BUILDING REGIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION CAPACITY THROUGH ACADEMIC MOBILITY
EXPLANATION OF ARTWORK ON COVER

The brief was to make use of design elements utilising African motifs or patterns. After much research, it was decided to use the age-old concept of lino-cut, block-printing on fabric, with a minimalist colour range of black, red and white to enhance the dramatic effect of the design pattern.

The work has been executed using traditional wood cutting tools, in keeping with African craft tradition. The intricate, decorative design, with enlarged geometric elements, creates a strong visual impact and the repetitive use of the motif encourages movement of the eye, capturing the movement and mobility so inherent in the topic and discussions of this document.

The two-headed creature moves forward bi-directionally - lines radiate outwards from a pivotal point in the ensuing geometric design, which are echoed in the larger design, by the black and red arrows. The final element, creating a formal balance on either side of the frame, is two rows of triangular patterns, commonly used in many forms of African art.
BUILDING REGIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION CAPACITY THROUGH ACADEMIC MOBILITY
FOREWORD

Academic mobility has increased significantly over the last two decades due largely to the process of higher education internationalisation. This internationalisation of higher education in its many facets, driven by the forces of globalisation, liberalisation, commercialisation and massification, provides the context and shapes the nature and form that academic mobility takes.

According to UNESCO,

Academic mobility implies a period of study, teaching and/or research in a country other than the academic or student’s country of residence. This period is of limited duration, and it is envisaged that the student or staff member return to his or her home country upon completion of the designated period. The term ‘academic mobility’ is not intended to cover migration from one country to another. Academic mobility may be achieved within exchange programmes set up for this purpose, or individually (‘free movers’). Academic mobility also implies virtual mobility.

The notion that academic mobility is beneficial to students and staff, is common in the literature on the subject and has become a pervasive view amongst higher education leaders and managers. In many quarters, academic mobility is now viewed as an important instrument for expanding the capacity of higher education systems in developing countries. To this end, a number of commitments have been made in the SADC Protocol on Education and Training that are aimed at achieving greater flows of staff and students across national boundaries. Each country is required to reserve five percent of enrolment places at their institutions for international students from SADC and to emphasise the need to facilitate the movement of staff and students for purposes of study, research, teaching and any other pursuits related to education and training.

On the asset side of the balance sheet, it is often argued that (1) academic mobility provides faculty and students with personal growth opportunities, improves their prospects of employment, generally improves the quality of teaching and research, and provides access to networks across countries; (2) institutions are able to recruit from elsewhere to strengthen their human resource base and in the case of students, earn valuable income
in the contexts of shrinking budgets; and (3) countries are able to strengthen their competitiveness and address skills supply constraints.

On the liability side of the balance sheet, the flows of academic mobility have been one-directional towards higher education institutions in North America and Europe, so that existing patterns of unequal development are further reinforced.

Yet there is limited evidence to validate and sustain the claim that academic mobility can serve as a measure for building the capacity of higher education institutions, especially in the developing country context of SADC. In a higher education sector that is in great need of additional academic resources, academic mobility could potentially offer short- and long-term benefits to address supply side constraints in the provision of higher education from a student perspective, and also to address the limited supply of suitably qualified higher education staff in the region. Any such assessment should, however, consider that academic mobility is a complex phenomenon that manifests itself in the personal career choices of academics and study options of students, the institutional arrangements to make mobility and internationalisation possible, and the incentives and constraints associated with it.

The central question explored in this publication is what is the potential for using academic mobility as a higher education capacity building strategy in the region, with reference to increasing the number of qualified academics while at the same time increasing the provision of higher education for students?

The SARUA leadership dialogue on Building Regional Higher Education Capacity through Academic Mobility in SADC brought together senior experts and higher education leaders in the region to consider the global trends and key features of academic mobility, the state of academic mobility in SADC, institutional innovations in promoting academic mobility, and assessing the potential for building capacity in the higher education sector through academic mobility. This publication documents these presentations and discussions and explores the requirements for a structured, systemic and sustainable model for promoting academic mobility in the region.

Piyushi Kotecha
Series Editor
Chief Executive Office
SARUA
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### ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAU</td>
<td>Association of African Universities</td>
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<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>BeCA</td>
<td>Eastern and Central Africa network for Biosciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSIR</td>
<td>Council for Scientific and Industrial Research</td>
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<td>EC</td>
<td>European Commission</td>
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<td>EDULINK</td>
<td>ACP-EU Cooperation Programme in Higher Education</td>
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<td>Eurostat</td>
<td>Statistical Office of the European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>GATS</td>
<td>General Agreement on Trade in Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrolment Ratio</td>
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<td>HEIs</td>
<td>Higher Education Institutions</td>
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<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communications Technology</td>
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<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organisation for Migration</td>
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<td>NABNet</td>
<td>Northern African Biosciences Network</td>
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<td>NEPAD</td>
<td>New Partnership for Africa’s Development</td>
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<td>OEC D</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<td>PAU</td>
<td>Pan African University</td>
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<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
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<td>SADQ CF</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>SANBio</td>
<td>Southern African Network for Biosciences</td>
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<td>SARUA</td>
<td>Southern African Regional Universities Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCT</td>
<td>University of Cape Town</td>
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<tr>
<td>UIS</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<tr>
<td>USHEPIA</td>
<td>University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZIMCHE</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZUVCA</td>
<td>Zimbabwe University Vice-Chancellors Association</td>
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INTRODUCTION

This publication aims to capture the rich texture of the presentations and discussion at the SARUA Leadership Dialogue on Building Regional Higher Education Capacity through the theme of Academic Mobility in SADC, held at the University of Pretoria in May 2011.

The first two papers in this volume provide the macro context for discussing academic mobility in SADC. The first paper, entitled New Patterns of Student Mobility in the Southern African Development Community (SADC), confirms the scale and nature of student mobility in the region. The data reveals that students studying outside their home countries account for 5.8% of tertiary enrolment in the region. This represents a ratio that is three times higher than the world average. The high level of outbound mobility takes place in a context of explosive growth in tertiary enrolments across SADC. More than 1.5 million students are enrolled in tertiary institutions in the region, representing a 13-fold increase since 1970. This suggests that demand for higher education in the region continues to outpace its provision. The paper cautions that the rapid expansion in the provision of higher education is likely to have an impact on the quality of the education provided, as countries and institutions have limited academic resources.

The second paper, The State of Academic Mobility in SADC, provides an assessment of the position of academic mobility in the region, with a special emphasis on staff mobility. Unfortunately, much less is known about the scale of staff mobility and the dynamics influencing its development. The paper describes the main avenues available to pursue staff mobility and explores the rationale for supporting this type of mobility. It further considers the issues that need to be addressed to promote academic mobility and highlights the need for funding, recognition of qualifications, quality assurance and such practical issues as improving synchronisation of academic calendars in the region.

The third and fourth papers provide a description of existing practical interventions to support both staff and student mobility. The third paper provides a description of the USHEPIA project and the way in which it supports student mobility in Africa. The paper provides a brief description of its origins, mode of operation, achievements to date and the lessons learned.
The fourth paper provides a description of the project aimed at encouraging the temporary return of lecturers to bolster depleted academic staff resources in Zimbabwe. The project was implemented by the Zimbabwean Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) and supported by the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) and SARUA. In a six-month period, 59 lecturers visited six state universities for short-term lecturing and support work. A further 200 potential diaspora lecturers were registered on a national database. Although the scale of the project was limited due to the limited funding available, it does point to a possible model for tapping into valuable and highly qualified academic staff resources in the diaspora.

TOWARDS A STRUCTURED, SYSTEMIC AND SUSTAINABLE MODEL

Three central themes or issues emerged in the discussion among delegates. The first issue relates to the underlying purposes or motivations for supporting academic mobility. There was consensus on the need to approach academic mobility in the SADC region from a capacity building perspective. The context, conditions and limited resources necessitate the need to leverage the resources that already exist for gain by all the institutions and countries in the region. Thus, the situation in this region is different from other parts of the world, where academic mobility is viewed as an instrument for earning foreign currency or as a measure to address challenges associated with an ageing population.

The second issue pertains to the types of academic mobility that should be encouraged. Delegates emphasised the need to provide support for academic mobility that encourages postgraduate development, particularly at Masters and PhD levels. The emphasis should be on increasing the pool of academics with doctoral qualifications and, in this way, growing the next generation of academic staff. Furthermore, delegates regarded the sharing of infrastructure as an inventive way to support academic mobility. Since the levels of investment required to develop world-class infrastructure are out of reach for many institutions and countries, niche infrastructure across the region should be identified for shared use rather than duplicating the establishment of such infrastructure.

The third issue focused on the specific measures required to support this type of academic mobility in the region. Unfortunately, little is known about the nature and the dynamics driving regional staff mobility. A process of information gathering is necessary to understand the needs of institutions and what support universities are able to provide. This should form the basis of a structured, systemic and sustainable programme of support for academic mobility in the region. The establishment of an ad hoc regional structure comprising representatives from the international office of universities from the region, where these structures exist, should play a leading role in such a process.

Funding was identified as a serious constraint to increasing the levels of academic mobility aimed at building staff capacity and postgraduate student numbers. The establishment of a scholarship programme through which funding could be made available should
be considered. The scholarship fund should aim to provide funds for academic studies at postgraduate level in fields of study that have been prioritised in line with the regional development agenda. Furthermore, the fund should provide support for strengthening and deepening collaboration between countries and institutions for the development and sharing of academic resources and capacities. This could be done through providing technical and financial support for the development of innovative staff exchange initiatives, twinning or co-badging of programmes, co-supervision, sandwich programmes and joint degrees. The underlying basis for this component is the development of academic capacity across the region based on areas of specialisation and in terms of shared resources.

Finally, delegates emphasised that any collaboration to support academic mobility should be governed by the principle of equal partnership for mutual benefit.

October 2011
NEW PATTERNS IN STUDENT MOBILITY IN THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY

Chiao-Ling Chien¹ and Felly Chiteng²

ABSTRACT

This paper examines new patterns in student mobility in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC). Data was drawn primarily from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, OECD and Eurostat. The findings show that the SADC has the highest outbound mobility ratio worldwide (6%), though growth in local tertiary enrolment surpasses that in the number of outbound students (at least in some countries). Moreover, the findings show that unlike their African counterparts pursuing tertiary education in Europe and North America, nearly half of SADC mobile students are choosing to study in South Africa – the number one destination for mobile students in Africa and 11th in the world. Social science, business and law are the most popular disciplines among mobile students from the region. About two-thirds to three-quarters of SADC mobile students pursue undergraduate degree programmes abroad. This paper concludes that the tendency of SADC students to remain within the region parallels SADC’s vision for regionalisation and intra-region mobility. This paper also suggests that increasing local enrolment and outbound student mobility are both alternative pathways to expanding access to educational opportunities for SADC students.

BACKGROUND

Since the 1970s there has been a great expansion in higher education enrolment across the world. In 2009, over 165 million students participated in higher education, which is a five-fold increase since 1970 and a three-fold increase since 1980. A growing global trend is also seen in cross-border higher education. This trend has been characterised by the movement of people (students, professors, scholars, researchers, experts and consultants), programmes (courses, academic programmes, degrees), and providers (institutions, consortiums and companies) across national borders (Knight, 2006).

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Increasingly, students from one country go to pursue postsecondary education in another country, and academic staff from one country travel to pursue academic activities or the academic profession in a different country. The implementation of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) by the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995, which included education as one of the 12 service sectors and recognised it as a tradable service (Knight, 2003; Knight, 2004), has given a significant boost to this cross-border higher education movement.

The mobility of students worldwide is perhaps the most visible form of cross-border higher education, and one that has been monitored over years. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics (UIS), in 1980 the population of internationally mobile students was about 1.1 million. The number increased slightly to 1.3 million in 1990 but by 2009 had tripled to 3.4 million. The number of mobile students has been expected to grow to eight million by 2020 (Altbach, 2006). These figures may even be underestimates, because, as Neave (1992) observed, they only tend to reflect students pursuing an award at a foreign institution, and often fail to include other types of student mobility such as short-term exchange programmes that are not necessarily designed to lead to a degree in the host country. Thus the actual cross-border mobility of higher education students could be much higher.

Not only has the number of mobile students skyrocketed, particularly in the 21st century, but the population and higher education systems from which these students come have changed drastically. This is contrary to the trend observed in the previous century during which mobile students from developing countries were generally from the most privileged sections of society (World Bank, 2010).

Many countries around the world have implemented policies and/or programmes that aim to increase the outflow of students going to pursue a postsecondary degree abroad (outbound students) and/or the inflow of foreign students coming to pursue degree programmes in the host country (inbound students). Countries which have historically been popular destinations for international students such as Australia, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States host even greater numbers of overseas students seeking foreign academic credentials. In addition, some countries have emerged as new popular destinations for international students, such as China, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea and South Africa.

Student mobility has been linked to different factors. Studies have shown, for instance, that access to education (Mazzarol & Souter, 2002), the quality of education (Cubillo, Sanchez, & Cervino, 2006), employment prospects (Lin, 2007) and the desire for qualifications with world-wide recognition (Mpinganjira & Rugimbana, 2009) are some of the most important drivers leading students to pursue higher education in a foreign country. Thus the lack of adequate educational opportunities in the home countries and the appeal of better opportunities abroad are some of the factors that influence cross-border mobility.
Student mobility has become a topic of much discussion on the policy agenda of international and regional organisations. It is also increasingly attracting attention in Africa, particularly given the challenges with which the continent is confronted with regard to the development of human capital and to the achievement of sustainable development. Higher education is now widely recognised as an important driver of socio-economic growth and of human development – even though this recognition has occurred after many years of neglect by both national governments and international organisations. Organisations such as UNESCO and the World Bank, the European Union and the African Union now recognise that without a strong higher education system it is difficult (or maybe impossible) for any developing country, in Africa or elsewhere, to achieve sustainable development (World Bank, 2009).

Yet sub-Saharan Africa is the region that faces the greatest challenges in the provision of higher education, despite very substantial increases in enrolments over the past four decades (an average annual growth rate of 8.4%), compared with 4.3% for the world as a whole. Currently, over 4.8 million students are enrolled in higher education institutions in sub-Saharan Africa. This number represents a 20-fold increase since 1970, when total enrolment was less than 0.2 million students for the entire sub-Saharan region. At the current rate of expansion, it is projected that by 2015 Africa will have twice as many tertiary students as in 2006 (ie about 18.6 million enrolments in 2015)³ (World Bank, 2010).

However, with its average gross enrolment ratio (GER)⁴ in tertiary education of just 6% (UNESCO, 2010a), sub-Saharan Africa lags behind the rest of the world where ratios range between 13% in south-west Asia and 72% in North America and Western Europe, though the ratios for most developing regions are between 20% and 40%. Furthermore, the gap between sub-Saharan Africa and other world regions has widened in the last three decades. In addition, higher education systems in most countries within this region suffer from poor quality, due in part to inadequate financing (Pillay, 2008). Indeed, the challenges of shrinking public funding for higher education and too rapid an increase in enrolment have resulted, among others, in the erosion of the quality of education (Butcher, Wilson-Strydom, Hoosen et al, 2008; Pillay, 2008). Low levels of participation in higher education and the poor quality of academic programmes hamper the development of human resource and economic growth in the region. Thus, discussion of academic mobility in Africa often considers the broader context that characterises the continent, particularly with respect to access to higher education and the quality of that education as they relate to the formation of the human capital needed to accelerate economic growth and sustainable development.

However, it is important to note that discussions about the mobility of African students and of academic staff often result in mixed views. Academic mobility can, in fact, be a double-edged sword. On the one hand, increasingly large numbers of African students and scholars pursue opportunities outside Africa. This is viewed as a positive trend, given the expectation that countries and the continent will benefit from foreign experiences and expertise. On the other hand, a significant number of individuals who pursue these opportunities do not return, thus depriving the continent of the critical human resource

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³ See World Bank (2010, pp. 28-29). Based on the projection, in 2015 sub-Saharan Africa might have twice as many tertiary enrolments as in 2006.

⁴ The gross enrolment ratio (GER) is used to measure the level of participation in a given level of education. It is calculated by expressing total enrolments in a specific level of education, regardless of age, as a percentage of the population in the theoretical age group for the same level of education. For the tertiary level, the population used is that of the five-year age group following the official secondary school graduation age.
capacity needed for its development. Indeed, many view this brain drain as the
greatest challenge to development. Not only does brain drain lead to very substantial
outflows of African graduates and scholars, but it also comes at a considerable
financial cost. It has been estimated, for instance, that each year USD4 billion is spent on
salaries for approximately 100,000 western expatriates who “help make up the loss of
professionals in sub-Saharan Africa” (Teichler & Yağcı, 2009). Thus, while the mobility of
African students and scholars outside Africa can be viewed as a positive trend that can
be of benefit to the countries and the region, concerns about brain drain have emerged
that raise doubts about this form of mobility.

An alternative form of mobility, one that takes place within Africa, has been considered
as critical to strengthening higher education systems and helping to build the human
capacity that will contribute to sustainable development within the African continent.
A number of initiatives and programmes have been developed in that respect. In sub-Saharan Africa, for instance, the Southern Africa Development Community
(SADC) included student and staff mobility in its 1997 Protocol on Education and Training.
SADC specifically recommended that higher education institutions in its member states
reserve at least 5% of their enrolment capacity for students from other SADC countries.
Standardisation of entrance requirements, harmonisation of academic years, ease of
credit transfer, provision of in-state tuition and fee rates to students from other SADC
countries, the establishment of joint academic programmes and the easing of immigration
formalities are some of the mechanisms that the organisation recommended to facilitate
the mobility of students (and of academic staff) (SADC, 1997).

In 2004, the Association of African Universities (AAU), in partnership with UNESCO
and the South African Council on Higher Education, convened a meeting to
discuss the implications of the WTO’s General Agreement on Trade in Services on
African higher education. The Accra Declaration\footnote{The Accra Declaration on GATS and the Internationalization of Higher Education in Africa can be found at http://www.che.ac.za/
documents/000060/AccraDeclarationFinal.pdf} that resulted from the workshop
reaffirmed stakeholders’ commitment to enhancing access to higher education and to
increasing academic mobility within the African continent. A number of programmes
aimed at facilitating the mobility of students have been put in place. For instance, in 2007
the African Union established the Mwalimu Nyerere African Union Scholarship Scheme,
designed to enable African students to study at recognised higher education institutions
on the continent, in areas related to science and technology. Students who participate
in this programme are required to work in Africa for a minimum of two years after
graduation. In November 2010, this programme received European Union financial
support of USD46.5 million, which has allowed it to be extended for four years from 2011.

Information about new patterns in SADC student mobility is critical. From the perspectives
of sending countries, understanding where students study abroad and what kinds of
educational programmes these students pursue may drive policymakers to re-evaluate
their domestic education systems. In particular, this region aims to tap into academic
mobility to improve the quality of higher education.
In this paper, we first examine student mobility by identifying new patterns and trends in the mobility of SADC students. More specifically, we highlight the volume of student mobility in the SADC region and compare this ratio to the rest of Africa. We examine the extent to which the outflow of students relates to the increase in local enrolments to provide a more complete picture of the participation in tertiary education in countries. We identify major destinations for SADC students in the world and within Africa and how the flows differ from other African students. We investigate and highlight the different kinds of educational programmes that SADC mobile students seek abroad.

DATA

The data used in this paper comes mainly from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) Questionnaire on Statistics of Tertiary Education, and from a joint education data collection exercise led by the UIS, the OECD and the Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat). This data covers over 200 countries and territories in the years between 1999 and 2009. In addition, supplementary data was obtained from South Africa, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Internationally, mobile students are defined as students who have crossed an international border and moved to another country (of which they are not citizens) with the objective of studying. These students’ countries of origin are usually defined by their country of permanent or usual residence, or their country of prior education (i.e., the country in which they obtained the educational qualifications required to enter the programme they are studying abroad). Though these two concepts—permanent residence and prior education—are preferred, a student’s country of citizenship is also used as a proxy in countries where data on the residential status or prior education of mobile students is not available.

Data analysed in this paper excludes students on short-term exchange programmes of one year or less. In other words, the data used in this paper mainly includes students who cross an international border in order to pursue a degree programme, rather than those who go for the purpose of earning some credits.

PATTERNS IN HIGHER EDUCATION AND STUDENT MOBILITY

EXPLOSIVE GROWTH IN TERTIARY ENROLMENT, YET RELATIVELY LOW PARTICIPATION RATIO

Over 1.5 million students were enrolled in higher education institutions in SADC in 2009, a 13-fold increase since 1970, which is much faster than the growth for the world (a five-fold increase), but slower than that for sub-Saharan Africa as a whole (a 20-fold increase). The increasing demand for higher education in the region is evident when comparing the growth in tertiary enrolment with that in the population of tertiary age. As shown in Figure 1,
the growth in tertiary enrolment, which started to soar in 1990, is much faster than that in the relevant tertiary-age population (13 times for enrolments versus three times for population). In sub-Saharan Africa, a much higher ratio of participation in secondary than in tertiary education points to even greater pressure for further growth as more and more graduates from upper secondary schools seek to pursue higher education (UNESCO-UIS, 2010b), either in local education institutions or by studying abroad. In addition, to accumulate the knowledge and skills needed for the long-term growth prospects of sub-Saharan Africa, it is critical to stimulate investment in tertiary-level training, as advised by the World Bank (World Bank, 2009). Thus one can foresee further expansion of higher education systems in the region. Despite the rapid growth, only about six out of 100 people in the tertiary education age group were enrolled in higher education in SADC in 2009, compared with the global average of 27 out of 100.

**FIGURE 1:** CHANGE IN TERTIARY ENROLMENT AND TERTIARY-AGE POPULATION IN SADC, 1970-2009

![Graph showing change in tertiary enrolment and tertiary-age population in SADC, 1970-2009.](image)

**OUTBOUND ENROLMENT INCREASES THE OVERALL LEVEL OF PARTICIPATION IN TERTIARY EDUCATION**

Examining student mobility in relation to local enrolments may provide a more complete picture of a country's human resource capacity. This may especially be the case when students who graduate abroad return home. It may also be the case even if they choose to remain abroad, if at the same time they contribute to social, political or economic development in their home countries. Data on both the enrolment at local institutions and the pursuit of academic programmes abroad (outbound students) can shed light on issues of access opportunities to tertiary education.
In some countries, the level of participation in tertiary education increases substantially when outbound enrolments are taken into consideration. Figure 2 presents the tertiary gross enrolment ratio (GER) and the gross outbound enrolment ratio (ie outbound GER, which is defined as mobile students from a given country expressed as a percentage of the population of tertiary age). Combining these two ratios provides a more comprehensive perspective on the total level of participation in tertiary education across the region. Namibia, for example, has a relatively high GER for tertiary education: nine percent, suggesting that nearly one in 10 people of tertiary age are studying in higher education. In addition, some 7 800 students of Namibian origin study abroad, or a further three percent of the tertiary-age population. All in all, 12% of Namibians of the relevant age group participate in tertiary education.

Other countries that also have significantly high levels of participation in tertiary education, locally or abroad, include Mauritius, South Africa, Namibia, Botswana, Swaziland, Seychelles, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Lesotho (see Figure 2). Except for South Africa and the Democratic Republic of Congo, countries with small populations tend to have a large proportion of students abroad. These countries generally take advantage of the extensive tertiary education opportunities available in South Africa or other countries.

In contrast, countries such as the Democratic Republic of Congo and South Africa – with large populations and relatively large tertiary education systems – have small proportions of outbound mobile students. South Africa, which has one of the most extensive tertiary education systems in the region, has fewer than 6 000 students studying abroad, representing about 0.1% of its tertiary-age population. The same is true for Nigeria: about 26 000 (0.2% of its tertiary-age population) are studying abroad.

**FIGURE 2: GROSS OUTBOUND ENROLMENT RATIO AND GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO FOR TERTIARY EDUCATION, 2009**
CONCERNS ABOUT THE QUALITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

In several SADC countries, the growth in local tertiary enrolment surpasses that in outbound mobile students, but rapid expansion in enrolments, without sufficient funding for higher education, has raised concerns about the quality of higher education.

Figure 3 compares the average annual growth rates in local tertiary enrolment and in the number of outbound mobile students in sub-Saharan African countries between 1999 and 2009. The zone below the diagonal line indicates countries where local tertiary enrolment is growing more rapidly than the number of outbound mobile students, which suggests that countries are becoming more able to meet local demand for higher education. A slower growth in outbound mobile students may also imply that countries are less able to afford to send large numbers of students abroad. Most sub-Saharan African countries are located in this zone, with the Democratic Republic of Congo being a particularly extreme example with decreasing numbers of mobile students contrasting with an increase in local enrolment. As discussed in several studies, the rapid expansion in enrolments with shrinking public funding for higher education in most African countries has raised concerns about the quality of higher education (Butcher, Wilson-Strydom et al, 2008; Pillay, 2008; World Bank, 2009).

The zone above the diagonal line indicates countries where mobile numbers are growing faster than tertiary enrolment at home. There are only two SADC countries in that group – Botswana and Lesotho. In the case of Lesotho, the government provides scholarships to send students abroad (UNESCO-UIS, 2011) which may contribute to the high number of outbound mobile students.
SADC students are among the most mobile students worldwide, with six out of every 100 tertiary students studying abroad.

In 2009, some 89 000 SADC students studied outside their home countries and the number accounted for 5.8% of tertiary enrolment (i.e., outbound mobility ratio) in the region. The ratio is higher than the regional average for sub-Saharan Africa (4.9%) (see Figure 4) and is three times higher than the world average (two percent). SADC students are also more mobile than non-SADC sub-Saharan Africans (outbound mobility ratio is 4.4%) (Figure 5). The relatively higher regional student mobility may partially result from the SADC Protocol on Education and Training (1997), which aims to facilitate mobility. Despite what has been agreed in the Protocol, it is stated that several countries, except for South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe, continued to charge higher fees for SADC students than national students, which is a potential barrier to student mobility (Butcher, Wilson-Strydom et al, 2008). However, country-level outbound mobility ratios are highly variable, ranging from 1% in the Democratic Republic of Congo to 43% in Namibia.

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Note: Data for South Africa includes enrolments in public institutions only.
FIGURE 4: NUMBER OF MOBILE STUDENTS FROM A GIVEN REGION AS A PERCENTAGE OF TERTIARY ENROLMENT IN THAT REGION (OUTBOUND MOBILITY RATIO), 1999 AND 2009

FIGURE 5: OUTBOUND MOBILITY RATIO IN SADC AND SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA NON-SADC, 2009

Half of all SADC mobile students stay within their own region.

Similar to most developing regions, sub-Saharan Africa has a high flow of students to countries outside their own region (UNESCO-UIS, 2009). However, disaggregated data shows that indeed, contrary to the student flows elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa, the...
proportion of SADC mobile students staying in their own region is as high as 50%—second only to Western Europe. Nearly half of all mobile students from SADC study in South Africa, followed by the United Kingdom (10%), the United States (8%), France (7%) and Australia (6%) (Figure 6). In addition, two Portuguese-speaking countries, Brazil and Portugal, also host a total of 6% of mobile students from SADC.

By contrast, outbound students from non-SADC sub-Saharan Africa are considerably less likely to remain within their own region (Figure 7). Only 1% of students from non-SADC sub-Saharan African countries study in South Africa and only 5% study elsewhere in Africa. The majority (about 69%) of mobile students from elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa study in France, the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany or Canada. Not surprisingly, the choices of destination for mobile African students are still often influenced by colonial and linguistic links. For instance, 85% of mobile students from Madagascar study in France and 51% of Angolan mobile students study in Brazil or Portugal, where they have linguistic and/or colonial ties.

**FIGURE 6: PERCENTAGE OF MOBILE STUDENTS STUDYING IN ANOTHER COUNTRY WITHIN THEIR OWN REGION/SUB-REGION, 2009**
FIGURE 7: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SADC MOBILE STUDENTS BY DESTINATION, 2009

South Africa, 48
Australia, 6
France, 7
U S, 8
U K, 10
Brazil, 3
Portugal, 3
Morocco, 2
Russia, 2
Canada, 2
Namibia, 1
Remaining countries, 10

FIGURE 8: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NON-SADC SUB-SAHARAN AFRICAN MOBILE STUDENTS BY DESTINATION, 2009

Ghana, 1
Camaroon, 3
Spain, 1
Norway, 1
Sweden, 1
India, 1
Cuba, 1
Belgium, 1
Niger, 1
Remaining countries, 7

South Africa, 1
Russia, 2
Italy, 2
Morocco, 3
Malaysia, 3
Canada, 3
Germany, 5

France, 27
U S, 17
U K, 15
THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE FLOWS OF MOBILE STUDENTS ARE DISPERSED OR CONCENTRATED

Another way of looking at student mobility is to examine the extent to which students from a given country are concentrated in or dispersed over a number of countries of destination. The Dispersion Index \(^7\) (Figure 8) provides insight into this issue. A high dispersion index indicates that students from a given country are well dispersed across a wide range of countries. Assuming that outbound students eventually return after they complete their degree abroad (or remain abroad while contributing to the social, political or economic development of Africa), a greater dispersion of students may imply a wider range of new ideas that returning students may bring back to their home countries. Countries that have a relatively high dispersion index include Angola, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, the Seychelles, South Africa, the United Republic of Tanzania, and Zambia.

By comparison, countries which have a relatively smaller dispersion index include Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. Students from these countries are typically fairly concentrated in one main destination. These students mainly study in South Africa, except that the majority of mobile students from Madagascar study in France. The higher education sector in South Africa is well developed, with a strong infrastructure and several well-respected research institutions that are attractive to international students. South Africa hosted about 61,000 international students in 2009\(^8\), two-thirds of whom came from other SADC nations. South Africa is not only the leading host country in Africa, but also ranks 11th among host countries worldwide. South Africa is making an important contribution to the continent’s human resource development and helping to retain skilled graduates in Africa (MacGregor, 2007).

FIGURE 9: DISPERSION INDEX VALUES BY COUNTRY, 2009

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7 The Dispersion Index is used to measure the extent to which students from a given country who study abroad are dispersed over many countries or concentrated in a few countries of destination. The formula can be seen on page 41 in UNESCO-UIS (2009).

8 Higher education statistics disseminated by the South African government do not include students studying in private institutions. The numbers of international students are therefore under-reported.
FIELDS OF STUDY

To assist policymakers in planning the supply of educational programmes needed by students and the society, information about enrolment by types of programme, both locally and abroad, is critical. However, the incomplete country-level data submitted to the UNESCO-UIS does not allow us to capture the distribution of student enrolment by field of study within the SADC region.

Through the survey of universities in SADC, Butcher, Wilson-Strydom et al (2008) found that most SADC students (about 70%) are enrolled in the humanities and social sciences. Enrolments in science, engineering and technology account for 22% while enrolment in the health sciences is relatively low at 7%.

Regarding the field of education that mobile students pursue abroad, business and administration\(^9\) appears to be the most popular field of study for SADC mobile students, which is also true in general for mobile students worldwide, (UNESCO-UIS, 2009). About one-third of SADC mobile students in South Africa and one-quarter in United Kingdom and United States study in this field (Figures 9 and 11). The next most popular programmes in South Africa are social sciences and law (20%) and education (13%); and in the United Kingdom and the United States health (16%) and social sciences and law (16%). The numbers of SADC students studying in health science programmes, both locally and abroad, are low (about 77,500 within the region and 2,300 in the United Kingdom and the United States).

FIGURE 10: IN SOUTH AFRICA, DISTRIBUTION OF TERTIARY ENROLMENT BY FIELD OF EDUCATION AND ORIGIN OF STUDENTS, 2009

\(^9\) According to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), business and administration is a sub-field of education under the broad field of social sciences, business and law.
A general concern in sub-Saharan Africa is the imbalance between the humanities and social sciences on the one hand and engineering and technology on the other, and the consequent shortage of knowledge and skills needed in areas such as biotechnology and information and communication technology (ICT) (IEASA, 2011). The knowledge and skills of science, technology and engineering are critical to support a knowledge-based economy. Several developing countries in Asia are aware of their importance and have started to stimulate investment in tertiary-level science and technology education. However, science infrastructure in the SADC region is weak, though there are cases (particularly in South Africa) where strong networks link with world-class research institutions outside Africa (Butcher, Wilson-Strydom, et al, 2008). It is likely that insufficient exposure to science and technology training prior to tertiary education results in low motivation or readiness for tertiary-level training locally or abroad in these fields. Stronger national science policies may lead to improvements in the situation (Mouton, Boshoff et al, 2008).

**THE DEMAND FOR UNDERGRADUATE VS MORE ADVANCED DEGREES**

SADC mobile students have a greater demand for undergraduate degree programmes than they do for more advanced programmes (eg Masters or PhD degrees) abroad. In 2009, three-quarters of SADC mobile students studying in South Africa were in undergraduate degree programmes (Figure 10). Similarly, two-thirds of their counterparts studying in the United Kingdom and the United States were enrolled in undergraduate programmes (Figure 13). By comparison, students from developing countries in Asia, such as China, India, and Thailand, are about three times as likely to choose more advanced programmes in the United Kingdom and United States. This finding suggests that higher education systems in SADC, in general, have insufficient places for local students who desire to attend college or universities. Consequently, upper-secondary graduates leave their home country and seek overseas education opportunities instead.
Furthermore, low capacity in the higher education system in this region is compounded by a lack of postgraduate programmes in many higher education institutions (Butcher, Wilson-Strydom et al, 2008; Mouton, Boshoff et al, 2008).

However, unlike their counterparts from other SADC nations, mobile students from South Africa have a relatively greater demand for advanced programmes in the United Kingdom and the United States (Figure 12). South Africa has a high capacity in its higher education systems to meet the need for undergraduate programmes for local students and students from other countries.

**FIGURE 12: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TERTIARY STUDENTS STUDYING IN SOUTH AFRICA BY PROGRAMME TYPE AND ORIGIN OF STUDENTS, 2009**

- **SADC mobile students**
  - Occupationally-oriented: 25%
  - Bachelors: 51%
  - Masters: 21%
  - Doctorate: 3%

- **Local students in South Africa**
  - Occupationally-oriented: 37%
  - Bachelors: 48%
  - Masters: 13%
  - Doctorate: 1%

Note: Undergraduate degree programmes include occupationally-oriented and bachelor degree programmes.

**FIGURE 13: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SADC TERTIARY GRADUATES WHO STUDIED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE UNITED STATES BY PROGRAMME, TYPE AND ORIGIN OF STUDENTS, 2009**

- **South African mobile students**
  - Undergraduate (occupationally oriented + bachelors): 56%
  - Graduate (masters + doctorate): 44%

- **SADC - excluding ZA mobile students**
  - Undergraduate (occupationally oriented + bachelors): 68%
  - Graduate (masters + doctorate): 32%
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

There are relatively low levels of participation in tertiary education in the SADC region, with only about six out of 100 people of tertiary education age enrolled in higher education institutions locally. The region lags well behind the rest of the world, where gross enrolment ratios range between 13% in South and West Asia and 72% in North America and Western Europe, with most developing regions ranging between 20% and 40%. The level of participation in tertiary education for SADC students is enhanced if the number of outbound students is included, suggesting that studying locally or outside the home country is an alternative (and perhaps complementary) pathway to expanding tertiary education access opportunities for SADC students.

In several SADC countries the growth in local tertiary enrolment surpasses that of outbound mobile students, but, as stated previously, rapid expansion in enrolments without sufficient funding for higher education has raised concerns about the quality of higher education (Butcher, Wilson-Strydom et al, 2008; Pillay, 2008; World Bank, 2009).

SADC students are among the most mobile students worldwide. In 2009, some 89 000 students from the region were studying abroad - approximately six out of every 100 tertiary students from the region (outbound mobility ratio: 5.8%). By comparison, the outbound mobility ratio is higher than in non-SADC sub-Saharan Africa (4.5%) and is three times higher than that for the world (2.0%). High outbound ratios appear in countries with small populations, such as Mauritius and Namibia, and in countries where studying abroad is in part financially supported by the government, such as Lesotho; whereas more populous countries tend to have low outbound ratios, such as the Democratic Republic of Congo and South Africa, where higher education capacity is strong. Indeed, South Africa plays an important role as a regional hub of higher education on the continent by hosting over 61 000 international students in total, and ranks as the 11th top host country worldwide.

Currently, about half of all SADC mobile students study in other SADC nations, mostly in South Africa itself. By comparison, only 4% of mobile students from elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa remain within their own region. This intra-region flow seems to be in line with the SADC vision for regionalism, and also with the principles of the 1997 SADC Protocol on Education and Training, at least as far as academic mobility is concerned. Mobile students from Angola, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, the Seychelles, South Africa, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia are relatively well-dispersed across a wide range of host countries. On the other hand, mobile students from Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe mainly study in South Africa, while those from Madagascar generally choose to study in France.

Business and administration is the most popular discipline for SADC mobile students who study in South Africa, followed by social sciences and law, and finally education. For their counterparts who study in the United Kingdom and the United States, the most popular fields remain business and administration, followed by health, and social sciences and law.
SADC mobile students have a greater demand for undergraduate degree programmes than they do for more advanced programmes (e.g., Master or Doctorate degrees) abroad. About two-thirds to three-quarters of SADC mobile students studying in South Africa, the United Kingdom or the United States are enrolled in undergraduate programmes. By comparison, students from countries such as China, India and Thailand in Asia are about three times as likely to choose more advanced programmes in the United Kingdom or the United States.

By highlighting new patterns in student mobility in the region, we hope to raise more awareness and attract the attention of researchers, policymakers and higher education leaders to an increasingly important trend (student mobility) in the formation, retention (and loss) of human capital within the SADC region.

REFERENCES


THE STATE OF ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN THE SADC REGION

Mercy Mpinganjira

ABSTRACT

This paper looks at the state of academic mobility in the SADC region. The results of the analysis show that academic mobility in most countries of the region is characterised by very high numbers of students studying internationally and very low levels of participation in hosting international students. Most of the students in the region spend the duration of their courses in other countries, as short-term mobility programmes such as student exchanges or semester abroad programmes are not a common feature in the region. The region is also characterised by very low visibility of staff mobility particularly at intra-regional level. Despite this, there is a lot of scope for enhancing academic mobility to the benefit of individual countries and the region as a whole. The paper has identified some of the issues that need to be addressed in order to enhance academic mobility in the region.

INTRODUCTION

Academic mobility in higher education is a phenomenon dating back to the beginning of the first modern universities. Today demand for, and the importance of, academic mobility have been precipitated by the rapid integration of world economies through forces of globalisation. Kishun (2007) observed that in the current globalised world, education and its outcome knowledge have become the prime wealth creators for individual countries and regions. As a result, academic mobility in the modern world is characterised by a new sense of urgency and a growing number of actors, and is diversified in form.

This paper looks at the state of academic mobility in the Southern Africa Development Community region (SADC) region. The discussion is presented in four main sections.

10 Mercy Mpinganjira is a senior lecturer in the Department of Marketing Management, University of Johannesburg. Email: mmpinganjira@uj.ac.za
The first and second section focus on student and staff mobility respectively. The third section looks at major rationales behind the need for promoting academic mobility in the region. The last section provides an analysis of issues that need to be addressed or borne in mind in order to further promote academic mobility. The paper then briefly touches on the topic of virtual mobility before its conclusion. It should be noted that the term academic mobility as used in this paper is defined as the movement of students and staff in higher education to another institution for the purposes of study, research or teaching. Jons (2009) noted that academic mobility often, but not always, involves crossing of national boundaries. The focus of this paper is on international mobility but not for the purposes of migration.

INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY IN THE SADC REGION

According to UNESCO (2010), internationally mobile students are defined as those students who have crossed a national or territorial border for the purposes of education and are enrolled outside their country of origin. It should be noted that while registered in a local higher-education institution students can still experience either a full or short-term international course. Statistics on international student mobility show that the outward student mobility ratio for sub-Saharan Africa is the highest of all the major regions in the world. According to 2008 statistics, the mobility ratio stood at 4.9 while the global average was at 1.9 (UNESCO, 2010). Outbound mobility ratio is a measure of the number of mobile students coming from a country or region as a percentage of all tertiary students in that country or region. UNESCO (2006) noted that a high outbound mobility ratio can either indicate high interest in international studies or deficits in educational provision at home.

ENROLMENT IN LOCAL TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

Statistics at the SADC regional level according to Table 1 show that between 1999 and 2008 most SADC member countries managed to significantly expand their enrolment levels in tertiary institutions. The biggest percentage increases, far above all other SADC countries, took place in Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo. South Africa and Swaziland had lower levels of increase over the years. It is, however, important to note that South Africa already had the highest tertiary enrolment levels in 1999 compared with all other SADC countries. In absolute terms, the country managed to increase its tertiary level students by over 100 000 students over the period. Thus the lower base at which most other SADC students started makes their percentage increase more apparent than a country starting at a higher base, such as South Africa.

While SADC countries in general have managed to increase their tertiary enrolment levels, a look at the gross enrolment ratios (GERs) shows that all countries in the region except Mauritius are lagging behind the global average (26) in terms of tertiary education participation levels. GER is a measure of the number of students enrolled in a given level of education (in this case at tertiary level) regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the theoretical age group for the same level of education.
For the tertiary level, UNESCO uses the five year age group following the official secondary school graduation age. GER thus allows one to assess the general levels of participation at a given level of education.

**TABLE 1: TERTIARY ENROLMENT LEVELS 1999-2008**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total enrolment 1999</th>
<th>GER 1999</th>
<th>Total enrolment 2008</th>
<th>GER 2008</th>
<th>% change in enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>7 845</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>48 694²</td>
<td>3²</td>
<td>524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>9 595</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16 239²</td>
<td>8²</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>60 341</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>308 739</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>4 046</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8 500²</td>
<td>4²</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>30 800</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>62 069</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>3 179</td>
<td>negl.</td>
<td>6 458¹</td>
<td>negl.¹</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>1,825</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25 578</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>10 322</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28 298³</td>
<td>1³</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>9 561</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19 707</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>632 911</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>741 320²</td>
<td>15²</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>4 880</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 692²</td>
<td>4²</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>18 867</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>51 080³</td>
<td>1¹</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>2 155</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>42 775</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>93 572 272</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>158 713 307</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ±n: data refers to the n years after/before the reference year.
Sources of data: UNESCO-UIS [online] (2011); UNESCO 2010, UNESCO, 2009 and UNESCO 2003

As a result of low supply capacity, many students in the region find that the only option for them to access higher education is to study abroad.

**OUTWARD INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY**

Table 2 presents statistics on international outward student mobility in the SADC region between the years 1999 and 2008. The table shows that in general, there has been an increase in the numbers of students from the region going abroad for the purposes of study. DRC is the only country that experienced a decline in outward international student mobility. This may be explained by the large increase in enrolments achieved by the country over the same period. Table 2 further shows that except for South Africa and the DRC, all the other countries whose data is available have excessively high outward mobility ratios when compared with not only the global average but also the average for sub-Saharan Africa (4.9). This has much to do with the low supply capacity of the countries as evidenced by low GERs at tertiary level.
### TABLE 2: INTERNATIONALLY OUTWARD STUDENT MOBILITY IN THE SADC REGION 1999 - 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Mobile students 1999</th>
<th>Outward mobility ratio 1999</th>
<th>Mobile students 2008</th>
<th>Outward mobility ratio 2008</th>
<th>Mobile students % change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>4,467(^1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>7,344(^1)</td>
<td>13.5(^2)</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>3,775</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7,315</td>
<td>49.8(^2)</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>4,485</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3,924</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4,300</td>
<td>45.0(^2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>2,658</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4,076</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>1,137</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1,945</td>
<td>29.1(^1)</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>4,579</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>7,401</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>2,007(^1)</td>
<td>16(^1)</td>
<td>2,441</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8,252</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles</td>
<td>232</td>
<td></td>
<td>462</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>4,628</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5,500</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3,518</td>
<td>51.7(^2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>2,477</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4,149</td>
<td>7.8(^1)</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>2,385</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4,250</td>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23,512</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>1.75 million</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.97 million</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: \(^-\)\(^n\): data refers to the \(n\) years after/before the reference year.


### TOP DESTINATIONS FOR SADC STUDENTS

Table 3 presents details of the major host countries of international students from the SADC region. According to the table South Africa, together with the UK and USA, is in the top five destinations of students from 13 of the 15 SADC member countries. France is a more popular destination for students coming from the DRC, Madagascar and Mauritius, while Portugal is more popular with students from Angola and Mozambique. Historical and linguistic ties can help explain the popularity of France and Portugal for the SADC countries identified. Other countries in the top destinations for students from some SADC countries include in order of frequency Cuba (5), Canada (2), India (2), Morocco (2), Germany (1), Switzerland (1), Mauritius (1) and Burundi (1).
### Table 3: Top Destinations for SADC Mobile Students 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total mobile students 2008</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Namibia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>7 344¹</td>
<td>1 101</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>4 794¹</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>7 315</td>
<td>5 194</td>
<td>591</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>511</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
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### Inward International Student Mobility

Table 4 shows how SADC countries are doing in terms of hosting international students. According to UNESCO (2010), a total of 79 417 international students were hosted in the whole of the sub-Saharan region in 2008 representing 2.7% of the world’s international students. Of these 63 964, representing 80.5% were hosted by South Africa alone. Namibia and Madagascar were the only other countries that indicated hosting comparatively more international students at 2004 and 1 066 students respectively. The majority of the students hosted by SADC countries come from other African countries, SADC countries in particular. For example, out of the 55 405 African students hosted by South Africa in 2008 around 45 000 come from SADC member countries.
It is important to note that the unavailability of up to date statistics on international student populations and their countries of origin in most SADC member countries makes it difficult to accurately evaluate the extent to which member countries are living up to the mandate to reserve at least 5% of admissions for international students from member countries according to the SADC protocol on education and training. However, bearing in mind that short-term mobility programmes are limited in the region, the general picture shows that except for South Africa and Namibia most countries are failing to meet the requirement.

### INTERNATIONAL STAFF MOBILITY IN THE SADC REGION

Staff mobility is mainly concerned with movement of staff for the purposes of training, teaching and research activities. While UNESCO and a range of national institutions publish data on international student mobility, information on the global circulation of higher education scholars is rare. Despite the general lack of statistics, Altbach et al (2009) noted that worldwide there has been an increase in the number of international agreements between tertiary institutions, most of which includes faculty exchange components. He further reported that countless numbers of scholars move around the globe each year to teach and conduct research abroad or attend scholarly meetings. International staff mobility in most countries in the SADC region is, however, characterised by very low visibility.
MAIN AVENUES AVAILABLE FOR STAFF MOBILITY

ATTENDANCE AT ACADEmic CONFERENCES
This is the major source of academic mobility in higher education around the world. Conference attendance and presentation of papers attracts a lot of institutional support in South Africa in terms of funding at university level. There is, however, very low visibility of academic staff from other SADC countries at international and regional conferences, resulting in low interaction between members of staff in the region. Attending conferences comes with many benefits. By nature, conferences are interactive and provide opportunities to network, exchange ideas and improve knowledge and skills. Many academics would agree that there have been many instances of spin-offs from contacts made during conferences leading to partnerships for collaborative research.

POSTGRADUATE EXTERNAL EXAMINATION
Postgraduate student examination often requires high levels of knowledge in an area of study. It is not uncommon to extend the search for examiners beyond national borders and this may involve physical movement of the examiner to the foreign institution for some limited period of time. Use of international external examiners helps in ensuring that the academic standards of each award are in line with minimum international standards.

SABBATICAL LEAVE
This is a common provision in most if not all public universities in the SADC region. It entails freeing academics of their teaching and administrative duties at regular intervals, often every seven years, thus providing them with opportunities for scholarly work at other institutions. It should, however, be pointed out that sabbatical leave is far from being a common academic mobility feature among many academics in the region, due mostly to lack of programmes and budgets for hosting staff on sabbatical. However, it has enormous potential for enhancing mobility and intellectual circulation.

COLLABORATIVE RESEARCH AND PUBLISHING
International collaborative research projects often entail physical travel of the partners over the course of the collaboration period to participate in the research activities, including dissemination of results. It allows researchers to gain an international perspective on issues under investigation and bring empirical evidence from a number of sources to support findings.

Some of the current major initiatives that specifically promote collaborative research and staff mobility in the region and beyond include the AU/NEPAD (African Union/New Partnership for Africa’s Development) networks of centres of excellence in science and technology and the ACP-EU (Africa, Caribbean and Pacific countries – European Union) programme in higher education.
AU/NEPAD NETWORKS OF CENTRES OF EXCELLENCE IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY PROGRAMME

In September 2005, the African Ministerial Council of Science and Technology adopted Africa’s Science and Technology Consolidated Plan of Action (CPA) comprising specific flagship programmes to be implemented by networks of centres of excellence (AU/NEPAD, 2006). The centres of excellence take a regional networking approach, with each network consisting of a hub and nodes spread throughout the region. According to AU/NEPAD (2006), one of the reasons for establishing the networks was because it was noted that:

... many African scientists, engineers and technicians as well as institutions are confronting similar problems but tend to work in isolation. By networking the best available institutions, expertises and infrastructure spread over Africa, scientific productivity and innovativeness may be significantly increased.

The AU/NEPAD Africa Biosciences Initiative is one of the early initiatives under the science and technology networking programme. In line with the regional networking model adopted, the biosciences initiative has four regional networks: the Southern Africa Network for Biosciences (SANBio), the North African Biosciences Network (NABNet), the Eastern and Central Africa Network (BecA) and the West African Biosciences Network (WABNet). The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) of South Africa hosts the hub for SANBio and has a number of research and development projects spread across nodes located mostly in universities in the member countries. Some of the projects include capacity building in bioinformatics for the Southern Africa region coordinated by the University of Mauritius, fish biodiversity in inland rivers in Southern Africa coordinated by Bunda College of the University of Malawi, capacity building in indigenous knowledge systems coordinated by University of North West, South Africa.

THE ACP-EU COOPERATION PROGRAMME IN HIGHER EDUCATION (EDULINK)

Funded by the European Commission, EDULINK promotes ACP-EU cooperation in the field of higher education. Some of the initiatives under the EDULINK programme include the Intra-ACP Academic Mobility Scheme and Erasmus Mundus.

The Intra-ACP Academic Mobility Scheme promotes cooperation between ACP higher education institutions (HEIs). According to the European Commission (2011) the intra-ACP academic mobility scheme provides support to:

• Higher education institutions to set up inter-institutional cooperation partnerships between universities from different countries under ACP.

• Individual students, researchers, and university staff to spend a study/research/teaching period in another ACP country.

In Africa, this programme builds on the African Union’s Mwalimu Nyerere programme whose objectives include nurturing African excellence by enhancing the attractiveness of higher education in Africa, increasing intra-African academic mobility and encouraging young Africans to remain and work in Africa after graduation. Under the current European
Commission call for proposals (EACEA/35/10) whose deadline was 6 May 2011, all SADC member countries are included in the list of eligible countries in which activities included in the mobility scheme can take place. Higher education institutions in almost all SADC member countries already feature as partners in the projects already funded under previous calls for proposals.

According to the European Commission (2011(b)) Erasmus Mundus is a cooperation and mobility programme in the field of higher education that aims to enhance the quality of European higher education and to promote dialogue and understanding between people and cultures through cooperation with third countries. Among its objectives the programme provides support to higher education institutions that wish to implement joint programmes at postgraduate level or to set up inter-institutional cooperation partnerships between universities from Europe and targeted third world countries; as well as supporting individual students, researchers and university staff who wish to spend a study/research/teaching period in international partner institutions.

A number of South African higher education institutions are already involved as partners in joint programmes with EU higher education institutions under the Erasmus Mundus programme, including Tswane University of Technology, Stellenbosch University, University of Cape Town, University of KwaZulu-Natal, University of Pretoria and University of the Western Cape (Delegation of the European Union in South Africa, 2010).

**THE PAN AFRICAN UNIVERSITY (PAU)**

PAU is a priority educational project of the African Union and once fully operational it presents another significant opportunity to increase academic mobility in Africa at both regional and intercontinental level. According to the AU (2011) PAU will offer programmes at postgraduate level in key areas of science, technology and governance. The proposed structure of PAU includes one rectorate as overall coordinating office, five institutes – one in each African geographic region to serve as coordinating hubs for each thematic area and up to 10 centres from around Africa in each thematic area, networked to the relevant thematic institute. According to Chaibi (2010) PAU will enable students to transfer credits between institutions and teachers to transfer services.

The avenues discussed above present good opportunities for growing academic mobility in the SADC region. Many scholars have, however, expressed concern over low levels of promotion of available programmes resulting in limited levels of awareness of available opportunities for staff mobility among members of academia. Another problem relates to lack of data in most of the available programmes on numbers of participants and their countries as well as institutions of origin. This makes it difficult to assess the extent to which available programmes are actually contributing to promoting academic mobility in the region. It is important to bear in mind that having programmes on paper that have academic mobility components does not always mean actual mobility.
RATIONALE FOR DRIVING ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN THE SADC REGION

Countries and higher education institutions in the region need to be clear about what kinds of benefits they hope to derive through promotion of academic mobility, since these will help inform the kind of programmes that need to be developed, implemented or supported. A clearly articulated set of rationales will also help in assessing the effectiveness of mobility initiatives/programmes. Some of the benefits SADC member countries stand to achieve through promotion of academic mobility include:

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

There is much evidence indicating that countries better endowed with human capital experience rapid economic development. Higher education is central to the creation of human capital. SADC countries in general are characterised by very low participation rates in higher education. Outward international student mobility has the potential benefit of increasing access to higher education especially in countries facing acute supply capacity problems. The biggest challenge in outward international mobility is the problem of students not wanting to come back to their countries after finishing their studies, resulting in brain drain. A study by Seth (2000) as quoted by Shinn (2002) found that almost half of those who leave Africa do so initially to study abroad. The problem is compounded by deliberate policy measures taken by most major international student hosting countries such as the USA, UK, Canada and Australia, aimed at attracting international (mainly postgraduate) students to remain in their country on successful completion of their studies (Australian Government, 2005). This is not to say that international student mobility to such countries should be curtailed, but policy should rather look at mechanisms to ensure that most of those who go, especially those sponsored to do so, will come back.

Staff mobility through initiatives such as joint programmes, established links with scholars in the diaspora or any other agreements can also help to ensure access to highly skilled personnel capable of mitigating the skills shortage in SADC’s institutions of higher learning. Such scholars can be used, for example, to provide supervisory services to postgraduate students or to deliver some courses.

PROMOTING SOCIAL-CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS AND STAFF

International academic mobility can help in promoting understanding of other cultures and languages. These are essential qualities for modern citizens, many of whom work and live in highly multicultural settings. Local students also benefit from international student hosting programmes as they help to provide a diverse cultural and social perspective to the learning experience, thereby enriching the experience of all students as well as staff. More importantly, academic mobility helps in the development of personal, institutional and national ties that make it easier for locals to do business or form business partnerships
with people familiar with their own country and cultural setting to the benefit of all involved and the nation as a whole. Knight (2010) noted that exposure to other cultures, institutions, customs and political systems helps to enhance students and staff world views and sharpen their analytical skills. It also helps foster respect for diversity.

**ENHANCED RESEARCH PRODUCTION AND UNIVERSITY REPUTATION**

According to the 2010 Global Research Report, Africa’s research publications in 2008 stood at around 27,000 papers, which is about the same volume of research output produced by the Netherlands alone (Adams et al, 2010). Ten thousand of these research publications were produced by 14 of the SADC member countries excluding Madagascar. An analysis of research output at regional level over a 10-year period (1999-2008) in the same report shows that South Africa, Nigeria and Egypt lead in research publications in the southern, central and northern regions of Africa respectively. South Africa’s output over the 10-year period stood at nearly 47,000 papers, while the next most prolific nation in the region, Tanzania, had just over 3,000.

Low investment in research is to a large extent responsible for Africa’s low research outputs. It is noted in the global research report that available resources in some countries are substantial, but they are not being invested in the research base. At the same time the report acknowledges that there are some African countries with limited resources that are making notable and effective contributions of a high standard. In particular the report singles out Malawi as a country that with one-tenth the annual research output of Nigeria produces research of quality that exceeds the world average benchmark, while Nigeria hovers around half that impact level. The report concludes by noting that the volume of activity in terms of research output in Africa is much smaller than is desirable if the potential contribution of Africa’s researchers is to be realised for the benefit of its populations. Academic mobility programmes, in particular those supporting international collaborative research or training of researchers/research students, have the potential to put Africa and the SADC region in particular on the world map through enhanced research output.

**COMMERCIAL BENEFITS/ INCOME GENERATION**

Commercial interests have become an increasingly important factor driving international student mobility over the past two decades. The IDP (2008) reported that export of educational services was Australia’s third largest export earner in 2007, with an export value of AUS$12.5 billion. NAFSA (2010) reported that foreign students and their dependents contributed USD$17.6 billion to the US economy during the 2008/2009 academic year. SADC countries, especially those higher education institutions with supply capacity, can also benefit from recruitment of full fee-paying international students. These will have to be non-SADC students; under the SADC protocol on education and training, SADC students studying in any member country are expected to be charged the same tuition fees as local students.
ISSUES THAT NEED TO BE MANAGED IN ORDER TO PROMOTE INCREASED ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN THE SADC REGION

FUNDING

Funding is a key factor in efforts aimed at promoting academic mobility of both students and staff. Ishengoma (2008), in analysing international student exchange programmes at the University of Dar es Salaam, noted that although the university has signed up to exchange programmes with many international partners, the uptake of the opportunities is very low due to the inability of students and their parents to raise the required finances. Leaving financing to individual students, especially of short-term mobility programmes such as student exchange or study abroad programmes, will result in a situation where only sons and daughters of the rich are able to access such programmes. One of the main reasons why academic mobility under the Erasmus programme in Europe has strong uptake is because there is funding dedicated to supporting student and staff mobility.

Funding is also an important issue even when it comes to research projects. Mouton et al (2008) observed that there is often an overreliance in many SADC countries on research funding from foreign governments and other external donors including multilateral development agencies. The problem with this is that the research agenda will often be set taking into account primarily the interest of the funders, which may not always be in line with national priority needs. Even if the priorities of such agencies are aligned with the needs of countries in the region, external funders are rarely there for the long term and this may affect long term sustainability of some projects.

RECOGNITION OF QUALIFICATIONS

The ability to enrol in international institutions very much depends on the qualifications recognised as equivalent or comparable to the normal entry qualifications required of local students. Without that recognition, access to higher education becomes impossible. For students on short-term mobility programmes such as student exchange and study abroad programmes, the ability to transfer academic credits earned at one institution to another becomes important and also depends on recognition of credits acquired. To this effect, current efforts by SADC countries to develop a regional qualifications framework (SADCQF) need to be commended, as this will enhance harmonisation and facilitate recognition of qualifications in the region.

QUALITY ASSURANCE

Closely associated with recognition of qualifications are issues of quality assurance and accreditation of institutions and programmes. The quality of infrastructure and educational
resources including lack of adequate information and communication technologies, acute shortage of textbooks, equipment, lecture rooms, furniture, etc, already presents a stumbling block to attracting internationally mobile students and scholars in most SADC countries. There is thus need for SADC member countries to look at measures to address these constraints.

Liberalisation of the higher education market is one of the measures taken in most SADC countries over the past decade in order to increase access to higher education. The result has been the mushrooming of private higher education providers. MacGregor (2009) noted that although most of the higher education enrolments in SADC member countries are in public institutions, the number of private higher education providers outnumber public institutions in all SADC countries. Provision of private higher education in the region is dominated by locals, as very few international providers operate in the region. The proliferation of private higher education institutions in the region has raised serious quality concerns among many stakeholders.

Enhanced academic mobility will very much depend on effective quality assurance in the region. There is thus a need to develop quality regulatory frameworks at institutional, national and regional level to include local and international as well as private and public providers. The quality regulatory frameworks need to be properly harmonised in terms of agreed minimum standards as well as procedure for evaluating quality in order to enhance regional cooperation on recognition of qualifications/credits.

IMMIGRATION POLICY LAWS

Makochekanwa and Maringwa (2009) noted that there are many barriers to free movement of individuals within SADC, including stringent visa requirements, application bureaucracies and costs of applying for permits. Promotion of academic mobility will require relaxation of migration laws and regulations by governments in order to facilitate freer movement of students and staff within the region for the purposes of research, teaching and study. Speedy granting of study permits and short-term work permits for students and staff interested in academic mobility would in particular go a long way to enhance academic mobility.

IMPROVING DIRECTION OF MOBILITY FLOWS

Statistics on the current flows in student mobility show that it is heavily skewed towards outward mobility from the rest of SADC member countries to South Africa or to first world countries, mainly the UK, US, France, and Australia. One explanation for this is the quality of education and research infrastructure offered in the major hosting countries. Knight (2010) observed that long-term academic mobility in general tends to greatly favour strong universities. SADC countries will need to look at promotion of short-term students and staff mobility programmes as a measure to help improve direction of flows and to enhance the potential of academic mobility to benefit more than just the strong universities.
MOBILITY SERVICES

Institutions of higher education need to develop and monitor services aimed at supporting international academic mobility and experiences. In many universities this is the responsibility of the international office. These services include dissemination of information on available opportunities, practical support with visa applications, support on arrival including help with accommodation arrangements, etc. Increased uptake of mobility programmes may very much depend on experiences that students and staff have in existing programmes.

THE ACADEMIC CALENDAR

Differences in academic calendars of institutions of higher education in the region make academic mobility, especially short-term teaching and study mobility programmes, difficult to coordinate. This, however, does not have as much impact on student and staff mobility for research purposes. Additionally, disturbances in the academic calendar due to strikes by students and staff are a common problem in many African universities. At such times, international students can often be severely affected and will require special care.

VIRTUAL MOBILITY – A NEW AND GROWING FORM OF ACADEMIC MOBILITY

While the emphasis so far has been on physical mobility, virtual mobility offers increased opportunities for international academic mobility without physically crossing national borders. Facilitation of courses or supervision of research projects using an ICT-based learning environment have become common in many parts of the world. Globally, hundreds of thousands of students are enrolled in foreign programmes in their home country without the expense and disruption of living abroad.

While offering a viable alternative to physical mobility, member countries need to be aware that virtual mobility also poses special challenges to quality assurance and regulation. Additionally, while many universities in the region have made significant strides in the integration and use of ICT across various functions of the university, poor access to technology, especially by students, limits the potential of virtual mobility in most SADC member countries. Many things can, however, still be done using technologies such as email and Skype. Despite its positive potential to enhance academic mobility, Hoffman (2009) noted that the nature of an academic experience defined by never leaving the culture, country or continent of one’s birth is still different. For SADC countries, the choice need not be between physical or virtual mobility but should be aimed at enhancement of academic mobility using all feasible modes.
CONCLUSION

SADC member countries cannot expect to achieve significant national and regional development as well as international competitiveness without institutions of higher learning that meet the highest standards. Academic mobility offers the region opportunities to become internationally engaged and competitive. Promotion of academic mobility has the potential to help member countries not only grow their capacity in terms of provision of higher education services but also to improve on the quality of provision. Short-term mobility programmes in particular have a lot of potential to enhance the participation of countries in the region in terms of both inward and outward mobility of staff and students while minimising the risk of brain drain. However, for this to happen the academic mobility agenda needs to be embraced by all stakeholders in higher education including government, higher education institutions themselves, staff, students, aid agencies as well as other private and community partners. The Southern Africa Regional Universities Association (SARUA) in particular has a major role to influence policy formulation and implementation in this regard.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

A case study of the USHEPiA (University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa) project is presented to demonstrate an example of student mobility enablement in Africa using a network of institutions. The USHEPiA experience demonstrates the effectiveness of a network based on a common needs assessment, the enthusiasm of all participants and adequate management capacity. It looks at its conception, mode of operation and its achievements to date. Possibilities of upscaling and lessons learned are also considered.

INTRODUCTION

USHEPiA is the University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa (West and Shackleton, 1999, Thomas et al, nd). The key African initiative came from the Association of African Universities (AAU) during their 1992 annual meeting in Accra, Ghana, where invited representatives from South African universities where present as observers. The University of Cape Town (represented by Deputy Vice-Chancellor Martin West) was one of a number of South African universities to accept the invitation. Martin West subsequently visited universities in southern and East Africa in 1993 to explore possibilities for cooperation. The Rockefeller Foundation was then approached with a proposal to develop south-south research links in the field of capacity-building partnerships in science and engineering. Proactive interest and support by the Vice-Chancellors of the Universities of Botswana, Cape Town, Dares Salaam, J KUAT, Makerere, Nairobi, Zambia and Zimbabwe were also critical. The purpose was to provide sustainable institutional and human capacity in African universities and collaboration among African researchers.

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USHEPIA developed as a cooperative programme between a number of partner universities in East and southern Africa (West and Shackleton, 1999). The following universities are currently members: Makerere University (Uganda), Jomo Kenyatta University for Agriculture & Technology and the University of Nairobi (Kenya), University of Dar es Salaam (Tanzania), University of Zambia, University of Zimbabwe, University of Botswana and the University of Cape Town (South Africa).

PARTICULARS OF THE USHEPIA PROGRAMME

FUNDING

Major funding for fellowships in science and engineering initially came from the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation, with some financial support also contributed by the Ridgefield Foundation and the Coca-Cola Foundation. Significant funding was later obtained from the Andrew W Mellon Foundation for the addition of fellowships in the humanities. The partner universities contribute salaries and staff time to those who are studying (West and Shackleton, 1999). The funding was utilised as follows: Rockefeller Foundation (science and engineering), Carnegie Corporation (science and engineering) and Andrew W Mellon Foundation (humanities). The funding was primarily for full degree fellowships, small grants for successful returned fellows, meetings of the International Steering Committee (ISC) and the management committee, workshops, evaluations and other ongoing requirements (Ojwang and Warner, nd).

The programme was located in Anglophone Africa. The purpose was to train and retain African staff through “south-south” collaboration. The research was likely to be more relevant to the continent, while costs were likely to be lower than an equivalent scheme in Europe or North America. A continental location further reduces the threat of a brain-drain.

THE FELLOWSHIP DESIGN

The following are the requirements for an USHEPIA fellowship (Warner, 2010):

- USHEPIA fellows must be staff members in their home universities.
- They apply to undertake studies and research, jointly supervised at an away and their home university, that lead to PhD or Masters degrees.
- The research topics are usually in identified priority developmental areas in the fellow’s home country.
- Applications must be endorsed by the Vice-Chancellor, dean of the faculty and head of department, to ensure that full support is given to the applicant.
- Supervisors must be identified to be well-qualified, experienced and enthusiastic.
- The international steering committee, comprising three vice-chancellors, the project leader and the deputy vice-chancellor (International) of UCT, makes the final awards.
- The fellowships are unique and flexible. Each project is accompanied by a customised budget. Annual reports are mandatory.
- Both supervisors must travel to the other university.
ANNOUNCEMENT AND APPLICATION PROCESS

When funding is obtained from a donor organisation the USHEPiA office sends out an Announcement of Opportunity (Ojwang and Warner, nd). This contains comprehensive information about the programme and about application procedures. All applications must be endorsed by the head of department, dean and Vice-Chancellor. There is then an active search for a suitable supervisor and identification of a home supervisor. The research must be valid to the region and country. There is no real age restriction on applicants. Both supervisors are expected to visit the “away” university. The applications are rated by the potential primary supervisor. The management committee makes an initial selection for recommendation to the international steering committee, which makes the final selection and identifies reserves. The award procedure is then carried out, and the planning visits are arranged.

PLANNING VISIT

UCT supervisors attend a workshop to introduce them to the programme before they embark on planning visits. The planning visit is a meeting of all three players and is the beginning of a learning process. During the visit they must finalise the project proposal and plan of action and agree on a fellowship budget.

UCT STAY (MAXIMUM OF 24 MONTHS)

USHEPiA organises accommodation, per diem expenses, tuition fees, support from the USHEPiA office and hospital cover. This is to enable full-time focus on work. The student may also undertake any extra courses needed. Provision of compassionate funds for crises has been made. Spin-off benefits include exposure to a new country, university, friends and cultures.

GOVERNANCE OF THE PROGRAMME

Governance of the programme is through two committees (Ojwang and Werner, nd). The international steering committee formulates policy and makes major decisions. It comprises the Vice-Chancellors of three of the participating universities and a deputy vice-chancellor from UCT, and is chaired by the project leader. The management committee is a local committee based at UCT and advises and supports the USHEPiA office. It comprises a non-UCT vice-chancellor, the project leader, UCT deans of science, engineering, humanities, and commerce, the USHEPiA director, administrator, coordinator and finance manager.

One of the main tasks of the management committee is to assess the annual reports of all the fellowships and rule on satisfactory progress and continuation of the fellowship.
USHEPIA PROGRAME SUCCESSES

Sixty-four full degree fellowships have been awarded, 35 in three cohorts within the science and engineering discipline, funded by the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation; 26 in four humanities disciplines, funded entirely by the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation, and three in the discipline of food security, funded by the Rockefeller Foundation (Warner, nd (c)).

Thirty-eight degrees have been awarded to date (31 PhDs, seven Masters). There have been three withdrawals, one failure, and three deaths. The rest of the fellows are still to complete. The first fellows began their degree studies in 1996. Fellows take back equipment to their home university, such as computer hardware and software, often specialised scientific or technical equipment and books. Collaboration has thus led to a sharing of regional resources.

ACADEMIC MOBILITY VIA USHEPIA

• The fellowship structure mandates a split-site degree, although it is not a joint degree. This requires the fellow to travel between the two universities.
• The fellowship mandates travel to the other university by both the home and the away supervisors.
• The programme has brought 71 postgraduate students to UCT, who are staff members at their own universities.
• They are not only role models for South African students, but also provide cultural and academic enrichment in their host departments.
• Research collaborations have developed around these students/fellows, among the fellow/home supervisor/away supervisor triangle.
• This has resulted in exchange of external examiners and collaborative research projects, and has provided a unique opportunity for UCT academics to interact with colleagues in other countries in Africa.

BENEFITS OF ACADEMIC MOBILITY

The benefits of academic mobility include the improving of academic standards; keeping up with current thinking and developments; offering different perspectives; and regional relevance in the research (Warner, 2006; 2010).

QUALITY ASSURANCE:

Quality programme management is essential to the quality, sustainability and success of a programme. USHEPIA aspires to learn from the best practice. Two major evaluation initiatives have taken place. In 1998 an internal evaluation was carried out with the senior executive of all the partner universities. This was followed in 2003 by an external evaluation carried out by Jeffrey Fine, an acknowledged expert in African academic networks (Warner, 2007).
INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH COLLABORATION:

The partnership also makes the best use of available resources and funding, shared knowledge and experience.

STUDENT DEVELOPMENT:

Student development takes place through course content and development of course material.

In general, the following benefits also accrue from the partnership through mobility: resource sharing, library and information science, fundraising as a network (partnership), distance learning/e-learning, addressing issues such as HIV/AIDS as a region, learning from others’ mistakes/experience, academic freedom, internationalisation of HE, impact of the Internet, technical expertise, experiential learning, and many more.

KEY CHALLENGES

Funding is not guaranteed as it is ephemeral, so fellowships cannot be offered regularly, eg on an annual basis. They are therefore offered in cohorts (Ojwang and Wamer, nd).

COMMUNICATIONS

Communication problems, whether by letter, fax, email or telephone, are almost endemic in Africa, and have probably been the most challenging of the difficulties faced. They have affected communication between the USHEPiA office and the partner universities and between fellows and supervisors.

CAPACITY (HUMAN AND INFRASTRUCTURAL)

USHEPiA did not have a designated governance structure until the 2004 Vice-Chancellors workshop when the three boards, their composition and terms of reference were formally agreed upon. The framework for the programme infrastructure was initiated by Lesley Shackleton and Caz Thomas, and continued by Nan Wamer (Wamer, 2007).

Different institutional systems have proved a challenge in some instances. For example, problems were encountered due to inexperience in assessing the prior qualifications of some fellow candidates. On a few occasions a fellow has needed remedial coursework or training before beginning the research. This has retarded the schedule, cost extra money, and sometimes lowered morale.

The fellowship aspires to attain a 50:50 male to female ratio. However, difficulty in finding suitable female applicants has resulted in lower female numbers.
After graduation, sustaining research is often difficult. There are heavy teaching loads and the two activities need to be balanced.

The time taken to complete the degree is not standard. Some fellows may prolong their research programmes at home through having to spend time working to augment their salaries. Similarly, fellows have experienced difficulties in completing work once they return to their home universities, due to pressures of local work and local responsibilities.

Organisational structure setup is informal. The organisational structure, essentially an administrative office, a local management committee and a steering committee, was put in place at the start by informal agreement among the partners. In what is probably typical network fashion, not much attention was paid to constitutional detail or future possibilities. While this structure has been very effective in running the programme, its strength is also a possible weakness.

LESSONS LEARNED

The following lessons have been learned:

• African universities can develop capacity themselves.
• African universities can retain their academic staff - USHEPIA has a 100% success rate for keeping fellows on the continent and about a 95% success rate for keeping fellows in their home universities.
• Postgraduate research to address African issues with internationally benchmarked quality can be achieved.
• Research methodologies are developed that are appropriate for the region.
• More respect and knowledge are generated regarding African research.
• More self-respect is engendered in African researchers on the continent.
• African academic research networks are formed.
• Research results impact on teaching, and curricula are restructured to become more relevant to students.
• African cultural knowledge, values and ways of approaching research and teaching can be shared.

KEY SUCCESS FACTORS

The key critical success factors include (Thomaset al, nd; Warner, 2006, 2010, USHEPIA website):

• Thorough advance consultation that involves a series of preliminary meetings to establish common concerns and build personal relationships at an early stage. Reciprocal visits at senior management level (including Vice-Chancellors, deputy Vice-Chancellors and deans), which were important in familiarising the potential partners with the facilities and interests of the different universities.
• Agreed identification of objectives between potential partners clarified the specific advantages. UCT for example, stressed its spare capacity to take postgraduate students, its desire to develop research relationships within the continent,
and the importance of students from other parts of Africa as role models within the changing South African context. The other partner universities stressed their staff development and capacity-building needs, and their desire also to develop continental research relationships.

- High-level cooperative management backed by intensive local management and support. The processes followed ensured institutional buy-in from the start, at the highest level. As the project developed, the direct involvement and support of the Vice-Chancellors of the partner universities proved crucial in resolving administrative and other difficulties.

- Flexible individual fellowship management, especially in budgets, is a critical component. Each fellowship is individually-tailored as part of an interactive process involving the fellow and the two supervisors.

- The “enthusiasm principle” which is an assessment of the degree of enthusiasm for the project, starting with the assessment of potential partner universities and continuing with a similar assessment of potential supervisors.

- A network that has been developed beyond individual fellowships. This has led to linkages between universities, departments and supervisors leading to other spin-offs, particularly involving supervisors, such as the appointment of external examiners and invitations to lecture or deliver seminars.

- Multi-level, interacting linkages that have been developed, which involve successful networking at three levels simultaneously: at university senior management level, at departmental level and at the level of individual fellows.

- Sustainable capacity-building based on the involvement of joint supervisors, the stress on local research projects, the provision of suitable equipment and the emphasis on longer-term research cooperation and the ability to raise funds independently for future research.

**PROSPECTS FOR SCALING UP**

The following were proposed possibilities for the scaling up of USHEPiA (Nhlapo, 2010; Wamer, 2010):

- The continued support for the core programme of full degree split-site PhD and Masters joint supervision fellowships for staff members of the partner universities. This is for the development of academic staff in the partner institutions.

- Establishment of a database of identified strengths and capacities among the partners. There was total unanimity on the need for USHEPiA partners to identify and publicise their strengths and capacities (also referred to as centres of excellence). These should include not only academic programmes but such benefits as affordable accommodation and even the existence of empowering legal frameworks such as student-friendly immigration rules. The creation of a comprehensive database consolidating all this information was proposed in order to provide accessible information so that fellows intending to pursue a USHEPiA career could ascertain their options. With improved knowledge about other partner universities, there would be greater scope for joint research, and other activities.
• The need to decentralise, in terms of the away university, the availability of sites for the training and hosting of fellows and other academic activities to be equitably shared among USHEPiA members.

• The need to use the partnership as a home for various other forms of collaboration, such as visiting lectureships, sabbatical attachments and external examinerships. This flow of scholarly traffic should include, where necessary, the exchange of supervisory capacity whether connected with USHEPiA fellows or not.

• The need for USHEPiA to venture strongly into the field of post-doctoral study to enable the grounding of academic postgraduate trainees to smoothly reintegrate on return to their home universities, in all areas including research competence and publication. This should include all staff, not only USHEPiA graduates, but should be confined to the USHEPiA partner universities.

• The need to train fellows in mentorship, supervising, methodology, project administration, proposal writing and other capacities required of the modern researcher. However, when and where these could be taught was not unanimously agreed upon.

• The formation of a USHEPiA alumni association and the involvement of alumni in various roles in respect of their home university and the region, which drew unanimous support. The advantages perceived in pursuing this approach included the potential for alumni to be used as fundraisers and in marketing USHEPiA. They could also be a valuable asset in the reintegration of fellows on their return to the home university.

• Increased support from the home university for the successful returned graduates through involving the returnee in roles of useful academic leadership such as mentoring and supervising the research of junior colleagues and students and, of course, teaching. Financial support for publishing and conference attendance was also seen as crucial in helping the fellow to develop some academic capital and a scholarly reputation.

• Expansion through incorporation of new members. The balance of opinion appears to be in favour of retaining USHEPiA at its current size as an eight-member consortium.

• Upscaling and fast-tracking the production of qualified fellows, and expanding the USHEPiA programme to cover more disciplines and areas of study such as health and animal sciences. The fellowship should aim to stay within the four-year time frame. Various measures should be taken to ensure that this happens, such as cutting funding after four years and have a contract signed by the fellow limiting consultancy work to a limited number of hours a week while at home.

• New funding; including applications to national governments, regional and international organisations, the private sector, specialist academies and institutes, as well as the traditional international foundations. The USHEPiA office should investigate the holding of a donor conference in 2011, when the case for sustaining USHEPiA into the future would be presented. Ministers of Education or relevant officials should also be lobbied and invited to attend, to support the application. Other bodies to be considered for attendance include UNESCO, IGAD, SARUA, ILO, AAU.
Seed funding by members. There was consensus on the principle of each USHEPiA partner contributing to seed funding, some members expressing a preparedness to contribute immediately and others pleading their current economic circumstances as a barrier to any immediate hard contribution.

CONCLUSION

The USHEPiA project shows that African partnership programmes can work. Replication of the model is possible provided that there are one or more institutions which have the capacity, jointly or severally, to provide facilities of the appropriate quality. Greater participation, commitment and financial contribution by partner universities are required for sustainability of the programme. Funding is critical for success and African governments and other organisations can be approached for support. However, there is no single model of success.

REFERENCES


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ABSTRACT

The ZIMCHE-SARUA-IOM diaspora short-term lecturers return project sought to respond to the problem of brain drain that severely depleted human resources in the higher education sector in Zimbabwe. This was achieved through facilitating the temporary return of diaspora lecturers to Zimbabwe state universities. The project was initiated in response to a plea to SARUA for assistance from the Zimbabwe University Vice-Chancellors’ Association (ZUVCA).

The project, which ran from July to December 2010, was coordinated by the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE), supported by the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education through their human capital website and funded by the International Organisation for Migration (IOM). As at 31 December 2010, the project had facilitated the return of a total of 59 lecturers to six state universities. In addition, at least 200 potential diaspora lecturers were registered so that they could be temporarily deployed to any university in Zimbabwe as and when need and resources permit.

The successes and challenges faced during project implementation have made it possible to identify best practices for use in similar projects. There is clear evidence that a project of this nature can be expanded at a regional level in order to foster academic mobility and improve the scope of higher education in the region.

12 Evelyn Garwe is the Deputy Chief Executive Officer of the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education. Email: evelyngarwe@yahoo.com
BACKGROUND

On 24 April 2010, at the SARUA leadership dialogue workshop held in Cape Town, South Africa, the Zimbabwe University Vice-Chancellors Association (ZUVCA) requested strategic assistance to stabilise Zimbabwean universities that were under threat as a result of the exodus of highly qualified academics and professionals, a weakened research and teaching infrastructure, the lack of optimal Internet connectivity and access to developmental resources. At that workshop, Professor Chetsanga, Chairman of ZIMCHE, strongly supported the request by ZUVCA to SARUA in his presentation.

Vice-Chancellors in South Africa committed themselves to developing partnerships with Zimbabwean institutions to increase collaborative support to higher education in Zimbabwe and to make staff available on a short-term basis by way of secondments, staff exchange arrangements and provision of research supervisors.

The Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) was tasked to coordinate the above activities and serve as the point of contact for any project designed to respond to any of the circumstances outlined above.

PREPARATORY WORK

The Chairman of ZIMCHE, Professor C.J. Chetsanga, discussed the project with the Permanent Secretary for Higher and Tertiary Education of Zimbabwe, Dr Washington Mbizvo, who expressed full support for the project. He set up a task force which he chaired, comprising members from ZIMCHE, the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) Harare office and the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education. The aim of the task force was to discuss modalities of implementing the project in the context of the budget made available by IOM. The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education had already hosted the website www.zimbabwehumancapital.org that served as a platform for interaction between the Ministry, which is responsible for human capital development, and professionals and academics in the diaspora.

IOM agreed to provide funding to cater for lecturers’ transportation, per diem costs, equipment and other related expenses using funds sourced from the European Union and the Japanese government. IOM had already gained experience from one of its projects aimed at facilitating temporary and permanent return of health professionals to Zimbabwe.

The project was designed in such a way that lecturers in the diaspora could come to any of the nine Zimbabwe state universities on short lectureship visits for periods ranging from two to four weeks. It was agreed not to limit the project to lecturers from the region but to encourage world-wide participation, resources permitting. The project was also open to lecturers who were not Zimbabweans but were willing to participate.
Unfortunately, resources mobilised by IOM were only enough to run the project from July to December 2010. The number of lecturers supported depended on the cost of bringing them to Zimbabwe. The more lecturers coming from the region the lower the cost, hence the greater the number supported. All stakeholders expected to continue with the project during 2011, but to date funds have not yet been secured.

PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS

The following nine state universities in Zimbabwe participated in the project:

- University of Zimbabwe (UZ).
- National University of Science and Technology (NUST).
- Bindura University of Science Education (BUSE).
- Midlands State University (MSU).
- Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT).
- Great Zimbabwe University (GZU).
- Lupane State University (LSU).
- Harare Institute of Technology (HIT).
- Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU).

PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

To implement the project, ZIMCHE requested all the participating institutions to submit a comprehensive report stating their staffing situation and highlighting the vacancy rates per department. They were also asked to list the number, field of specialisation and specifications of their diaspora lecturer requirements.

ZIMCHE communicated with SARUA and asked them to request vice-chancellors of South African universities to inform their lecturers about the initiative. An advert was uploaded on www.zimbabwehumancapital.org inviting diaspora lecturers to submit applications attaching their curricula vitae and copies of their degree certificates as well as indicating periods of availability to the CEO of ZIMCHE.

SELECTION PROCESS

Following submissions of lecturer requirements by the nine state universities, allocations were made to the various universities as indicated in Table 1. The following criteria were taken into account:

- Only academic departments with at least 60% vacancy rates were considered.
- No allocations were made for departments with only one or with no full-time lecturer. It would be difficult for the diaspora lecturers to run a department for periods of two to four weeks.
- The fields of engineering, health, science, agriculture and computer science were given priority.
PROCEDURE/LOGISTICS

The procedure for engaging a diaspora lecturer was two-pronged. Either the university identified a potential lecturer and then forwarded the relevant documents to ZIMCHE and/or IOM for processing, or the interested lecturers sent their CVs to ZIMCHE for distribution to institutions according to previously agreed allocation criteria. The institution interested in the lecturers would then request ZIMCHE to arrange the visits. In both cases the lecturer and the institution needed first to agree on the dates the lecturer would be available.

ZIMCHE then generated an offer letter to the lecturer that was jointly signed by ZIMCHE and IOM. As soon as the lecturer accepted the offer, IOM made the travel arrangements and processed allowances and associated logistics, including the signing of a contract between the lecturer and IOM. The hosting universities agreed to provide accommodation and other on-campus necessities.

MILESTONES

Officials from ZIMCHE and IOM visited the eight state universities (ZOU was not included in these visits) from 11 to 19 October 2010 to assess the implementation and progress of the diaspora lecturers’ temporary return project and to get feedback from these universities as well as from the visiting lecturers. The visits also served to identify any limitations at the institutions, such as equipment and other requirements for use by the visiting lecturers either in their offices or where they were accommodated.

In addition, as part of their contractual obligations, all the visiting lecturers were required to submit a mid-term as well as an end-of-term report to IOM detailing their work and their experiences during the period they had been engaged as temporary lecturers.

Although both returning lecturers and receiving institutions lauded the project, some challenges in the recruitment process, logistical issues and the delivery processes were identified. During task force meetings and stakeholder consultations, it was noted that further discussions were necessary to formally address these challenges and to design solutions.

A workshop was consequently organised and conducted by IOM on 16 December 2010 at the Rainbow Towers Hotel. The objective of the workshop was to discuss challenges and experiences in the implementation of the sequenced return programme with stakeholders, with a view to formulating recommendations and best practices for future programmes of a similar nature.
PROJECT RESULTS

TEMPORARY RETURNS

By 31 December 2010 ZIMCHE had compiled a database of more than 200 lecturers internationally who expressed interest in short-term lectureship visits. Out of these, 71 offers were made to diaspora lecturers, but due mainly to problems with flights during the months of November and December, 59 were able to come (refer to Table 1).

The returning lecturers covered various fields of expertise as shown in Table 2. Table 3 shows that these lecturers came from countries in Africa, Europe and the US.

### TABLE 1: LECTURER REQUESTS AND ALLOCATIONS BY UNIVERSITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>No requested</th>
<th>No of offers</th>
<th>Actual No who visited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University of Zimbabwe (UZ)</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Health Sciences</td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Faculties</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National University of Science and Technology (NUST)</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Health Sciences</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Faculties</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harare Institute of Technology (HIT)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bindura University of Science Education (BUSE)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midlands State University (MSU)</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Zimbabwe University (GZU)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lupane State University (LSU)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>884</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 2: DISTRIBUTION OF DIASPORA LECTURERS BY FIELD OF EXPERTISE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Field of Expertise</th>
<th>No of lecturers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Agricultural, Veterinary and Environmental Sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Engineering, Architecture and Surveying</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information &amp; Communication Technology</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Basic and Applied Sciences</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 3: DISTRIBUTION OF LECTURERS BY DIASPORA INSTITUTION AND COUNTRY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>No of Institutions</th>
<th>No of lecturers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPACT

The visiting lecturers achieved the following:
- They all taught a whole module during their short visits.
- They managed to establish research links and held seminars on research.
- They gave advice on departmental projects and strategic business units.
- Some donated equipment and books.
- They mentored students and junior lecturers.
- Most pledged to supervise junior lecturers embarking on higher degrees.
- They established lasting linkages and relationships with the host institutions.
- Some made recommendations on curriculum review.

WHAT THE INSTITUTIONS SAID/WROTE

Sharing experiences at the review workshop
We had never seen a professor at our “young” university. We had no accommodation for him but we went out of our way ... Just as he did!

To the visiting lecturer
Please note that such visits are very useful to us as we are currently facing serious staff shortages... We would like to arrange a similar visit in the next semester between February and June 2011.

WHAT THE DIASPORA LECTURERS SAID

This project was initiated at the right time ... It is a well thought out practical project that will go a long way in bringing back the glory that has characterised Zimbabwean education for decades. Returning professor

This visit was important for my personal development and profession; it fostered respect for diversity and a capacity to deal with other cultures. Non-Zimbabwean professor
I left before Lupane State University (LSU) was established. My experiences here during my visit makes LSU my institution of choice when I return permanently. Returning lecturer

WHAT THE LECTURERS WROTE AFTER THE VISIT

To the Vice-Chancellor, Thank you very much for affording me the opportunity to share my experiences with your staff. I am sure this is the beginning of a long and sustainable relationship.

To IOM and ZIMCHE, I am looking forward to a similar assignment even in December 2010 or January 2011. I am prepared to serve you.

REFLECTIONS ON PROJECT ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES

BENEFITS

All participating institutions and returning lecturers agreed that the project was a success in spite of the limitations faced by the institutions in terms of both resources and facilities. They requested that the project be extended in an expanded form during 2011. They proffered the following as benefits of the project:

- The project afforded an opportunity for research partnership and mentorship between visiting lecturers and hosting lecturers who are based in Zimbabwe. An example is of Chinhoyi University of Technology, which had received two lecturers from Namibia. Subsequently, discussions were held for the establishment of collaborative research between CUT and the University of Namibia.
- Bringing in diaspora professionals assisted in clearing some views portrayed by negative media publicity outside the country on the country’s education system.
- The project supported by the Zimbabwe Human Capital website helped ZIMCHE to develop a database of professionals in the diaspora.

CHALLENGES

The challenges during the project were cited as:

- The contracts for returning lecturers normally lasted between two and four weeks and the time was considered too short by institutions. Students needed more time to get used to the lecturer, so institutions requested that the length of the period for deployed professionals be increased or that the same lecturer be deployed to the same institution for their subsequent visits. Continuity would be compromised
if new professionals were received in institutions rather than the return of professionals who had previously visited.

- Returning lecturers expressed concern over the USD50 per day paid by IOM as the daily allowance. They explained that obtaining leave in some countries would mean forfeiting their annual leave, hence the allowance was not worth the effort.
- Some visiting lecturers were dissatisfied with the resources available at the institutions where they were deployed. They were used to appropriate state of the art teaching aids such as LCD projectors and unlimited Internet access. These were unavailable in institutions in the country and that limited the lecturers’ capacity to deliver.
- Insufficient office space, water cuts and power outages were some discouraging factors that hindered some diaspora professionals from continued participation in the project.
- It would be cost effective to source professionals from the region in order to cut travelling costs and increase the number accommodated.
- Poor communication with institutions was reported to be one setback that compromised the efficiency of the project. Some claimed to have received visiting lecturers at short notice and hence had little time to prepare and communicate their expectations to the deployed professionals.
- Diaspora professionals willing to contribute to the development of the country and service provision could only teach in priority areas identified by the universities, shutting out other fields of expertise.
- The project had faced some resistance from some professionals who are based in the country. The locally based lecturers felt that their job security would be threatened if Zimbabweans from the diaspora, with better qualifications, decided to come back to settle permanently. Local lecturers requested that they be given some incentives for staying behind in the country when other professionals left for greener pastures.
- The four private universities in Zimbabwe, namely the Women’s University in Africa, Solusi University, Catholic University and Africa University registered complaints about being left out of the project. They expressed great interest in being included in the next phase of the project.

**THE WAY FORWARD**

All stakeholders agreed on the following as the way forward:

- Additional support was needed to meet costs of bringing educational material (books) and essential equipment, which may be sourced with the assistance of the Diaspora lecturers.
- The project should embrace existing staff and students by implementing exchange programmes to widen their knowledge and experience.
PROSPECTS FOR SCALING UP THE INITIATIVE

There was overwhelming support and goodwill for the short-term lecturer return project from universities in Zimbabwe, professionals in the diaspora and Vice-Chancellors of universities (especially in southern Africa), who were willing to release Zimbabwean lecturers at their universities to participate in the project without loss of pay or benefits. The attraction of 59 lecturers during the project implementation period is an indication that the project was well received. With the database of more than 200 willing lecturers already in place, the project served its purpose. More have already expressed an interest in returning to lecture in Zimbabwe in 2011, funding permitting.

Stakeholders in the project recommended that it be expanded to regional and international levels by embracing staff and student exchange programmes. This already demonstrates the possibility of scaling up and expanding the initiative on academic mobility.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion we would like to applaud SARUA for not only inviting us to share our experiences but also for creating a platform where the collective capacity of our region could be used to assist a member in need.