activities must not be completely ignored, however, if the benefits are maximized and risks are minimized, it will ensure that internationalization of higher education emerges positively.

Internationalization of Higher Education in Africa/Southern Africa

Reviews of the history and political economy of African universities stress that the evolution of these institutions has been shaped by their colonial and post-colonial past, and since 1990s, by the deepening democratization of African nation-states. The political upheavals in North Africa have shown that urban youth need access to life-changing post-school educational opportunities and jobs. Any sustainability programme for Africa requires unremitting democratization, state building and legitimization, and an economic, social and cultural renewal plan (Kotecha, 2012). The renewal of African universities is interlinked with and dependent on such systemic renewal. Research by the Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA) and the Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET) demonstrates that lack of research funding and low knowledge production are the most serious challenges, affecting the “academic core” and its ability to contribute to sustainable development. Critical issues are academic pay, student aid and accommodation, improved leadership and governance and safeguarding of institutional autonomy, among others.

The demand for higher education in African countries is growing, but levels of higher education provision and enrolment rates in Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries are amongst the lowest anywhere. As of 2010, Southern Africa has an enrolment rate of 6.3% which compares poorly with tertiary enrolment in other parts of the world. Higher education enrolment just managed to keep pace with population growth (apart from Mauritius and South Africa where tertiary enrolment increased by 20% and 15% respectively over the last 20 years). Low enrolment levels can be largely attributed to a strong policy focus on primary education in the past. Without significant change, the SADC region is projected to achieve a 16.3% higher education enrolment rate by 2050, compared with the 2012 global gross tertiary enrolment rate of 30% (Irfan & Magolese-Malin, 2012, p. 6).

There is a strong trend towards undergraduate education, with doctoral

registrations comprising only 1% of the overall figure. Institutions struggle to develop and retain academic staff, and African countries will need to double the number of university teachers by 2015 to keep up with predicted enrolment (Macupe, 2012, p. 1). There is a serious brain drain problem and a great need to expand and renew infrastructure and improve information and communication technology (ICT) and other facilities. Increased expenditure on expanding higher education will have an impact on funding available for research. There is, finally, insufficient attention to the opportunities that internationalization could bring to the region.

The SADC education minister's summit in June 2012 agreed on priorities such as scaling up and modernizing the higher education system through ICT infrastructure, increasing the effectiveness of higher education planning, developing academic quality, increasing mobility of staff and students across the region and internationally, increasing the output of doctoral graduates and strengthening regional cooperation through integration strategies based on agreed objectives, supported by maximizing funding opportunities. However competing demands on limited resources in Southern African countries has meant that intention and actual implementation are not always aligned. It has been argued that "the 1967 Arusha Declaration provided Africa with the opportunity to formalise higher education co-operation and international exchange, three decades before the Bologna Process was launched in Europe in 1999" (Kotecha, 2012, p. 1). Though that opportunity may have been largely missed, increased internationalization in higher education, for which there are various rationales, is clear today. These include preparing students to live in a world that is more connected in both cultural and economic terms, and the need for increased economic development and competitiveness.

Scholars such as Kotecha and others believe that Southern African universities need to be more assertive about defining their own interests when negotiating international partnerships with universities and donors in northern countries. They also need to harness more opportunities to strike intra-regional and South–South agreements that can foster innovation and new knowledge. "If Southern African universities are to strengthen their academic programmes and respond to the need for higher education in their countries, they need to develop clear strategies for incorporating internationalization into their operations in ways that benefit institutional development throughout the region (Kotecha, 2012, p. 3).

Higher Education Transformation in South Africa

Higher education is key to delivering the knowledge requirements for development. There is a strong association between higher education participation rates and levels of development. Higher education in democratic South Africa has been steadily expanding with more inclusivity and enhancement of quality. According to the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET, 2013) in South Africa in 2011 there were 3,848 post-school education and training institutions of which 23 are public universities, 50 are public further education training (FET) colleges, 449 private FETs, 3,239 public adult education training (AET) centers, 66 private AETs and 21 skill education training authorities. There were 1,914,675 students enrolled at these tertiary institutions, making a gross enrolment ratio of 20% of the 18–24 age group (p. 2).

Post-1994 higher education in South Africa has become more socially embedded, embracing democratic values and addressing issues such as inclusion, social justice and diversity. The 1997 white paper on higher education set numerous goals which focused on meeting the learning needs of the citizens and development needs of the society, contributing to the formation of enlightened, responsible, constructively critical citizens, and to the creation, sharing and evaluation of knowledge (HESA, 2009). The CHE, set up in 1996, focused on preserving what is valuable and addressing what is defective and in need of transformation. The CHE had two central tasks: to rid higher education of the aberrations of apartheid and to modernise it by infusing it with international experience and best practices (Cloete et al., 2004). South Africa has a strong higher education system and is a leader in Africa.

The Times' higher education world ranking 2012–2013 listed four institutions in Africa among the top 400 universities in the world and all four are in South Africa (Times, 2013). *Vision 2030* for higher education suggests that higher education in South Africa will emerge with an increasingly diverse intake of students, diverse institutions, progressive access to student financial assistance, stimulating learning environments, a robust and accountable quality assurance system and structured interactions among institutions, government and industry (NPC, 2011, pp. 18–19). *The Green Paper* for post-school education and training envisages that by 2030 South Africa will increase university enrolment to 23% and over all enrolment in tertiary education to 60% providing a range of

accessible alternatives for young people, enhancing quality, addressing key problems and becoming globally competitive (DHET, 2012, p. 5).

Implications of Internationalization of Higher Education in South Africa

The evolution of universities in South Africa continues to be shaped by their colonial, segregationist, apartheid and recent post-apartheid policy developments, by fiscal limitations and by the current policy shift to post-school technical vocational education. The South African university system is mainly an elite, low participation and high attrition system, offering a medium quality education. Since the 1990s, South Africa's global research output has doubled and global collaboration tripled. South Africa produces 37% of Africa's research output (Adams, King, & Hook, 2010).

Internationalization of higher education is not new to South Africa not to Africa more generally. The origins of higher education in South Africa are linked to its colonial history shaped by the English and Dutch, and higher education in South Africa was modelled after European institutions (Schoole, 2006). However current discourse on internationalization is predominantly linked to a mainly economic interpretation of globalization. The International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA), a non-profit organization, was established as a result of the need for universities and universities of technology in South Africa to respond to international educational trends. IEASA's inaugural conference in 1997 is considered one of the key moments in the identification of internationalization as central to the mission of universities in South Africa (Kishun, 2007).

McLellan (2006) quotes IEASA as arguing that a comprehensive national policy on the internationalization of higher education is needed that will integrate policy objectives and strategies in all higher education institutions. It must provide for national programmes, administrative structures and resources to implement the strategies. This will contribute to enhancing our global position, encourage coherence among different national stakeholders and strengthen institutional initiatives around the internationalization of higher education.

South Africa's higher education internationalization strategy includes staff and student exchanges, joint degrees, research collaboration, online distance education, harmonizing of qualification systems, and an increasing inclusion of an international, intercultural and global dimension in the curriculum. Statistics

illustrate low levels of internationalization in comparison to other countries but this is growing and requires active policy, multi-country political will and resource development. In 2010 there were 66,113 foreign students in South African universities, 70% from the SADC region, 17% from other African countries and only 13% from outside Africa. These data seem to suggest that South Africa's experience with internationalization is more accurately regionalization, similar to the Bologna Process that stimulated regionalization in Europe (IEASA, 2013, p. 9).

Vision 2030 for higher education envisages that South Africa will be an active player in African and global higher education networks and that South African universities will attract international students and staff (NPC, 2011). However, the reality of internationalization in South African higher education is far from the rhetoric. Malaza (2011) argues that policy emanating from the education department since the *Education White Paper 3*, in 1997, and the *National Plan for Higher Education*, in 2001, pay homage to the interconnected world in which higher education has to operate but that there is no real integration of the concept of internationalization in higher education policy. Internationalization has been seen as a critical part of higher education transformation in South Africa, yet it has not been well integrated (Kishun, 2007).

Cross et al. (2011) observe that current debates tend to privilege Western and universalizing concepts of internationalization, un-problematically accepted as globally established truths. They point out that in South Africa, the legacy of isolation and the dominance of Eurocentricism in academia have inspired considerable scepticism regarding internationalization, and therefore the challenge is to find innovative approaches appropriate for its specific context. Some of the important recommendations of the Guide to South African Higher Education (IEASA, 2004) are that policy development should take into account complex issues such as "brain drain," "brain gain," and "brain circulation."

Scholars such as Sehoole (2006), Cross et al. (2011) believe that South Africa must make strategic decisions as to the optimal balance between importing foreign and growing local skills. In addition, it will be critical to find a model for internationalization that is principled and ethical in South Africa's own context. While international students and other linked activities and programmes may bring financial benefits to higher education institutions, and indeed to the country, this should not be the chief reason for internationalization, especially in so far as Southern African and other African countries are concerned. Steps to support

effective internationalization should be taken at institutional level as well. These would include the development of institutional internationalization policies, linked to the core higher education functions of teaching and learning, research and community engagement, with appropriate quality assurance mechanisms in place.

One of the indicators to measure internationalization of higher education is international student mobility. Table 1 reveals that inward learning mobility to South Africa is higher than outward mobility. South Africa seems to be one of the countries with least outward mobility. International students make up 8% of the tertiary population in South Africa. However, many of the international students in South Africa are from SADC countries and other parts of the African continent.

Table 1 Inward and Outward Student Mobility in South Africa in 2012

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Total
Outward	US: 1,641	UK: 1,543	Australia: 839	Cuba: 377	6,166
Inward	Zimbabwe: 14,359	Namibia: 7,264	Botswana: 4,849	Lesotho: 4,004	43,255

Source: UIS. (2012). *Global flow of tertiary-level students*. Montreal, Canada: UIS.

There are concerns that higher education has become an industry where commercial and other interests overshadow higher education’s fundamental academic mission and values (IAU, 2012). This is reflected in the internationalization of higher education as well. Looking at commercial activities in international higher education, South Africa has not made any commitments on education at GATS and has not responded to requests for access from New Zealand, Norway and Kenya. The Department of Education has taken a strong stance against commodification of education (CHE, 2004). Foreign universities flooded into South Africa in their scores during the 1990s but most pulled out after being confronted by rigorous accreditation and registration processes (University News, 2008). However, it is interesting to observe that Monash University has continued to operate in South Africa since 2001, and University of South Africa (UNISA) is operating around the world in distance mode, predominantly in Africa.

Pillay (2006) believes that a persuasive case can be made for not committing South African higher education to GATS. This is because the dangers of liberalization in the sector are considerable, given the level of development of the South African system relative to those of industrialized (and potentially higher education exporting) countries and the considerable risk this creates of derailing

the ongoing transformation of higher education. He argues that among other things the dangers relate to unequal distribution of benefits, similar to what developing countries have experienced in general in the opening up of international trade in goods.

South Africa has long agreed to reserve 5% admission for students from SADC countries (Malaza, 2011). While some critics argue that expanding the admission of international students might restrict admission possibilities for South African students, Moja (2006) points out that South Africa is not only dealing with internationalization, but also with regionalization and Africanization. *The Green Paper on Post-School Education and Training* (DHET, 2012) while addressing the challenges of and need for the strengthening of post-school education and training, recommends streamlining the regulatory systems by developing a globally competitive national qualification framework, quality assurance structures and a curriculum that would address local needs while having global relevance. It envisages that all this must be achieved through collaborative development.

Vision 2030 highlights the World Bank's characterization of South African higher education as a mid-level performer and the Shanghai Jiao Tong Academic Ranking of World Universities 2008 ranked South African higher education between 27 and 33 (Shanghai Ranking Consultancy, 2008). It also highlights South Africa's advantaged position on research output, knowledge production capacity, academic production, graduation rates and various other indicators. These give a positive edge to South Africa in the internationalization of higher education.

However, Kishun (2007) refers to critics such as Moja and Pillay, who are concerned that the drive towards internationalization might halt post-apartheid higher education transformation in South Africa. They point out that many internationalization practices so far have not embraced the democratic values that higher education transformation in South Africa has attempted to do. It would be revealing if an analysis were to be made on gender, racial and social class distribution as related to internationalization of higher education in South Africa.

Razak (2012) points out Africa's dilemma: on the choice between decolonizing African universities or being a source of "human capital" and a market exclusively for the West. Zeleza (2012) recommends strong regionalization within Africa and cross regional cooperation, particularly in the South, while IEASA (2013) calls for comprehensive internationalization through best practices that would benefit everyone. It invites a global dialogue on the future of

internationalization of higher education which, if achieved, would radicalize South African perspectives on the internationalization of higher education.

Conclusion

Higher education in Africa has had an international dimension from the beginning. Reviews of the history and political economy of African universities highlight that the evolution of these institutions has been shaped by their colonial and post-colonial past, and since the 1990s, by the deepened democratization of African nation-states. The evolution of universities in South Africa continues to be shaped by their apartheid-colonial and recent post-apartheid policy developments, by historical backlogs, by fiscal limitations and by the current policy shift to post-school technical vocational education.

Evolving internationalization is framed by geo-political and geo-economic factors as seen in the persistent power asymmetries between the North, South and East. This influences scholarly work, with undesirable and hegemonic consequences and a mismatch between good will and intentions and actual practice. Cooperation is often on terms set by partners in the North through theory building, conceptual frameworks and research methodologies constructed in developed countries and transferred to the South and East.

There is uneven attention given to the opportunities that internationalization could bring to South Africa. The following are some of the strategies for internationalization of higher education in South Africa. Sustainable solutions to emerging development problems will only be found through a more equitable distribution of resources for research. In this context, partnerships across national and disciplinary boundaries must emerge as the dominant model for organising international research and collaboration.

Knowledge of development and development of knowledge must be considered together if we want to achieve the Millennium Development Goals and poverty reduction in developing countries. Knowledge partnerships between North and South for the purpose of addressing these pressing development challenges are critical. It is essential to acknowledge that there are asymmetries and inequalities in the trajectory of development in universities in Africa, and to consider how partners from the North can support initiatives that are not just externally driven but are supportive of intra Africa initiatives. Other strategies include supporting and enhancing existing agreements between Africa and the

EU, such as the EU mobility scheme, the intra-ACP programme, the Pan Africa University initiative and new developments towards harmonizing and tuning degree programmes in Africa.

The following are some of the essential conditions for better internationalization. Aim to reduce the brain drain by enabling scholars to undertake collaborative research, share knowledge and resources, and build mutual capacities. Ensure that our efforts aim to achieve genuine global dialogue and mutual learning. Ensure that our global partnerships are mutually beneficial and supportive. Acknowledge that sustainable solutions to residual and emerging development problems will only be found through a fairer global distribution of resources for research. Define reciprocity in partnerships at the outset, characterised by honesty, openness, and responsiveness even when one partner brings significantly less resources to the partnership, marked by a common commitment to sound academic values, scientific integrity, ethics and social responsibility. Provide new and expanded opportunities for global academic collaboration and research by building ICT infrastructure. Establish cross-hemispheric, cross-disciplinary global teaching, learning and research centres of excellence particularly in the grand challenge areas.

Furthermore, it is important to engage in collaborative research to evolve better internationalization strategies that would benefit all. As IEASA (2013) calls for comprehensive internationalization through best practices that would benefit everyone, we are invited to engage in a global dialogue on the future of internationalization of higher education. If this is achieved for the benefit of all, it would radicalize South African perspectives on the internationalization of higher education.

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